ALE Conference Proceedings

2005 – Wilmington, NC

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FACILITATION SKILLS FOR THE COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP PRACTITIONER

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

Johanna Reed Adams, Ph.D.
Community Leadership Development State Extension Specialist,
University of Missouri Extension

Presentation Track**:** Practice

Community development practitioners recognize facilitation as a critical leadership skill. This presentation addresses the "science", "art" and "practice" of facilitation for individuals who work with community leadership groups and organizations. Emphasis will be placed on practical skills. Participants will have the opportunity to practice within a safe context.

Johanna Reed Adams, Ph.D. is the State Community Leadership Development Extension Specialist at the University of Missouri-Columbia. Johanna is responsible for the programming designed to respond to the rapidly growing need for community-based leadership. She works with University of Missouri Extension Regional Specialists and collaborating partners to create educational programs requested by community and organizational leaders throughout Missouri. Johanna's main focus has been the EXCEL (EXperience in Community Enterprise and Leadership Development) program held throughout Missouri. She has a Bachelor of Science in Political Science, Masters in Public Administration and a Ph.D. in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis from the University of Missouri-Columbia.

Introduction:

There has been a renewed interest in citizen involvement in community decisions. While many issues are still decided by powerful and financially strong networks, the ability of the average citizen to collect relevant information, address issues with intelligence, and initiate public meetings has made the public influence greater.

Those who work with communities have learned to recognize the need for effective facilitations skills. Facilitation is a critical leadership skill or tool. This hands-on presentation will address the "science", "art" and "practice" of facilitation for individuals who work with community leadership groups, community organizations or in the workplace. Emphasis will be placed on practical skills. In the tradition of experiential learning, participants will have the opportunity to practice within a safe context.

Objectives:

1. Increase the individual's comfort level as a facilitator.
2. Build capacity among community leadership practitioners.
3. Prepare individuals to facilitate meetings and project initiatives.
4. Provide a toolbox of skills and resources.

Background

With its focus on asking instead of telling, listening and building consensus, facilitation is the embodiment of the new leadership ideal and a core skill for all leaders!
To get the most from people today, leaders have to know how to create buy-in, generate active participation and empower people to take charge. To keep pace, tomorrow's leaders need to be coaches, mentors, sponsors and teachers. At the core of each of these new roles is the skill of facilitation.

Context: For this workshop (Working with community groups/organizations)

> **Settings:** Two fold/ facilitate groups/meetings such as community leadership boards, participant groups, sessions, meetings in the community, organizations and learning/decision-making, discussions, process, planning, and creating, new ideas/solutions to problems.

How it works

> **Description of Content and Format:**
> Participants will be introduced to core competencies in group facilitation. and how they relate to community-based concepts and initiatives. Topics will include: what facilitation is and isn't; the role of a facilitator; criteria for getting involved

and not getting involved; the art and science of facilitation; key communication skills; how to create a safe and cooperative environment; when and how to use ground rules; group formation; how to identify key stakeholders; and participatory decision making techniques. Participants will receive useful materials to add to facilitation toolbox.

The format will be highly interactive and participatory. It will involve participants in tabletop exercises, sharing of individual experiences, case studies, and group activities that illustrate and relate to the subject matter.

Format Outline:

- Introductory group exercise (ice breaker) to put people at ease with each other, to find out what their expectations are and to model the lesson of "getting in tune" with the group.
- Questions to ask and areas to clarify as one moves into the role of facilitator.
- Small Group Assignment: Create an agenda or process design based on a case study followed by sharing and debriefing of exercise.
- Exercises that provide practice of key communication skills.
- Practice using flip charts effectively.
- Anticipate worst case scenarios and discuss/model ways to deal with the possible glitches in the facilitation process.
- Allow time for participants to reflect on learning.
- Explore applications and opportunities to practice, discuss and model good facilitation skills.

Results when facilitation is practiced

- Community and Organization members are more motivated to support the decisions made;
- The best efforts of groups usually yield better results than individual efforts;
- Maximum participation and involvement increase productivity;
- Managers and leaders are better able to draw on those they lead as resources, an ability that is critical to organizational success;
- Everyone has a chance to be influential and useful, and people sense that they are an integral part of a team effort;
- Communities/Organizations can be flexible and produce results more quickly because people are committed to the decisions made;
- Decisions are made where the work must be done;
- People realize that responsibility for implementing decisions lies with everyone;
- Innovation, problem-solving, and implementation skills are build'
- People are encouraged to think and act for the overall good of the communities/organizations;
- Higher-quality decisions can be made;

- A forum is provided for constructive conflict resolution and clarifying misunderstandings; and
- Negative effects are less likely, such as low morale, low involvement, and withholding information from others, as well as attitudes such as "its' not my job: and "just tell me what to do.:"

Conclusions/Recommendations

In the Foreword to Facilitator's Guide to Participatory Decision Making by Sam Kaner, Michael Doyle presents two important lessons learned. *"Lesson one: if people don't participate in and 'own' the solution to the problems or agree to the decision, implementation will be half-hearted at best, probably misunderstood, and, more likely than not, fail. The second lesson is that the key differentiating factor in the success of a community or organization is not just the products and services, not just its technology or market share, but the community's or organization's ability to elicit, harness, and focus the vast intellectual capital and goodwill in their members, employees, and stakeholders When these get energized and focused, the community or organization becomes a powerful force for positive change in today's business and societal environments."*

In order to be successful in today's rapidly changing world, Community Development Practitioners must possess facilitation skills in order to effectively follow the Community Development Practices and Principles.

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Volume 5. Making Group Decisions;
Volume 6: Dealing with Group Conflict;
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GLOBAL LEADERSHIP – WHERE IN THE WORLD IS LEADERSHIP EDUCATION?

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Presentation Track – Practice

Bueno and Tubbs' research identifies that leadership education and global leadership are analogous (2004). This presentation will address the challenge of designing and executing educational curricula to develop global leaders. It will address specific activities and convey some strategies to enhance the global perspectives and leadership of our students.

Professional Bios

Tony Andenoro, originally from Cleveland, Ohio, is a Doctoral Graduate student in the Department of Agricultural Education at Texas A&M University. His studies have a strong emphasis on Leadership Development, Creativity, and College Teaching. Tony earned his Bachelor of Science degree in Communication from the University of Toledo and his Master's in Educational Administration from Texas A&M University. He holds certifications in Professional College Teaching, Instructional Leadership Development, Diversity Education, and Administrative Leadership.

Holly Kasperbauer is a Master's Graduate student in the Department of Agricultural Education at Texas A&M University. Her research focus emphasizes teacher education, specifically with the student teacher relationship with the cooperating teacher. A native of Dedham, Iowa, Holly earned her Bachelor of Science degree in Agricultural Education from Iowa State University and received a minor in Horticulture in May 2003. Upon graduation, she moved to Texas to begin her graduate program at Texas A&M University and is scheduled to graduate in August 2005. After graduation, she will begin her career as a high school agricultural science teacher.

Introduction & Background

The influence of globalization and technology requires new paradigms and new leadership competencies (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004). These paradigms are critical to the development of effective global leadership. Thus leadership educators must address the perspectives which encompass the dynamic ideologies and perceptions of our world's societies. Currently in leadership education, there is an emerging priority to discuss the importance of global perspectives, but we barely scratch the surface of how we can teach and empower global leadership within our learners. DiStefano and Maznevski assert that global managers are expected to master an ever-expanding range of knowledge and skills, and educators are faced with the daunting task of preparing these managers to be as effective as possible (2003).

Leadership education and global leadership are analogous and as such, leadership educators will be forced to address global paradigms and develop competencies which can be enhanced within our students to promote effective leadership for the future of our ever dynamic society. Bueno and Tubbs' (2004) identify six competencies which provide us with a foundation for successful global leadership. They are communication skills, motivation to learn, flexibility, open-mindedness, respect for others, and sensitivity (2004). If leaders are continually challenged to use global perspectives, then it is imperative that we, as leadership educators, provide our learners with the tools to effectively develop these competencies in an increasingly global society.

In 2005, a class was created at Texas A&M University within the Department of Agricultural Education to address the emerging need of Global Leadership Perspectives and Global Leadership Competencies within the agricultural development leadership curricula. The class was titled "ADEV 380 - The Global Leader – Addressing International Leadership Perspectives". The class dissects the competencies identified in Bueno & Tubbs' research (2004) and provides students with an opportunity to engage in application activities, to synthesize their knowledge of global perspectives, and more holistically develop followers.

The presentation will provide educators with an enhanced understanding of how to develop and empower global leadership in their students through use of innovative strategies and dynamic means.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the conclusion of this session the participant (learner) will be able to:

1. Identify Global Leadership Competencies as noted by Bueno & Tubbs (2004)
2. Analyze current leadership education programs and practice for the application of global leadership initiatives
3. Develop enhanced leadership curriculum with regards to global perspectives as they relate to dynamic societies

How It Works

The class titled “ADEV 380 - The Global Leader – Addressing International Leadership Perspectives” develops a student’s understanding of global leadership through immersion, guided activities, and discussions of the six competencies of effective global leadership as outlined by Bueno and Tubbs (2004).

The immersion piece requires students to attend an immersion activity within the community addressing perspectives of a culture different from their own. This activity encourages students to develop perspectives of how their culture and the culture they view are different and identify what differences are critical to leadership in the chosen community. An example of this would be a student attending a Muslim student organization meeting and identifying that religion plays an integral role in the governance and leadership within Muslim communities.

Guided activities help to further an international perspective as students address and interpret case studies of leadership from the perspective the 36 global leaders listed in Stanford-Blair and Dickmann’s text, *Leading Coherently: Reflections from Leaders Around the World* (2005). The book acts as the students’ course text. The authors of this Sage publication qualitatively address the perspectives of global leaders providing a means for identifying competencies of global leadership and perspectives of how to influence people on global stage. Themes and trends are formed and developed within the text to provide a foundation for the students’ application of identified competencies.

The third piece is the most dramatic, as students are given an opportunity to discuss how the perspectives of the global leaders and competencies identified by Bueno and Tubbs can be applied to their own leadership style and initiatives. These discussions are integral to the students' development as they synthesize perspectives and begin to develop an international perspective of leadership with respect to cultural perspectives.

Results to Date

Currently, this class is in the workshop stage of development. This means that the class has been departmentally accepted and can be taught three times prior to officially proposing it to University as registered course of study. We have met with groups of students and discussed their qualitative perspectives of the class. The results have been very favorable. Students have reported that they appreciate the knowledge gained from the course, as they feel it will make them more marketable graduates from the Agricultural Development major. They also appreciate the discussion and open debate concerning world politics and leadership. They add that the information within the case studies broaden their perspectives of the differences between corporate ideology and structure within the US culture and other cultures around the world.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Global leadership is an emerging priority within leadership education as educators attempt to develop students who will be successful leaders in our dynamic society. Thus it is critical to examine global leadership and introduce these fundamental perspectives and competencies to our students though innovative curricula. Through inclusion of the six competencies of global leadership as outlined by Bueno and Tubbs (2004), students should begin to develop successful strategies for leading in a culturally and intellectually diverse society.

However, it is important to note that a major limitation of our perspectives on global leadership resides in the lack of ideas, research, and articles published on this topic from outside of the United States. Currently, the United States is the major source of publications on this increasingly important topic. As this biases our cultural perspective of global leadership, one would assert that it is critical to seek out and identify contributing sources to add to our cultural understanding of global leadership as it is viewed by educators and researchers outside of the United States.

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A LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

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Presentation Track: Practice

This workshop will illustrate a leadership development model for officers of student organization in a mid-size university. The workshop objectives are; (1) how to establish an executive leadership program for student organizations that effectively meets their needs, (2) understanding that leadership is a team effort, (3) how to implement the program and (4) lessons learned.

Biographical Profile of Paul M. Arsenault

Dr. Arsenault is an Associate Professor of Marketing at West Chester University in West Chester, Pennsylvania where he teaches courses on leadership, change, innovation and strategic management/marketing. He holds a Ph.D. from Temple University (1999), a MBA from the Babcock School of Management at Wake Forest University (1983), and a Masters in Psychology from Vanderbilt University (1978). He was a James MacGregor Burns Scholar in 2000 and has been very active with leadership organizations such as the ILA and ALE.

Learning Objectives

Being an officer of a student organization is a very difficult task if not at times impossible. Officers are faced with many dilemmas ranging from adequate participation of members to handling conflicts. Probably one of the most crucial skills is effectively working with other officers of the organization. This innovative workshop illustrates how a leadership development program for student organization presidents and their officers was developed and currently implemented at a mid-size university. Therefore, the learning objectives are; (1) how to establish an executive leadership program for student organizations that effectively meets their needs, (2) understanding that leadership is a team effort, (3) how to implement the program and (4) lessons learned.

Background

The idea for the program originated in 2001. The original idea was to establish a series of leadership development workshops for presidents of student organizations. The monthly workshops were to give presidents better insight of their leadership abilities and how to work with their members more effectively. After 2 years, it was decided to extend the workshops to officers of the organization to improve leadership within the organization. The first year for including officers was 2003-04.

How It Works

Experiential workshops are offered on a monthly basis. They are offered three times in a one week in the late afternoon to meet student's schedules. The workshops are repeated every semester to capture organizations that elect a new president and officers in different semesters. Organizations are contacted at the beginning of the semester and reminded of upcoming workshops. Follow-up via email is done to decrease forgetfulness.

The first workshop is to have the president and officers to discuss what is leadership? The Visual Explorer exercise (Palus, Horth & Drath, 1999) is used to help people within organizations make sense of complex issues and enhance dialogue and greater participation in leadership. The goal of the workshop is to get the organizational members to construct a shared meaning of leadership.

The next three workshops are to increase understanding and communication skills among the officers and president. Discussion of their Myers-Briggs® type is the focus of the first of these workshops. Each participant is given their type and information about their type at the beginning of the workshop and then participates in an hour-an-half workshop explaining the function and attitudes of their type with fun and educational activities. The workshop ends with a discussion of how knowing one's types can help their leadership capabilities. The next workshop highlights conflict resolution. The first step is to have the students fill out the Thomas-Kilman Instrument® (TKI) to determine their preferred conflict style. The facilitator reviews the background of the TKI and then has students participate in various activities to illustrate their conflict resolution strengths and weaknesses. The workshop ends with the students participating in the Red-Green game that teaches first-hand how difficult conflict resolution is.

The final workshop focuses on leadership style and making the transition from the existing officers to the new officers of the organization. For the workshop, students are asked to respond the student version of Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Inventory. The facilitator reviews their results in relation to the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership with special emphasis on how they can improve their leadership abilities. A very successful activity with this assessment has been asking students to give personal examples of how they have exhibited any or all of the five practices. How to make the transitional from existing to new officers are then discussed. The goal of this discussion is to help with the difficulty of communicating the knowledge and behavior that is needed to leading a student organization.

Results to Date

The results are qualitative, mostly based on anecdotal evidence, but very persuasive. The evidence or victories are categorized as follows:

- Increased awareness of personal leadership abilities
- Better understanding of others' attitudes and opinions.
- Embracing diversity
- Significantly increased participation with organizations
- Improved decision making within organizations
- Very enjoyable experience

The negative results or setbacks have been solid learning experiences. How to reach the commuter student and scheduling or workshops have been the major setbacks. Other negatives have been the lack of reach out to all campus organizations and educating officers of organizations on the value of the workshops.

Conclusion

This program and its associated workshops seemed to have proved valuable to organizational presidents and officers. The knowledge gathered from the workshops have enabled them to understand themselves and others better, handle conflict resolution more effectively, improve transitions from existing to new officers and better understand leadership strengths and weaknesses. There is still room for improvement in workshop materials but scheduling to meeting the needs of potential participants is of utmost importance. In addition, an assessment program will have to be implemented to determine the true effectiveness of the program.

THE HEIFER PROJECT EXPERIENCE – OPENING EYES AND MINDS

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Cindy Blackwell
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Presentation Track: Practice

With all of the comforts American life affords, it is difficult for some students to see where inequities exist and what can be done about them. Immersion into a way of life physically and socially distant from where and how they live is one way for students to develop an understanding and compassion for other societies and to take opportunities to be a citizen leader in their own community.

Cindy Blackwell is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communications, & 4-H Youth Development at Oklahoma State University where she has a split appointment between Agricultural Communication and Agricultural Leadership.

From my flannel pajamas to my down comforter, my nights are pretty comfortable. After an evening filled with family time, a book or television show, and a few chores, I go to bed with a full tummy and a rested body ready for the next day. As I sleep, the climate in my house is kept at a perfect 72°F so when morning arrives, the comfort will continue seamlessly. The day greets me with clothes and shoes for any occasion and a coat for any and every weather condition. My comfort is extreme, and, while I am not alone, I am one of the privileged. This I know. Unfortunately, I am not sure how many, if any, of the current student body in the college in which I teach understand their level of privilege. From my conversations and observations, it seems that all too many believe that they lack privilege because they do not have a fancy car (but generally do have a car of some sort), a laptop computer, an ipod, or adventurous spring break plans. Too many it seems, see privilege as luxury instead of realizing that to have the basics is to be privileged. Ours is a spoiled society.

So how do we bring this realization to our students? Without the funds for a study abroad trip, or the selflessness and motivation for the PeaceCorps, our students rarely get the opportunity to directly experience the lack of privilege that exists throughout the world. We watch images of countries bound by famine, poverty, unsanitary conditions, and war. We know that, each and every night, children go sleep with no dinner and no bed. Although their sleeping conditions are not of what sweet dreams are made, these images typically stay out of our sight and out of our minds. What are we to do?

The Higher Education Mission

The founding purposes of the American Higher Education system were to create civic leaders and prepare clergy. In the late 1800s, over 200 years after the founding of the first institution of higher education in America, the civic portion of the mission remained in tact, but slightly different with the establishment of land grant institutions which offered education for the common man and stressed the diffusion of knowledge for the betterment of all citizens (Herren & Edwards, 2002). Outside of the land-grant, other institutions during this same time began to reaffirm their dedication to society, led by the University of Wisconsin. What became known as the “Wisconsin Idea”, which was widely adopted by other universities, was the idea “to engage the institution’s resources and energies directly in the search for solutions to public problems” (Lucas, 1994, p. 175).

As a land grant university, Oklahoma State University is committed to the fundamental concept that education is to improve society. The OSU strategic plan (2004), states that OSU is working to achieve “national prominence as a leader positively impacting people’s lives across the state and nation.” The Leadership and Service program in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communications, & 4H Youth Development at OSU works to positively contribute to this strategic plan through the development and education of the program’s students. With the guiding principles being, 1) authentic leadership, 2) independent thinking, 3) professionalism, 4) a commitment to agricultural and natural resources, and 5) the opportunity for developing an open mind, the LAS program works to expose students to challenging learning opportunities and curriculum devoted to each of the guiding principles. One recently introduced learning opportunity, implemented to encourage independent thinking, the developing of an open mind, and a commitment to agricultural and natural resources is a field trip to Heifer International’s Global Village in Perryville, Arkansas. Although a fun-filled field trip, this is no trip to the local museum.

The Experience

The Heifer International experience is a carefully orchestrated and devised program exposing participants to true "tribal" life complete with unequal resources. The mere concept already is very different compared to what student are accustom, in that the "unit of American society is the individual" (Mabey, 1995, p. 314). Students (and faculty alike, if they so choose) are at first oriented to the Heifer purpose, given a tour of the Global Village and then divided by lottery into "family" units. Units range from the "privileged" Guatemala home, which boasts a three-room, cement-floor house and garden, to the Refugee Tent Camp and Urban Slums where resources are scarce. Because resources are not divided equally, trading and bartering are a must for each village. Students work together to garner resources and to determine and prepare the evening meal. The meal-time experience is in stark contrast to the luxury of the student union food court where each individual has a wealth of options and conveniences related to mealtime.

Although only approximately thirty-six hours from departure to return, the Heifer experience packs a powerful punch. Prior to the trip, students demonstrated serious trepidations as to what is ahead of them. "Are there bathrooms?", "How will we keep the animals away while we sleep?", and "What do you mean I have to leave my cell phone in the van?" are just a few of the questions posed. The van ride there, however, offers an environment of camaraderie, as everyone realizes that we are all in for the same adventure. After the experience, the ride home offers a time of reflection, where conversation could turn toward comparisons of experiences and a one-upmanship of who had it the hardest. Time will tell.

It is the direct experience of injustice that opens our eyes and minds and too few of our students have had incidences of such direct experience. College is a time of learning and personal growth as noted by many researchers. In their book *How College Affects Students*, Ernest Pascarella and Patrick Terenzini state that “college attendance does have a modest net effect on social conscience and humanitarian values above and beyond the characteristics and values students bring with them to college” (1991, p. 287). This effect can be heightened given the right experiences and the Heifer experience is one of such experience.

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Community and Purpose: Encouraging Young Women's Civic Development in a Global Leadership Program

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Dr. Keonya Booker is Assistant Dean of Students at Randolph-Macon Woman's College. In her capacity, Dr. Booker is in charge of new student and leadership programs. She implements new student orientation, is advisor to the first-year class, monitors the school-wide electronic portfolio, and directs the newly established Davenport Global Leadership Program. Prior to her position at R-MWC, Dr. Booker was an assistant professor at the University of Virginia in the Curry School of Education.

Presentation Track**:** Practice

In this session, participants will learn about the Susan F. Davenport Global Leadership Program. This innovative program, recently launched at Randolph-Macon Woman's College, spans all four years of a student's college experience and provides access to significant resources that will help them develop strengths in a global marketplace. By the time students complete the program, they will have established themselves as a leader on many levels, locally to internationally.

Introduction

Randolph-Macon Woman's College's Susan F. Davenport Global Leadership Program is the College's latest foray into the development of global leaders. The Program is designed to provide students with a solidly interconnected framework for their development as ethical leaders and contributors to the public welfare at the personal, local, and international levels. The learner objectives for this session include: (1) a description of the development, establishment and implementation of the global leadership program, (2) the presentation of results collected to date and (3) a question-and-answer period for participants who wish to discuss leadership programs at their home institutions.

Background

Randolph-Macon Woman's College is a highly diverse institution. With more than 700 students enrolled on campus, 12% are international students representing 46 countries worldwide. The domestic student body is equally as diverse with students hailing from 46 different states in the union. Randolph-Macon Woman's College considers the development of leaders for the global society of the 21st century to be critical to our overall educational mission. Guided by our Honor Code and supported by our close knit residential community, students are challenged daily to behave ethically and honorably, to bridge cultural differences and to resolve conflict constructively.

How it Works

The Davenport Program was designed to operate as a leadership development ladder over all four years of a student's experience at the College. These separate years are regarded as Phases, which are completed consecutively. First-year students are strongly encouraged to participate, as they will be able to complete all four years. Upperclass students can participate, but they will have to begin at Phase I.

Accompanying this text is a full outline presentation of the Davenport Program; however, as this is the first year of the program, Phase I will be presented in detail. The first phase of the Davenport Program is the Emerging Leader Program (ELP). The ELP is based on the *Social Change Model of Leadership Development* created by a group of higher education professionals and funded by the Eisenhower Leadership Development Program. The core of the program is the *Seven C's*, which help guide the program.

The ELP was in existence in past years at R-MWC, and is used as the foundation for the Davenport Program. In the first semester, students are exploring their values, talents, and skills in weekly Emerging Leader workshops. These workshops span eight weeks and students meet in small groups with an upperclass leadership mentor. These mentors are students who have completed the Emerging Leader Program and are established campus leaders. At each workshop, students cover a new "C" and engage in interactive exercises to practice what was discussed.

In the second semester, students apply the concepts they learned in the fall by completing a public service project. Students are encouraged to work with one another in their small groups to brainstorm an idea, work through the *Seven C's* and then execute the project. At this point, mentors are still providing peripheral support, but mentees are expected to fully apply the leadership skills gained in the fall.

Results to Date

This year's incoming class completed the first part of Phase I of the Davenport Program with much success. A formal evaluation of the program will be completed at the end of the school year. Anecdotal and informal information obtained at this point in the year show that most students are pleased with the program and find it a useful co-curricular activity. Faculty and staff also note that students in the program are completing exemplary work in their courses and are engaged in other activities on campus.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Randolph-Macon Woman's College is a place where courageous and informed leaders are developed and where action for social change is encouraged. The Davenport Global Leadership Program gives incoming students a very comprehensive plan for leadership development. First-years are able to learn about important leadership concepts while, at the same time, encouraged to interact with their peers and engage in service. As developed, the program is designed to utilize and enrich the leadership capacities of its participants. Administrators expect to continually build upon this program in future years.

Below is an outline of the expectations of a student participating in the Susan F. Davenport Global Leadership Program across all four years of her experience:

Phase I: Self-Assessment and Motivation [First-year]

- Complete the Emerging Leader Program (eight workshops in the fall and a community service project in the spring)
- Become actively involved in at least one campus organization
- Document Davenport Program activities in Electronic Portfolio

Students who complete Phase I will be honored at a special ceremony in the spring.

Phase II: Local and Community Action [Sophomore]

- Participate as a peer mentor in the Emerging Leader Program
- Attend the Davenport Leadership Workshop Series
- Become involved with a local community organization
- Identify a community service, internship, or study abroad learning experience to complete in Phase III
- Participate in the Davenport Grant Writing Seminars

Students who complete Phase II will earn a grant writing certificate and are eligible to apply for residence in the Norfolk Leadership House for the following year.

Phase III: Community Action and Proposal Writing [Junior]

- Formal submission of Davenport Grant Proposal
- Implementation of learning experience identified from Phase II (either on-campus or abroad)

Students who complete Phase III will earn the designation of "Junior Davenport Fellow" and be acknowledged at the Academic and Leadership Award Ceremony in the spring.

Phase IV: Davenport Capstone Experience—Global Action [Senior]

- Undertake project outlined in Davenport Grant Proposal
- Present capstone project to R-MWC community in the *Leaders for Global Change Forum*
- Submit an evaluation of overall Davenport experience in a personal assessment document

Students who complete Phase IV will be listed in the Commencement Program as "Senior Davenport Fellows" and will receive special recognition at graduation.

LEADERSHIP SKILLS EMPLOYED BY 4-H YOUTH DEVELOPMENT EXTENSION EDUCATORS

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation track Research

This study investigated leadership practices being employed by county 4-H educators in Pennsylvania. Findings included no significant difference between scores of educators and supervisors for transactional skills. However, there was a significant difference in scores for transformational skills, leadership outcomes, and each LPI construct. Recommendations include staff development opportunities addressing the gaps in skills.

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Leadership Skills Employed by 4-H Youth Development Extension Educators

Introduction/Theoretical Framework

Interest in the concept of leadership has been steadily increasing for scholars, public and private organizations, and managers since the late 20th century (Nahavandi, 2003 & Dubrin, 2001). Kouzes and Posner (1987) note that leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices. Cacioppe (1998) demonstrated that there is a need for leadership and positive leadership skills in all organizations not limited to the corporate world. Increasingly, individuals in all fields need greater levels of positive leadership skills to be successful.

In the past 15 years, there have been major changes to Cooperative Extension. Leadership philosophies taught in the programs of the past no longer address the complex problems found in the communities and organizations of today (Sandman & Vandenberg, 1995). The management and leadership skills formerly found at the top of the most wanted list, no longer apply, and new leadership skills are needed for success (Sandman & Vandenberg, 1995).

A significant component of the Cooperative Extension System is the investment in youth development through the 4-H program. The efforts of 4-H are guided by Pennsylvania's 79 Extension educators focusing on 4-H Youth Development. The 4-H educator's job is to facilitate, coordinate, and lead volunteers who work directly with over 260,000 youth in rural, urban, and suburban Pennsylvania (The College of Agricultural Sciences, 2004). 4-H Youth Development educators need to properly meet the needs of young people, their parents, and the volunteer leaders within their programs.

While investigating the leadership practices of Extension educators, it is important to also examine the beliefs held by their supervisors. This assessment is critical so that any gaps between the educators' perception of skills being practiced, the supervisors' observation of skills being utilized, and more effective leadership skills can be identified and addressed through staff development opportunities. Feife and Schyns (2004) conducted a study that included 213 participants, who were simultaneously leaders and subordinates. This study found that supervisors found their subordinates to be more successful leaders to others when the subordinates practiced similar leadership skills to their own. These researchers would suggest that Extension educators who have mastered various leadership practices are more likely to have a greater impact on citizens in their communities. With the knowledge of how many people our Extension educators reach each year, both youth and adults, it is essential to discover if they possess the kinds of leadership skills that will make them as successful as possible at positively impacting those lives.

Purpose/Objectives

The purpose of this study is to investigate leadership practices of Cooperative Extension educators with an appointment in 4-H Youth Development in order to provide direction, stimulate and rejuvenate staff development efforts for the educators. To accomplish this, we identified the following objectives:

1. Identify leadership practices used by Extension educators as reported in a self assessment.
2. Identify leadership practices being observed by the educators' direct supervisor.
3. Investigate what differences exist between the skills reported by the educators and the skills observed by the supervisors.

Methods/Procedures

The target population for this descriptive study were all current extension educators with a substantial (51% or greater) appointment in 4-H and Youth Development (N_1=79) and their direct supervisors (N_2=79)in a north east state. The population was determined by obtaining a current list of employees and their positions from the Human Resources Office of Penn State Cooperative Extension.

The researchers used two instruments to gather data. Bass (1997) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ measures elements of transformational and transactional leadership, and measures organizational outcomes (Brown, Birnstihl, & Wheeler, 1996). Kouzes and Posner (2003) developed the 30 question Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) measuring leadership practices in five different constructs. The MLQ and LPI measure the competencies leaders use and assesses what skills they need to learn in future professional development opportunities offered.

The researchers mailed the instruments, consent forms, and a letter of introduction to each individual. A follow-up reminder postcard was sent four weeks later. A second survey was sent to non-respondents four weeks after the post card. A total of 158 surveys were sent, and 48 surveys were returned by educators for a 61% response rate and 41 were returned by supervisors for a response rate of 52%. All research data were entered and analyzed using the SPSS 12.0. Researchers compared data from on-time respondents with data given by late responders to control for non-response error.

According to the authors, the MLQ and LPI, have continually produced valid assessments of leadership practices among managerial leaders. Because study participants are administrators and directors of Extension personnel, the researchers concluded the instruments were valid for purposes of this research study. Based upon data collected, the researchers calculated a post-hoc reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) to measure internal consistency as an indicator of the instruments providing reliable scores. The five constructs of the LPI resulted in a reliability level of .889 (individual constructs measured as: Modeling the Way = .85; Inspiring a Shared Vision = .93; Challenging the Process = .91; Enabling Others to Act = .87; and Encouraging the Heart = .92) and the 12 constructs of the MLQ resulted in a reliability of .83 (Transformational constructs = .933; Transactional constructs = .560; and Outcomes = .905).

After analyzing the relationship between leadership constructs and finding high correlations (r values greater than .3), a MANOVA was used to examine overall effect and the result was significant per Hotelling's trace ($p<.001$). Thus based on the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell, (2001), the researchers further analyzed the data using independent t-tests to examine the difference between the educator's perceptions of their leadership practices and the supervisors' observations. Using Levene's test for equality of variances, the assumption of equal variance was met. While the sample for this study was a census, the researchers believe that in the future, the population will not be unlike the current group of individuals. The population is therefore an abstract one, and use of inferential statistics is appropriate (Huck, 2004).

Results

In the case of the educators, the aggregate mean score for the transformational constructs is 3.07 with a minimum of 2.10 and maximum score of 3.90 and standard deviation of 0.41. In the case of the supervisors, the aggregate mean score for the transformational constructs was

2.59 with a minimum of .65 and maximum score of 3.65. Overall, educators' ratings were significantly greater than the supervisor's ratings. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and comparison scores for transformational leadership skills.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Transformational Leadership Skills

Leadership Skills	Educators			Supervisors				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Idealized Influence- Attributed	48	2.98	.57	41	2.76	.79	1.48	.141
Idealized Influence- Behavior	48	2.96	.47	41	2.67	.82	2.11	.037
Inspirational Motivation	48	3.09	.50	41	2.56	.1	3.34	.001
Intellectual Stimulation	48	3.05	.55	41	2.39	.84	4.45	.000
Individual consideration	48	3.28	.50	41	2.51	.66	6.24	.000
Total		3.07	.41		2.59	.68	4.17	.000

Scale: 0= Not at all, 1= once in a while, 2= sometimes, 3= fairly often, 4= frequently if not always

Further, the overall mean score for educators on the transactional constructs 1.64 and a standard deviation of 0.42 for leadership skills that can be characterized as transactional. The minimum score was 0.69 and the maximum score was a 2.78. For supervisors, the overall perception was 1.62 with a minimum of .69 and a maximum score of 2.31. Overall there was no significant difference between the scores of the educators and the scores of the supervisors. Table 2 below presents the means, standard deviations and comparisons of the scores for transformational leadership skills.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Transactional Leadership Skills

Leadership Skills	Educators			Supervisors				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*P*
Contingent Reward	48	3.0	.60	41	2.50	.80	3.35	.001
Management by Exception-Active	48	1.37	.82	41	1.38	.81	-2.26	.026
Management by Exception- Passive	48	1.27	.53	41	1.71	.61	-.65	.515
Laissez faire Leadership	48	.90	.48	41	.90	.68	-.062	.950
Total		1.64	.42		1.62	.40	.159	.874

Scale: 0= Not at all, 1= once in a while, 2= sometimes, 3= fairly often, 4= frequently if not always

When measuring leadership outcomes, the educators had an aggregate mean score of 3.0 with a standard deviation of 0.52. This number indicates that more often than not the educators produce positive outcomes. Supervisors had an aggregate mean score of 2.58 with a minimum score of .65 and a maximum score of 3.65. Overall the educators rated themselves significantly higher than they were rated by the supervisors (Table 3).

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Leadership Outcomes

Leadership Outcomes	Educators			Supervisors				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*P*
Extra Effort		2.75	.59	41	2.15	1.04	3.40	.001
Satisfaction		3.23	.60	41	2.88	.86	2.34	.021
Effectiveness		3.04	.47	41	2.69	.86	2.23	.028
Total		3.0	.52		2.58	.80	2.60	.011

Scale: 0= Not at all, 1= once in a while, 2= sometimes, 3= fairly often, 4= frequently if not always

The LPI, or Leadership Practices Inventory, measures five constructs of leadership skills. The LPI instrument contained 30 items measured on a scale that ranged from 1 “almost never” to 10 “almost always.” For the construct of modeling the way the educators had an aggregate mean of 7.77 with a standard deviation of 1.08 demonstrating that they often model the way for their followers. The supervisors had an overall mean of 6.94 and a standard deviation of 1.33. Overall, the educators rated themselves significantly higher than they were rated by the supervisors.

For the construct of Inspiring a Shared Vision, the educators had an aggregate mean of 7.06 with a standard deviation of 1.27. This score again demonstrated that our educators can inspire a shared vision among their followers more often than not. The supervisors had an aggregated mean of 6.19 with a standard deviation of 1.79. Overall, the educators’ ratings were significantly higher than were the supervisor’s ratings.

The construct, Challenging the Process, educators had an aggregate mean of 7.45 and a standard deviation of 1.23. Supervisors had an overall mean of 6.43 and standard deviation of 1.79. Overall, the educators rated themselves significantly higher than they were rated by the supervisors.

The construct, Enabling Others to Act, the educators had an aggregate mean of 8.39 with a standard deviation of 0.92. The supervisors had an overall mean of 7.33 and a standard deviation of 1.35. Overall, the educators’ ratings were significantly greater than were the supervisor’s ratings.

The final construct, Encourage the Heart, the educators had an aggregate mean of 8.26 and a standard deviation of 1.16 . Supervisors had an aggregate mean of 7.22 with a standard deviation of 1.65. Overall, the educators’ ratings were significantly greater than were the supervisor’s ratings. Table 4 below, illustrates the means, standard deviations and comparisons of each of the LPI leadership constructs.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Constructs of the LPI

	Educators			Supervisors				
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
<u>*Modeling the Way*</u>								
Set a personal example of what he/she expect of others	48	8.35	1.31	41	7.44	1.64	2.91	.004
Spend time and energy making certain that the people that he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.	48	6.92	1.87	41	7.22	1.65	-.81	.419
Follows through on promises and commitments that he/she makes	48	8.81	1.25	41	7.88	1.54	3.11	.003
Ask for feedback on how his/her actions effect other people's performance	48	6.75	1.68	41	6.95	1.32	2.01	.047
Build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization	48	7.98	1.47	41	6.83	1.66	3.42	.001
Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership	48	7.81	1.54	41	6.41	2.01	3.58	.001
Overall		7.77	1.08		6.94	1.33	3.18	.002
<u>*Inspire a Shared Vision*</u>								
Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done	48	6.85	1.65	41	5.98	1.92	2.29	.024
Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like	48	6.52	1.57	41	5.90	2.40	1.45	.148
Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future	48	6.81	1.57	41	6.0	2.19	1.98	.051
Shows others how their long term interests can be realized by enlisting a common vision	48	6.60	1.85	41	6.28	1.74	.833	.407
Paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish	48	7.54	1.44	41	6.08	1.98	4.01	.000
Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work	48	8.02	1.67	41	7.0	2.04	2.55	.012
Overall		7.06	1.27		6.19	1.79	2.66	.009
<u>*Challenging the Process*</u>								
Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities	48	7.27	1.53	41	6.76	1.77	1.45	.150
Challenges people to try our new and innovative ways to do their work	48	7.13	1.40	41	6.29	2.26	2.11	.037
Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do	48	7.23	1.89	41	6.44	2.19	1.80	.075
Asks "what can we learn?" when things don't go as expected	48	7.62	1.51	41	6.20	2.14	3.65	.000

Table 4 (continued)

	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*P*
Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on	48	7.71	1.74	41	6.60	1.95	2.79	.007
Experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure	48	7.58	1.75	41	6.39	2.11	2.87	.005
Overall		7.45	1.23		6.43	1.79	3.23	.002
Enabling Others to Act								
Develops cooperative relationships among the people that he/she works with	48	8.71	1.03	41	7.59	1.60	3.99	.000
Actively listens to diverse points of view	48	8.13	1.21	41	7.07	1.89	3.16	.002
Treats others with dignity and respect	48	9.37	.94	41	8.46	1.25	3.93	.000
Supports the decision that people make on their own	48	7.96	1.46	41	7.10	1.76	2.48	.015
Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in decided how to do their work	48	8.23	1.31	41	7.17	1.79	3.21	.002
Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves	48	7.85	1.37	41	6.55	2.04	3.54	.001
Overall		8.39	.92		7.33	1.35	4.36	.000
Encourages the Heart								
Praises people for a job well done	48	8.65	1.23	41	7.41	2.11	3.42	.001
Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities	48	8.08	1.30	41	6.78	2.11	3.42	.001
Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects	48	7.96	1.34	41	7.50	1.95	1.30	.196
Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values	48	8.10	1.56	41	7.54	1.60	1.68	.095
Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments	48	8.27	1.44	41	7.18	1.89	3.00	.004
Gives members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions	48	8.50	1.38	41	7.00	2.01	4.03	.000
Overall		8.26	1.16		7.22	1.65	3.48	.001

Scale: 1= almost never, 2= rarely, 3= seldom, 4= once in a while, 5= occasionally, 6= sometimes, 7= fairly often, 8= usually, 9= very frequently, 10= almost always

Summary and Conclusions

The finding of no significant difference between scores of educators and supervisors for transactional leadership skills demonstrates a strong agreement between the perceptions of the educators and the observations of the supervisors. Based on reported scores of both groups, this group of educators does not employ transactional leadership skills with regularity. The only exception is their use of contingent reward, which the group utilizes much more frequently.

The finding of a significant difference between score for transformational leadership skills, leadership outcomes, and each of the constructs of the LPI illustrates a difference in the perceptions of the educators and the observations of the supervisors. Based on the reported scores of both groups, the educators perceive that their use of these skills is significantly higher than what supervisors observe. This is in line with the findings of Bass and Yammarino (1989) who found that leaders tend to rate themselves higher than they are rated by others.

Recommendations and Implications

The results of this study will enable the 4-H youth development program to streamline the professional development processes for extension educators, thus stimulating more effective leadership practices within our organization. This research team recommends that faculty members and the state 4-H program leaders tailor several series of regional and state-wide staff development opportunities in leadership areas where gaps are present between the educators' perceptions and the supervisors' observations. This might include appropriate risk taking, innovative ways to recognize and praise others and ways to encourage teammates and subordinates. By engaging in such an effort, educators may reform practices, philosophies, and behaviors to better serve their youth and adult populations in their counties.

This study has provided the faculty and staff that work with the 4-H Youth Development Educators a baseline to work from when planning and implementing staff development opportunities focused on leadership efforts. Extension could implement similar studies in other areas, enabling the larger organization to provide staff development opportunities that are helpful and engaging to the county based educators.

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ENSURING APPLICATION IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources
University of Florida

Eric K. Kaufman, Graduate Student
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University of Florida

Presentation Track: Practice

Dr. Hannah Carter graduated with a B.S. degree in biology from the University of Maine at Presque Isle in 1995. Dr. Carter joined the Wedgworth Leadership Institute as the director in 2004; with this appointment she directs the Wedgworth Leadership Institute, teaches undergraduate and graduate classes on leadership development and will further her research on organizational leadership.

Eric K. Kaufman was born and raised in Ohio. He received his bachelor's degree in agricultural education from The Ohio State University. In December of 2004, Eric received his M.S. in agricultural leadership and is continuing toward a PhD in the same program. Beyond his responsibilities with the Wedgworth Leadership Institute, Eric is continuing research and program planning with Florida Farm Bureau, as part of his graduate program.

Introduction

Across the nation and around the world, agricultural leadership programs are being utilized to develop leaders for continued or future service to the community (or communities) each represents. Over forty states, three Canadian provinces, and Australia have agricultural leadership programs developing community leaders. Participants have praised these programs, particularly for the "networking" they provide.

How does this "networking" contribute to community development efforts? Should agricultural leadership programs be doing more to serve the communities that have invested in their programs? This paper makes the argument that agricultural leadership programs should require a leadership application component to their curriculum to further develop leadership skills and increase the impacts these programs have on the communities they serve.

Background

Through the support of the public and private sector, statewide agricultural leadership programs have targeted the social development needs of rural communities and the larger agricultural community. Most agricultural leadership programs in existence today have based their framework on the Kellogg Farmer Study Program (KFSP) that began at Michigan State University in 1965 (Carter, 1999). In their analysis of programs based upon the KFSP, Howell, Weir, and Cook (1982) found common educational objectives to include:

1) develop among participants the ability to analyze public problems critically and objectively;

2) develop among participants an understanding of the economic, social, political, and cultural dimensions of public problems;
3) increase the participants' ability to solve public problems by improving his/her leadership and group participation skills; and
4) increase the participants' understanding of important local, state, national, and international issues. (p. 52)

Programs modeled from the KFSP have consisted of seminars, which provide participants with an understanding of the social, economic, political, and cultural issues on the community, state, national, and international level. The focus of each program is to encourage the development of effective leaders in agriculture and rural communities (Howell et al., 1982).

"Overall, participants in agricultural leadership programs have gained knowledge about local, state, regional, national, and international issues affecting their industry and agriculture as a whole" (Carter, 1999, p. 60). Furthermore, "program participation increased self-confidence, broadened horizons, enhanced understanding of community and/or society, improved interpersonal relationships, and improved skills for leadership in group action" (Howell et al., 1982, p. 63).

In a review of literature, Kelsey and Wall (2003) found that "agricultural leadership program efficacy has been determined by a number of studies; however, most have not reported on the impacts that participants have had on actual community leadership" (p. 35).

According to Miller (1976), the two major objectives of agricultural leadership programs are "(a) to create a better understanding of the economic, political and social framework of American Society and (b) to apply this understanding to the complex problems and unique concerns of agriculture and rural communities" (p. 6). It would seem that descriptions of program success have been based more so on the first objective, with little attention given to the second.

The participants in the research by Kelsey and Wall (2003) "reported that information gained in the program was not effectively used because they did not have the necessary skills to promote change" (p. 43). This problem must be addressed by agricultural leadership program directors. The future success of agricultural leadership programs requires that they "move past awareness and develop leaders who can and will influence the direction of development in their communities" (Kelsey & Wall, 2003, p. 44).

How it Works

Orientation to community issues is not enough. Agricultural leadership programs must engage participants in development efforts during their program participation. Ideally, participants would be able to identify real-life community problems, develop potential solutions, and carry a selected solution through to completion. An example of such a project is included in the Appendix.

While leadership group activities can be beneficial to the participants and the community, they can be difficult to implement and manage. Participants may find these activities too demanding for the limited time frame of the leadership program and the time they are already devoting to participation (Hustedde & Woodward, 1996).

The challenges of implementing application projects can be overcome. When adequate time and attention is given to reflection and learning in these activities, program participants are more likely to see the value of the time commitment. Steps must also be taken to ensure a strong connection is made between the specific goals of the application project and the goals of the leadership program.

Instructors need to have clear learning objectives, know the needs of their audience, meet those needs and objectives using various teaching methods, and evaluate the process to determine whether the educational effort was successful. Programs should be designed with the end in mind, focusing on what kind of change is anticipated (Seevers, Graham, Gamon, & Conklin, 1997). “The success of the program will be what these individuals do after the program” (Carter & Ladewig, p. 17).

Results to Date

As E. Rhodes, Executive Director of CENTRL (an agricultural leadership development program in Arizona), states the most important aspect of projects “is giving an opportunity for practical application of the knowledge and skills we impart in our leadership program” (personal communication, January 15, 2004). These experiences are a way to learn leadership by putting skills and knowledge about issues or the community into practice (Hustedde & Woodward, 1996).

Conclusions/Recommendations

Currently, agricultural leadership programs using the KFSP model have demonstrated success in building diverse networks. They have also demonstrated an increased awareness of community issues, be they in the local community or the larger agricultural community.

What can be done in agricultural leadership programs to enhance effectiveness? Application projects must be implemented that force program participants to actually complete the steps and stages of civic engagement, rather than limiting program participation to instruction, observation, and discussion.

What is at stake? Not only the success and reputation of leadership programs, but the futures of the communities that program participants serve. With a few minor adjustments, agricultural leadership programs will be in a position to provide this community support and the leaders necessary to mobilize these resources.

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Appendix

Leadership Application Project

Introduction

The leadership application project is intended to serve an exercise in practical leadership. Your active leadership role in this important project is a valuable and integral part of your overall experience in the agricultural leadership program. In addition, the completion of your project will make a positive difference in meeting the public needs of your fellow citizens.

The project guidelines presented to you are designed to give helpful information in the early planning process, not to prescribe or define your project. Individual selection of a worthy project is an opportunity to begin to express your personal leadership style. Be sure to select a project that has some special meaning to you, while complimenting your abilities and leadership potential.

Your leadership application project is intended to be a “team” project for which you provide a significant source of the leadership. Although the initial plan will be your idea and design, a key part of the project is involving others in the implementation of the plan. Efforts should be made to include at least one other member of your agricultural leadership program class.

The Proposal

It is important to give ample time and thought to selecting your leadership application project. It may be helpful to start by thinking about an organization, community, or “cause” toward which you can apply the knowledge and leadership skills gained from your program experience. You will be responsible for identifying a real need, developing alternative solutions to meet that need, selecting an alternative to implement, implementing the solution, evaluating results of the activity, and making recommendations for future endeavors related to the situation you addressed. Although your primary goal should be to make a lasting contribution in a small area of the broader agricultural community, the specific project must be something that will be completed before the end of your participation in the agricultural leadership program. The following “SMART” approach provides some practical suggestions in making your final selection:

S – Specific: Be able to give a clear title and definition to your project.

M – Measurable: Your progress, goals, and success should be easily assessed.

A – Appropriate: Make sure the project is meaningful to you and needed by others.

R – Results: Conduct a project which will continue to give positive impacts.

T – Timely: Project must be completed during the two-year program.

You are assigned to prepare a brief written and oral presentation (1-3 minutes) of your project proposal at the third seminar of the agricultural leadership program. Both of these will be presented to the rest of your class and the program staff. Your written one-page proposal should be a brief description of your plans, providing the following information: 1) Title & Situation Description, 2) Primary Goals & Objectives, 3) Anticipated Involvement & Impact, 4) Key Steps & Timetable, and 5) Required Resources. The oral presentation should, in your own creative way, capture the highlights of the proposal outlined in your written report and be persuasive as to the importance of the project. Part of the goal is to enlist the support of a few of the other program participants.

Implementation

The elements of implementation will certainly vary from one application project to another. However, all projects should involve coordinating a "team" of contributors to the project. Efforts should be made to include at least one other program participant in the implementation of the selected project. In addition, it will be important to maintain detailed records of the progress and accomplishments of your project.

Summary Report

Several seminar sessions will provide you with time to update and share project progress with others. A final presentation will be made at the final seminar, graduation.

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE LEADERSHIP PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

Dr. Hannah S. Carter, Director
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Presentation Track: Research

Dr. Hannah Carter graduated with a B.S. degree in biology from the University of Maine at Presque Isle in 1995. Dr. Carter joined the Wedgworth Leadership Institute as the director in 2004, with this appointment she directs the Wedgworth Leadership Institute, teaches undergraduate and graduate classes on leadership development and will further her research on organizational leadership.

Dr. Rick D. Rudd is an associate professor in the department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida. Dr. Rudd earned his bachelors and masters degrees from the Ohio State University. His professional experience began as a high school agriculture teacher in Ohio, where he taught for seven years. Dr. Rudd's research interests include teaching for critical thinking, and organizational leadership.

This study determined which factors influence individuals to accept greater leadership responsibilities in organizations. An instrument was given to a sample of Florida Farm Bureau Federation members, which measured: sources of motivation, attitudes towards volunteering, and views on serving on Farm Bureau boards. The value placed on level of volunteer activity explained the greatest amount of variance for serving on a county Farm Bureau board.

Introduction

Those involved in agriculture in the United States and the State of Florida realize the need for people to step forth and provide a strong and educated voice to lead agriculture and bring the needs and issues of the agricultural industry to the forefront at the community, state, national, and international level. The Farm Bureau Federation provides a venue for the "voice of agriculture" through members with the attitude/will/desire to participate in the leadership process. Farm Bureau reflects the future of agriculture and rural communities in its membership, the younger members who are embarking on their careers and looking towards leadership positions in the future (P. Cockrell, personal communication, September 10, 2002).

Rural communities that are supported by agriculture were once the foundation of the United States and still compose a large part of the country even though rural communities are diminishing due to urbanization and the decrease of agricultural industries that provide the community base. McCaslin (1993) states, "one of the overriding concerns of those individuals working towards the stabilization and future growth of rural communities is the lack of active participation by many of its citizens" (p. 46).

The process of stabilization and revitalization in agriculture begins with effective and active leadership and participation. As Farm Bureaus can be found in most rural communities in the country and in Florida, this leadership can be found in the membership of local county Farm Bureaus. But why are those actively involved in agriculture not taking on leadership responsibilities in the Florida Farm Bureau organization? Do they lack training, skills, abilities, time, or knowledge? Or do they not have a desire to lead? This study provided data to assist in answering these questions.

The purposes of this study were to explain: individual motivations, attitudes towards volunteering, and opinions on serving on county Farm Bureau boards. Demographic information was also collected for the purpose of building an explanatory multiple regression model.

The objective of this study was to determine the reason(s) why local Farm Bureau members chose to participate or not participate in leadership roles on local county farm bureau boards

Literature Review

Farm Bureau is an independent, non-governmental, voluntary organization governed by and representing farm and ranch families united for the purpose of analyzing their problems and formulating action to achieve educational improvement, economic opportunity and social advancement and, thereby, to promote the national well being. Farm Bureau is local, county, state, national, and international in its scope and influence and is non-partisan, non-sectarian and non-secret in character (AFBF, 2003, para. 2).

The strength of Farm Bureau from the county to the national level begins at the grassroots with individual members who decide to become active and take on leadership roles in the organization. Farm Bureaus across the country are voluntary organizations, which rely on their membership to provide leadership on local, county, state and national boards and committees.

Inherited in the legacy of America is volunteering on behalf of the common good. People identify the needs, issues, and problems and expect to participate in the decision making process leading to appropriate response. Voluntary activities range from short-term events, which have a time limit, to longer-term commitments of service such as the critically important decision to serve on boards (Scott, 2000).

A majority of volunteer work is completed in associations or organizations. In 1995, 71% of the adults in the United States were members of associations, not including memberships to churches and synagogues. In 1991, 53% of the population participated in active unpaid volunteer work for non-profit organizations and associations (Smith, 2000).

Omoto and Snyder (2002) developed a conceptual model of the volunteer process, which explains volunteering on multiple levels. At the individual level, the model focuses on activities and the psychological processes of the individuals which include: expressing their personal values, satisfying their need to help others, community concern, personal development, and to fulfill esteem enhancement needs. At the intrapersonal level, the dynamics of helping relationships between the volunteers and the recipients of their help are incorporated. At the organizational level, the focus is now on the goals associated with the recruitment, management, and retention of volunteers. At the societal level, the model takes into account the linkages between individuals and the social structure.

The theoretical rationale on the roles of motives comes from Snyder's (1993) functional approach to pro-social behaviors which are based on the notion that much of human behavior is motivated by specific goals or needs. To fully understand why a person is engaging in a behavior, the purpose or need served by that behavior must be identified. The fundamental concerns of motivational inquiry is understanding the processes that move people to action and the processes that initiate, direct and sustain action. Clary et al. (1998) describe the functional perspective of volunteering as encouraging the consideration of the wide range of personal and social motivations that promote sustained behavior.

An instrument used to measure motivation sources was developed by Barbuto and Scholl (1998), the motivation sources inventory has been used to predict leadership influence tactics, transformational leadership behaviors and follower compliance using sources of motivation which include: intrinsic, instrumental, external and internal self-concept. It has shown to be reliable and valid in reported studies and captures the sources of motivation.

Intrinsic process motivation is described as when a person is motivated to work or to engage in certain behaviors for the fun of it. The work acts as an incentive and it is derived from immediate internal gratification. Instrumental motivation is when individuals perceive their behavior will lead to pay, promotions, bonuses, or other extrinsic tangible outcomes (Barbuto et al., 2001).

Self-concept-external motivation is based on an individual who is primarily other-directed and seeking affirmation of traits, competencies, and values. The individual behaves to satisfy reference group members to gain acceptance and then status (Barbuto et al., 2001). Deci and Ryan (1995) describe this type of motivation as extrinsic motivation, the behavior where the reason for acting is something other than an interest in the activity itself.

Self-concept-internal motivation is internally based. The individual sets internal standards that become the basis for the ideal self and is motivated to engage in behaviors that reinforce these standards (Barbuto et al., 2001). Internal motivations also are motivations for cooperation that flow from individuals' values and attitudes and shape their behavior (Tyler, 2002).

Results of a study by Martinez and McMullin (2004) found that members who were active in an organization belonged almost twice as long as non-active members. Both groups had similar competing commitments on their time. Active members witnessed the effects of their efforts, witnessed organizational success and achieved a level of personal accomplishment; they believed they could make a difference. For those that were not active, the potential benefits and outcomes may have been important but unknown.

Martinez and McMullin (2004) state "volunteer roles may appeal to people with certain lifestyles based on (a) ones' position in a job; (b) whether one is employed full-time, part-time is retired, or is a home maker, (c) age and (d) the expectations and associated responsibilities of the role(s) one would fill" (p. 114). The success of the volunteer experience is largely determined by whether the volunteer experience meets the person's expectations. The more that is known about those expectations, the more effort can be made to ensure the volunteer remains motivated (Eisinger, 2002).

Organizations need to find ways to structure volunteer work, which will allow people increased flexibility to move in and out of volunteering as work and family pressures affect their lives. Turnover rate is influenced by the importance and structure of an organization, as well as age, family status, work, family stage, and life stage (Martinez & McMullin, 2004).

Joining organizations, such as Farm Bureau, also increases an individuals' social capital. An essential characteristic of a properly functioning society is engagement in civic activities because cooperative actions enable citizens to efficiently pursue common goals. Self-confident leaders are more trusting in other people, they are satisfied with their life and their achievements, and they are more likely to engage in various forms of community activities.

The trend in civic engagement, shown by membership records of organizations, has declined by roughly 25 to 50% over the last three decades. There are many reasons why social capital has eroded: time pressures, economic hard times, residential mobility, urbanization, movement of women to the paid work force, disruption of marriage and family times, the electronic revolution, and other technological changes.

The leaders in agricultural organizations have traditionally been male. With recent demographic shifts in the volunteers of organizations, more women will become a part of the leadership. In a study of volunteer leaders in agricultural organizations, the motivations to serve in leadership roles were; the responsibility to support their profession, it is something they believe in, it is an outlet for their talents, it is a source of enjoyment and satisfaction, it is their duty to use their talents in service to others, and they believe they owe it to the industry (Kajer, 1996).

Farm Bureau is an agricultural organization, which relies on members to fill leadership positions within the organization. Individuals who belong to Farm Bureau have unique motivations to belong. It is important to understand the motivations of volunteers as understanding what motivates volunteers will allow organizations to better utilize volunteer members.

Methods

A leadership behavior instrument was developed to examine leadership attitude/will/desire of Farm Bureau members. This instrument was administered to a sample of 419 active Florida Farm Bureau members (active members are those who are full or part time farmers or farm managers). The instrument used in this study was pilot tested to ensure validity. Members of the pilot test were taken from a sample of active Farm Bureau members.

The basic survey procedure outlined in Salant and Dillman (1994) was used for the data collection of this survey instrument. The response rate for this survey was 25%. To defend this return rate, Hager, Wilson, Pollak, and Rooney (in press) determined that surveys of organizations typically receive substantially lower return rates, with a return rate of 15% reaching a level of acceptability for organizational surveys.

For this study, early and late respondents were compared as late respondents are similar to those who do not respond at all (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996There were no significant differences found in the surveys of the early and late respondents, which gave the researchers confidence that those choosing to respond represented the population.

The instrument used in this study was a leadership behavior instrument which was composed of three parts: a motivation sources inventory, a semantic differential scale to measure volunteering attitudes, and a Likert scale inventory to assess respondents' desire about serving on a county board. The motivation sources inventory was developed by Barbuto and Scholl (1998) and measures the sources of motivation. The authors developed this inventory to predict behaviors of individuals and it was used in this context as a factor that contributes to members willingness to serve (or not to serve) on their county Farm Bureau boards.

From the literature, motivation factors, attitudes on volunteering and demographic variables have been identified as influences on participation in organizations and whether individuals will step forth for additional leadership responsibilities within these organizations. These contribute to the attitude/will/desire measured by this instrument. A conceptual model, which represents this part of the study, is provided in Figure 1. In this model, leadership is a function of motivation factors, volunteering attitudes, a desire to serve, and demographic variables.

L (Leadership)	=	*f* (M Motivation Factors	+	V Volunteering Attitudes	+	S Desire to Serve	D) Demographic Variables
		Internal Self-Concept		Evaluative			Gender
		External Self-Concept		Potency			Age
		Intrinsic Process		Activity			Marital Status
		Instrumental					Children
							Belong to Orgs.
		(Will)		(Attitude)		(Desire)	

Figure 1. *Conceptual model of leadership*

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to accomplish this objective. For this analysis, the dependent variable is participation on a county board, and the independent variables were: motivation external self-concept (a factor derived from obtaining the mean of the six external self-concept statements on the Motivation Sources Inventory section of the instrument), motivation internal self-concept factor (derived from the six internal self-concept statements), motivation intrinsic process (derived from the six intrinsic process statements), motivation instrumentation (derived from the six instrumentation statements), volunteering evaluative factor (derived from obtaining the mean of the four evaluative adjective pairs on the volunteer section of the instrument), volunteering potency factor (derived from obtaining the mean of the four potency adjective pairs), volunteering activity factor (derived from obtaining the mean of the four activity adjective pairs), years of membership in Farm Bureau, family involvement in Farm Bureau, time devoted to Farm Bureau, Farm Bureau events attended in the past year, involved in other agricultural organizations, belong to other organizations, marital status, children, gender, age, member of 4-H, member of FFA, member of other youth development organizations, participated in leadership development programs, farm size, and work off the farm.

Findings

Table 1 provides the initial Pearson correlation, degrees of freedom, and significance values for the twenty-four independent variables that were identified for use in the stepwise, backward multiple regression analysis was used to predict participation on local county Farm Bureau boards. Significant Pearson correlation values were identified for use in the regression analysis (Table 1). The "volunteering evaluative factor" had the highest *r-value* of .47.

Table 1. *Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Independent Variables and Serving on County Boards (N=81)*

	df	r	Sig.(2-tailed)
Serving on County Boards	79	1.00	.
Motivation External Self-Concept Factor	79	.16	.12
Motivation Internal Self-Concept Factor	79	.26	.01
Motivation Intrinsic Process Factor	79	-.11	.32
Motivation Instrumental Factor	79	-.07	.54
Volunteering Evaluative Factor	79	.47	.00
Volunteering Potency Factor	79	.17	.11
Volunteering Activity Factor	79	.39	.00
Years of Membership in Farm Bureau	79	.08	.49
Family Involvement in Farm Bureau	79	.11	.31
Time Devoted to Farm Bureau per Month	79	.12	.29
Number of Farm Bureau Events Attended	79	.30	.01
Involved in Other Agricultural Organizations	79	.14	.18
Belong to Other Organizations	79	.35	.00
Marital Status	79	.04	.71
Children	79	.20	.06
Gender	79	-.05	.67
Age	79	-.13	.34
Member of 4-H	79	.20	.06
Member of FFA	79	-.09	.93
Member of Other Youth Development Organizations	79	.38	.00
Participated in Leadership Development Programs	79	.31	.00
Farm Size	79	.20	.14
Work Off Farm	79	.16	.17

Note: Model is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Seven independent variables were used in the final multiple regression analysis. As Table 2 indicates, these independent variables have a significant relationship and impact on the dependent variable, participation on local county Farm Bureau boards.

Table 2. *Regression Analysis with Variables which Made Significant Contributions (N=86)*

	df	r	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Motivation Internal Self-Concept	84	.26	.01
Volunteering Evaluative Factor	84	.47	.00
Volunteering Activity Factor	84	.39	.00
Number of Farm Bureau Events Attended	84	.30	.01
Belong to Other Organizations	84	.35	.00
Member of Other Youth Development Organizations	84	.38	.00
Participated in Leadership Development Program	84	.31	.00

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p<.05$)

The final multiple regression analysis with the remaining five variables is presented in Table 3. Why individuals take on additional leadership roles such as serving on their local county Farm Bureau boards is explained by these five variables. As discussed in the literature, how individuals evaluate volunteer opportunities, the volunteer activities they are engaged in, how active they are in the organization (represented by the number of events they attended) and if they have participated in other organizations or leadership development programs all factor into whether individuals will step forth and assume greater leadership responsibilities.

Table 3. *Final Regression Analysis with Variables which Made Significant Contributions (N=86)*

	β	Beta	*t*	df	Sig.	R^2	Adj. R^2
Constant	-.50		-.63	79	.53		
Volunteering Evaluative Factor	.46	.34	2.75	79	.01		
Volunteering Activity Factor	.24	.17	1.43	79	.16		
Number of Farm Bureau Events Attended	.20	.19	1.93	79	.06		
Member of Other Youth Development Organizations	.39	.20	1.86	79	.07		
Participated in Leadership Development Program	.46	.17	1.61	79	.11	.40	.36

Note: $F=9.96$; $\alpha < .05$

From this table, “volunteering evaluative factor” has the highest Beta value of .34 and is statistically significant, which indicates the largest explanatory power between this variable and the dependent variable.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

In the multiple regression analysis, how individuals evaluate volunteering is a factor was the strongest determinant whether they volunteer for additional leadership responsibilities in the Farm Bureau organization such as serving on county boards. Other factors which accounted for participation on county boards included: volunteering activity factor, Farm Bureau events attended, member in other youth organizations, and participation in leadership development programs. Being involved in youth organizations may serve to encourage future participation in organizations as adults, especially if the membership was a positive experience.

Organizations and the boards that guide their direction are changing due to the motivations of the members that volunteer for the organization and who the organization serves. The FFBF uses boards on the county and state level and could provide valuable research on organizational boards and specifically what motivates board members to participate. Information on organizational boards and the motivations of board members is lacking and Farm Bureau could be an indispensable source of this information.

Three demographic questions that were asked on this survey instruments asked if respondents had been members of 4-H, FFA, or other youth leadership organizations and results indicated that close to half of those who responded had belonged to either 4-H, FFA, or other youth development organizations. It would be interesting to continue this line of research and investigate the influence of these organizations on leaders. Those who had participated in such organizations could be compared to those who have not and differences noted.

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BUILDING BETTER COMMUNITIES THROUGH LEADERSHIP AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: A MODEL INITIATIVE FOR RURAL REVITALIZATION

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track   Research

This presentation reports follow-up evaluation of the leadership component of a unique program created by the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service with the potential to be duplicated nation-wide. The goal of the *Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma* is to turn leadership training into meaningful results for the community.

Biographical Profiles

Renée A. Daugherty, Ph.D.

Renée Daugherty earned a doctorate in Human Environmental Sciences (Administration and Education) from Oklahoma State University, as well as an M.S. and B.S. in Education. She has been with Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service (OCES) since 1978. As an OSU faculty member and OCES state specialist, Dr. Daugherty is responsible for Extension programs on community leadership and Extension teaching methods. She gives leadership to the following programs:

- Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma – a community development program combining leadership development and economic development
- Citizen Engagement through Public Deliberation Program
- LeadershipPlenty Program
- Extension Teaching Methods Program
-

Dr. Daugherty has managed over $500,000 in externally funded Extension projects as well as co-developed grant proposals resulting in over $1.5 million in funding for additional Extension projects. She has authored over 20 journal and Extension publications and proceedings, and has produced over 60 audio visual and multimedia educational materials and learning packages. Dr. Daugherty is active in professional associations and has held state and national offices. She has also been recognized by national, state and local awards.

Sue E. Williams, Ph.D.

Sue Williams holds a doctorate in Environmental Science from Oklahoma State University and M.S. in Resource Management from Iowa State University. As an OSU faculty member and Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service (OCES) state specialist, she currently has responsibilities for leadership development and family policy programs. Dr. Williams has been with the OCES at OSU since 1977. During this time she has obtained and managed over $1.2 million in externally funded Extension and research projects. She has over 50 journal and Extension publications, and has produced over 20 audio visual educational materials as well as having extensive experience in producing and presenting educational information through the mass media. Among her varied responsibilities, she works with the Oklahoma Team Leadership Program—a leadership development and public issues education program helping citizens to develop skills to enhance the quality of life in their communities. She also provides leadership for the Oklahoma Partnership for Public Deliberation, a partnership of representatives from statewide organizations interested in fostering citizen involvement in public decision making. Dr. Williams is co-director of the Oklahoma Public Policy Institute and serves as a national resource person for the Kettering Foundation.

Building Better Communities Through Leadership and Economic Development: A Model Initiative for Rural Revitalization

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Building Better Communities Through Leadership and Economic Development: A Model Initiative for Rural Revitalization

Introduction

In a 2002 publication, the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP) stated that "If Extension is to thrive, it must understand and rapidly adjust to rapid changes and emerging challenges." One of the challenges identified by the committee was the need to address the "social and economic issues that face all communities." While many of this country's rural communities were founded on agricultural, the reality for the 21st century is that agriculture's economic impact on our communities has declined. For example, the fraction of the national workforce engaged in farm employment has been cut by more than half since 1970. In that year farm employment totaled 4.3% of the work force compared to just 1.8% in 2003. Even in the agriculturally dependent state of Oklahoma, farm employment has declined from 8.5% in 1970 to 4.3% in 2003. Beaulieu (2002, p. 1) states that "retail trade and services have now replaced agriculture and manufacturing as the economic drivers of rural America." Indeed, this decline of agriculture's contribution to the national economy may be a recognizable feature of the development process in all developing countries (Punyasavatsut & Coxhead, 2002). A recent article produced by the Center for the Study of Rural America notes "rural communities are beginning to think regionally to seize the opportunities of globalization and exploit high-value niche markets in agriculture, manufacturing, and services" (Henderson & Weiler, 2004, p. 2). Agriculture will continue to be important for many rural areas, but other opportunities must be considered as well.

If our rural economies are currently being shaped by global forces, to what direction should local community leaders look for answers regarding the economic development of their communities? For that matter, where will these emerging leaders be found to address these complex issues? For example, when citizens of all 77 of Oklahoma's counties were asked to identify the most critical issues in their communities, the most common issues were related to community and economic development and leadership development. Similar findings emerged from a series of community forums held in Texas in 1999.

Rural residents are concerned about the sustainability of their local economies. Residents from Washita County, OK said it well when they indicated a need for a "higher pay scale and better paying jobs [to] keep young people in the community after college." Citizens in Freestone County, TX expressed a need to develop and expand leadership and volunteerism for all ages.

The Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service (OCES) viewed the results of their community listening sessions as a cry for help from rural Oklahoma. Acting aggressively, the OCES unveiled the *Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma* project. The *Initiative* directly addresses the issues of leadership and community economic development that rural Oklahomans so powerfully expressed in the community listening sessions. After the first year of this pilot program, the impacts are both remarkable and measurable. To quote a participant from Greer County, "We have received more good from the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service and the Greer County office in the past year than I can ever remember before." What Extension professional wouldn't want to hear that kind of praise about one of their programs? We at the

OCES believe that this kind of program could be easily duplicated, and has the potential to work effectively in any state in the nation.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce the reader to the program known as the *Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma*, developed by the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service. From the original request for proposals, to the kick-off retreat attended by approximately 80 local citizens, to the recent follow-up survey to these same participants, this paper will describe the program and its impact on Extension programming in 17 counties in the state. Lessons learned will be presented as well as a link to program resources available on the web.

Request for Proposals

From April to June 2002, the 77 county Extension offices across the state of Oklahoma were invited to submit proposals for leadership and/or economic development programs to be funded by the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service. The program was titled the *Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma*. Community, county or multi-community/county proposals were welcomed and encouraged. Preference was given to proposals demonstrating broad based participation from community members and groups in their economic and leadership development efforts. Strong local Extension staff interest and commitment was also a prerequisite for community selection. By the end of June, proposals representing 37 counties had been submitted. Several of the proposals were multi-county efforts. A total of 13 proposals, representing 17 counties, were accepted in two categories. (Refer to Figure 1.)

- **Initial Leadership Training**: These one-year proposals focused on skill building through leadership training. The primary focus was on initial leadership training, organizational skills, and visioning. Grant funds of up to $9,000 were awarded to each of 10 projects in this category.

- **Comprehensive Leadership Training**: These three-year proposals also focused on skill building through leadership training, but, in addition, these proposals identified a community project that related to leadership development and/or economic development. Grant funds of up to $90,000 were awarded to each of three projects in this category.

Both sets of grant recipients were allowed to spend funds for guest lecturers, facility rental, tour transportation, lodging and meals, equipment, supplies, community surveys, technical assistance, grant writers, publicity, workshop expense and other appropriate purposes as shown in their approved project budget. Grant recipients, including local citizens and extension educators, committed considerable time and resources to the effort. Each grant recipient was expected to provide local cash or in-kind match. A minimum amount equal to 10% of the awarded grant was required. This project was intended to be a partnership between Extension and the community.

Benefits offered to communities participating in the *Initiative* included:

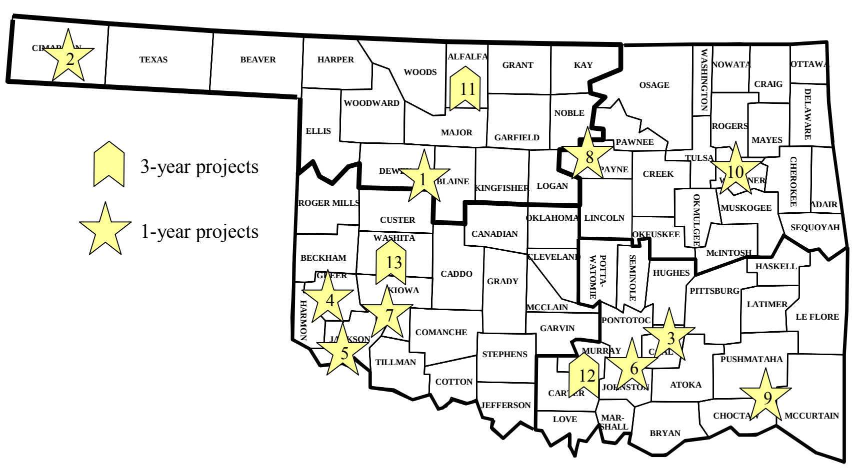
1. Training was provided in community leadership and economic development. OCES Specialists, as well as other agency personnel, provided training in:
   - Economic Diversification
   - Community Planning

- Service Infrastructure
- Local Government
- Civic Engagement and Leadership Development
- Youth and Adult Workforce Development

2. Regional training programs were offered to community teams. These regional training programs provided team members with intermediate and advance training in the topics listed above and others.
3. Educational material, technical assistance, and problem solving expertise to aid in leadership and community economic development were provided.
4. Sustained follow-up, technical assistance, and support were made available to the participating communities.
5. Technical assistance to help evaluate the project was made available to the communities.

The training and assistance provided to the projects served to highlight the resources available from the Oklahoma Cooperative Service. A resident of Porter in Wagoner County said, “If it hadn’t been for the leadership project, we would not have known of all the opportunities and programs available.”

Figure 1. Oklahoma *Initiative* Counties



Kick-Off Retreat

In November of 2002, representatives from each of the 13 *Initiative* projects attended a three-day “kick-off” retreat held at the U.S. Postal training facility in Norman, OK. The three days were full of fun, food, and fellowship, but also a lot of hard work. In general, each project brought about 8 local residents to the retreat, including one or two Extension educators. The other team members were volunteers from the community who were considered “core” members of the local project.

Retreat participants met together for several learning sessions in a large group setting. Some of the distinguished guests who spoke to the community representatives included Brent Kisling, State Director of USDA Rural Development, Representative Danny Hilliard, Oklahoma House Speaker Pro Tempore, and Dr. Chester Fehlis, Associate Vice Chancellor and Director, Texas Cooperative Extension.

Participants also attended some breakout sessions in one of two possible tracts: "economic development," directed by Dr. Mike Woods and "leadership and civic engagement," directed by Dr. Sue Williams and Dr. Renee Daugherty. Most community teams sent representatives to sessions in both tracts. In these sessions, the community leaders learned about teachable programs that would be available to take back to their communities. They also learned about available resources and contacts. Many of these potential contacts were on hand for a resource fair, giving participants the opportunity to network with representatives from agencies such as the Oklahoma Department of Commerce, Rural Enterprises, Inc., USDA Rural Development, etc.

Throughout the first year, many of these resource contacts developed into partners with the local projects. Leadership Oklahoma was an active participant in some of the counties, so too was the Southwest Technology Center and Western Oklahoma State College. Other partners included the Museum of the Western Prairie, Oklahoma Department of Tourism, Oklahoma Gas and Electric Company, Boys and Girls Club, Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City, Department of Human Services, and Oklahoma Primary Care Association. Frankly, the *Initiative* has served as a basis from which county educators have developed a statewide network with agencies willing and available to provide assistance with economic and leadership development projects.

The One-Year Pilot *Initiative*

The time line for the one-year pilot *Initiative* was from November 2002 through November 2003, although each of the individual 13 projects had their own time line to follow. The state of Oklahoma is quite diverse, and so were each of the 13 projects, reflecting each community's unique set of needs.

A central county that is home to a state university wanted to initiate a leadership training program in two small towns—both of which were adjacent to the largest city in the county. A northern county that is home to a selenite crystal digging area received a three-year grant to develop tourism opportunities in their county. Leaders in this county are still hard at work developing a video to promote tourism in the county, as well as maintaining a website, and training local employees how to promote tourism through quality service.

Three counties in the southeastern corner of the state joined together to provide leadership training to a culturally diverse group of underserved youth, while three counties in the west teamed up to pursue economic development opportunities in the historically agriculturally-based area. Furthermore, several of the projects lead to the creation of community based economic development organizations that have the potential to sustain themselves in the future.

A number of the projects report an outstanding side effect of the *Initiative*. Citizens and communities within the counties began to pull together, often for the first time in recent years, to work for the good of the county. A three-year project reports cooperation between the two largest communities in the county. This particular county is rich in natural resources and the citizens of both communities have decided to work together to promote tourism opportunities.

After one year, the following statistics were reported by the 13 projects:

- Total number of leaders trained in first year: 557
- Total citizen contacts during first year: 3,145
- Total educational programs presented: 112
- Total newspaper articles published: 126
- Total radio/television broadcasts: 36
- Total newsletters published: 31
- Total videos developed: 6

Follow-up Evaluation of Leadership

In May 2004 a follow-up evaluation of leadership was mailed to the original core leaders and extension staff who attended the kick-off workshop in November of 2002. Of the 83 surveys mailed, 46 were returned, for a completion rate of 55.4%. Several questions asked the participant to summarize their experiences with the *Initiative*. The responses to these summary questions revealed a lot about how the participants viewed the *Initiative* project.

- When asked how their personal involvement in their community has changed since participating in the *Initiative*, 56.5% claim that involvement has increased while 41.3% say that involvement is about the same. Of the 19 respondents who report no change in involvement, 5 commented that their involvement is, and has always been, very high.
- More than 39.1% say that their attitude toward local leaders has improved since participating in the *Initiative*. No change is reported by about 58.7%.
- As a result of participating in the *Initiative*, 21.7% claim that the power structure in their community is more inclusive and diverse; 45.7% say that the power structure is somewhat more inclusive and diverse.
- After participating in the *Initiative*, 54.3% report that their attitude about the future of their community has improved.
- To sum up their experience, 32.6% agreed that the *Initiative* was "one of the best things I have ever done for my community," and another 56.5% agreed that the *Initiative* was "challenging and frustrating at times, but I'm glad I participated."

Where Do We Go From Here?

Future prospects for the *Initiative* are very promising. In December 2003, *Initiative* team members made a presentation to a State of Oklahoma Legislative task force addressing rural development. Oklahoma's Governor, Brad Henry, has released an action plan, EDGE (Economic Development Generating Excellence), that identifies the key role higher education will play in statewide economic development efforts. The *Initiative* has been presented as one tool to aid with the EDGE effort. Furthermore, OCES has successfully partnered with several community and state organizations/agencies through the *Initiative* project, including the Oklahoma Department of Commerce and Leadership Oklahoma.

In March 2004, the ten one-year pilot *Initiative* projects were invited to apply for some “second-round” funding to further enhance their local efforts. Instead of focusing on initial training efforts, they were asked to identify a specific project to be funded. Six of these proposals were funded and include plans to promote a 220-mile scenic pathway, plans to promote local business retention and expansion, and website development.

Turning leadership training into meaningful results for the community is the goal of the *Initiative for the Future of Rural Oklahoma*. During the first year, local Extension personnel worked with community leaders to pilot the *Initiative* concept. Enthusiasm has emanated from each project. The next step in the *Initiative* process is to capture that enthusiasm and to link the aspirations of community leaders with the capacity of OSU to help develop strategies, identify resources, and turn dreams into reality. Already, the Initiative projects have been featured at a series of in-service training sessions titled “Healthy Communities,” giving *Initiative* participants the opportunity to share their lessons-learned with other communities and other Extension educators.

Interestingly enough, one of the significant lessons learned from the program was that a county-wide leadership program may not be as expensive as one might think. Most of the one-year projects were initially budgeted $8,000 to $9,000. Basically, none of the projects used the full amount. Most of them spent about $5,000. Furthermore, one of the counties that did not receive funding in the program raised private monies to conduct their own leadership training program. How much did they raise—about $5,000 from local sources. This brings up a second lesson-learned. If a county is interested enough in the issue of community economic and leadership development, and if they have a model to follow, they can conduct their own local program. It is not beyond their reach.

Several other broad lessons and observations that the Initiative resource team learned include the following:

- **Local commitment is a key ingredient**. Some local resources should be provided. This is a form of “equity” investment for the community.
- **Local ownership results from dollar commitment as well as other forms of investment.** The community leaders (and emerging leaders) need to take an active role in the planning and implementation of the effort.
- **Wide and diverse involvement from the community is critical**. All segments of the local population should be included. When countywide or multi-county efforts are involved, this includes geographic diversity as well.
- **Sound information is critical to enhance educational efforts**. This includes well-documented teaching modules for leadership training and reliable data on community trends.
- **Multiple sources of information will challenge and engage local citizens**. Utilizing partnerships, collaboration, web-based information and other sources of information keeps the program exciting. Old assumptions should be challenged and new ideas or concepts should be explored.

The current challenges faced by Extension are not singular to Oklahoma. In particular, Extension programs across the south are shifting resources toward community development. Other states such as Louisiana and Mississippi have launched aggressive efforts to support community development programming. The resources developed through the *Initiative* represent one model for addressing some of these challenges. Many of these resources have been made available on the web at http://ifro.okstate.edu/Ed_Resource.asp. Daugherty and Williams (2004) have prepared a more detailed description of the modules developed for the *Initiative*, including the Leadership Development component.

The *Initiative* project is simply the beginning. It demonstrates what can happen when community leaders partner with their local Extension office to hone leadership skills and to access the capacity of Oklahoma State University (OSU) and the land-grant university system to improve their community and enrich the lives of those who call it home. Long-term benefits will come only through a partnership from which local leaders, the county Extension office, and OSU all learn, benefit, and grow.

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A LEARNING COMMUNITY'S CHALLENGE FOR THE TEACHER: A CASE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to analyze and determine why a class taught multiple times by the same faculty member resulted in diverse evaluations. This paper will describe the overriding variable that successfully predicts success of an introductory "Interpersonal Skills for Leaders" course with a major service learning component. The course is either an elective or a requirement depending upon students' major department's requirements. Six sections are offered each semester to meet the demand for this highly-regarded class.

The course instructor serves as faculty liaison for graduate assistants who teach the remaining sections. Faculty and graduate students meet monthly to assure consistency. Each section uses the same text, syllabus and grading structure. Activities are designed to be similar in all sections.

Because of this dedication to consistency, and the prescriptive nature of the course, the faculty taught the same class material in the fall and again in the spring semester. Methodology changes were made in response to recommendations. Furthermore, a change of classroom better accommodated student learning. Student evaluations indicated a higher level of satisfaction with the course than the first offering.

Two sections of the course were taught by the instructor the third semester. There was a great disparity in students' evaluation scores between the two sections. The instructor, a seasoned educator, looked at the three-semester history of the course to determine factors that contributed to this disparity.

A cursory inspection of each semester's courses showed that possible variables included:
Grade levels of students, classrooms, time of day (morning and afternoon classes), number and type of teaching assistants, faculty experience teaching the course, and whether class enrollment was exclusively a learning community or open to all others.

Literature Review

Definition and Explanation of Terms

<u>CIEQ.</u> The Course Instructor Evaluation Questionnaire (CIEQ) is the instrument which students complete at the end of each semester. Data derived from this instrument provide the student evaluation portion of the teacher evaluation process. It is the standard teaching improvement survey provided throughout the college. A perfect score is 4.0. A mean score of 3.4 or above indicates student acceptance of the course is very high. (Questions About the CIEQ, nd.).

<u>Learning Community (LC)/Homogeneous Class.</u> The learning community comprises first semester freshmen majoring in agriculture. Their demographics are similar: 1) this is the first semester of their university experience; 2) they are from small towns or farms from rural Nebraska; 3) they are the same age; 4) the majority share the same religion and political views;

5) they have similar life experiences and belief systems; and 6) they share professional goals and common core values.

Teaching Assistants (TA). Undergraduate students who have been recommended by the faculty after successfully completing the leadership course. TA's enroll in three semester-hours of college credit. Responsibilities include facilitating group discussions; leading small group activities; assisting in the design of tests; and grading tests and class and/or service learning journals.

Learning Community Teaching Assistant (LCTA). Teaching assistants who are mentors for the learning community program. They are learning community members and must already have successfully completed this LC course. To become a mentor the student must complete a questionnaire and undergo interviews. It is considered to be a prestigious position. The mentor automatically becomes a teaching assistant for one of the two sections designated exclusively for the learning community.

Heterogeneous Class (HC). The class is recommended by the University to fulfill three separate undergraduate requirements. It can be an elective or a requirement, depending upon the department. Enrollment comes from the following eight colleges: Agriculture and Natural Resources, Architecture, Arts & Sciences, Business Administration, Education and Human Services, Engineering, Fine and Performing Arts, and Journalism and Mass Communications. Freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors enroll in the class. There are no learning community students in this class.

The Course. An introductory interpersonal skills for leadership class with a major service learning component. It has been recognized by the University for more than twenty-five years as the institution's premier service learning course. As such, it could be either an elective or a requirement depending upon the department. It is a requirement for the agricultural learning community.

Service Learning. One of the reasons this course is so highly regarded by the university is because of its strong emphasis on service learning which accounts for 30% of the grade in the interpersonal skills for leaders course. Students are expected to study interpersonal skills through the text, practice and learn the content while in the classroom, and use the service learning project as a laboratory in which to practice the skills and academic content taught in each class. Two University of Nebraska documents describe the importance of service learning and specifically identify this service learning course as an academic priority.

Academic Program Priorities (2001) is a five-year institutional planning document. It "identifies the **highest** academic program priorities for future investments . . . . based on planning decisions . . . . and premised on what we foresee about current program needs and goals." Programs identified are "those that the university wishes to advance and strengthen."

A complementary, narrative document for the Chancellor providing more detail specifically sites as an academic priority the Service Learning Program in Agriculture and Natural Resources. "Service Learning . . . could be strengthened by connecting it to similar activity that already exists in other areas of the campus. . . . We recommend that this priority be one of the examples presented to strengthen the overarching priority, 'Enriching the Undergraduate Experience.' Reference to service learning could also be included in the CEP (Comprehensive Education Program) priority." (Transition to University Task Force, 2003.)

The above two documents specifically referred to this class. Offered for over twenty-five years, it is widely recognized within the University as the premier service learning course. It is identified as an option to meet Comprehensive Education Program (CEP), Essential Studies (ES), and Integrative Studies (IS) requirements. Depending upon the department, it can be either an elective or a requirement.

Methods

Six or more sections of the course are offered each semester to meet the demand for this highly-regarded course. The instructor serves as faculty liaison for each of the graduate assistants who teach the remaining sections. They (faculty and graduate assistants) meet monthly to assure consistency. It is a prescriptive class. Each of the sections uses the same text, basically the same syllabus and grading structure. Activities are structured to be similar. A CIEQ (Aleamoni, 1975) evaluation is administered at the end of each semester.

The faculty incorporated student recommendations into class management and methodology changes for the second semester. The room was changed to better accommodate student learning.

The third semester, additional class management and methodology changes were made. The room was appropriate in both instances.

Findings

Course Composition and Analysis:

First Semester. A morning class comprised entirely of the learning community with three teaching assistants. Unique circumstances created an environment where the teaching assistants were not members of the learning community but did live in the same dorm. All students were first-semester freshmen. The class was conducted in the learning community's dorm in an inappropriate, lecture style classroom. **CIEQ Score = 2.44**

Second Semester. Taught in the afternoon to a heterogeneous class with an enrollment including thirteen second-semester freshmen, six sophomores and two seniors. There was one heterogeneous teaching assistant. It was taught in an ideal classroom. **CIEQ Score = 3.14**

Third Semester. Two classes were taught in the Fall 2004 semester.

The first class was taught in the morning to a heterogeneous student population including four second-semester freshmen, four sophomores, five juniors and three seniors. There was one heterogeneous TA. It was taught in an appropriate classroom. **CIEQ Score = 3.43**

The second class was taught in the afternoon to a learning community comprised entirely of first-semester freshmen. There were two teaching assistants (learning community mentors) who lived in the dorm with the students. It was taught in a different but equally acceptable classroom. **CIEQ Score = 2.61**

Methodology Changes:

After the first semester the instructor incorporated many of the suggestions from the class. The classroom was changed. And several recommended classroom management and methodology enhancements were incorporated. The instructor was encouraged by the .70 CIEQ score improvement from the first to the second semester. After the success of the second semester, the instructor fully expected a very successful third semester–which did occur in one of the two sections.

CIEQ Analysis:

A score of 4.0 is perfect and "3.4 is considered to have very high student acceptance and methods of improvement need to be looked for elsewhere"(Aleamoni, 1975). Variables studied included whether class enrollment was exclusively a learning community or open to all others, grade levels, classrooms, time of day (morning versus afternoon), number and type of teaching assistants, and by semester (first, second and third semester offerings).

<u>By Learning Community By Heterogenous.</u> While the learning community comparison scores did improve from the first to second semester (.17), it is apparent that the second offering of the learning community class is the outlier when comparing each of the above variables. The heterogeneous class CIEQ scores improved by .29. Scores for both of HC classes were significantly higher than those from the Learning Community.

<u>By Semester</u>. Raw scores improved by +.70 from the first to the second semester and by +.29 from the second to the third semester (with the learning community exception). The LC group mean score, while higher than the original semester (.17) was much lower than the HC.

<u>By Grade Level.</u> The two lowest CIEQ scores were from the two classes with first semester freshmen. Conversely, the two highest scores were with those classes integrated with sophomores, juniors and seniors. The learning community CIEQ scores from Fall 03 to Fall 04 represent a +.17 (2.44 to 2.61) improvement; the heterogeneous class represents a +.29 increase (3.14 to 3.43).

<u>By Time of Day</u>. The raw mean score of the morning classes improved by 1.02 when comparing 2.41 (LC) to 3.43 (HC). However, the opposite was true of the afternoon class. The raw mean

score declined by .53 when comparing 3.14 (HC) to 2.61 (LC). It appears that the scores continue to improve with the exception of the second LC class.

By Teaching Assistants. The classes with only one teaching assistant had the highest raw scores (3.14 and 3.43). They were also from the HC. Qualitatively, the class climate was perceived to be more positive by students, teaching assistants and the instructor when the TAs were not from the learning community.

Building Analysis. The original class was taught within the learning community's living environment. While it was convenient for students, the room located in their dorm and within their recreation area proved to be too comfortable and familiar to function well as a classroom. The designated classroom was designed for lecture only and was in a cramped environment, inappropriate for an interactive class. The interpersonal skills class is designed to be highly active with multiple small group discussions and interactions daily which meant the students left the cramped lecture room multiple times to move to larger rooms. The classroom environment was changed after one semester. The subsequent classrooms were deemed to be very acceptable by the faculty and students. It is speculated that the classroom itself contributed to higher CIEQ scores.

Classroom Management and Teaching Methodology Changes. Each semester, the faculty conducted a midterm assessment of class progress from a student's perspective. Where possible, changes were adapted. In addition, there was a stronger emphasis upon classroom leadership which contributed to more involvement.

Qualitative Observations.

The second learning community experience was a real challenge for the faculty. Having had a very successful class the second semester and experiencing an even better result with the HC class in the morning, it was disheartening to see the divergent results on a daily basis between the morning HC and to hear, read and observe the afternoon learning community comments.

From reading journals, papers and classroom observations, it became apparent that diversity within the HC classroom encouraged more thoughtful and varied responses. This ultimately led to greater class credibility, interest and participation. The Heterogeneous class had more life experiences and diverse goals. They appeared to see class in terms of life-altering experiences. Many acknowledged that they either planned to change their career goals based upon these experiences or their career choices were confirmed. They understood the validity of the service learning project and the necessity of interpersonal skills. This understanding stood in strong contrast to an in-class comment by a LC freshman, "I don't need the class; I already have friends."

Interactions. Perhaps the most telling outcome was the difference in the faculty/student interactions between the two classes taught most recently. There were no interactions by the LC students; one LCTA asked for an academic recommendation. However, there have been numerous interactions from the latest HC class: four individuals have asked for a total of seven references for internships, academic scholarships, undergraduate honorary society, and application to a teacher's college of a private university. In addition two students have applied for a grant to conduct undergraduate research with the instructor for this class to be offered fall of 05. Three requested to be teaching assistants for the instructor's next semester. The HC teaching assistant is currently working in the instructor's office as a student worker. The faculty member received a Certificate of Recognition for Contributions to Students by the UN-L Parents Association. This was an anonymous recommendation completed by a parent. It was later learned that the nomination came from the HC class.

By Grade Levels. The classes with sophomores, juniors and even seniors contained the highest rated CIEQ scores and were the most interactive from a teacher's perspective. Conversely, the two classes with first-semester freshmen were rated the lowest by CIEQ.

Teaching Assistants. At the conclusion of the third semester, the LC teaching assistants met with the instructor for an hour, providing revealing information. Because they were also learning community mentors, they were available to the classroom students throughout the day. They were at times frustrated with the classroom discussions and negotiations which took place spontaneously throughout the day, outside the classroom and away from the teacher.

The instructor felt much more comfortable within the HC environment. There was diversity of opinions and backgrounds resulting in spontaneous but related discussions and challenging ideas. For that day, for that hour the eclectic class then became a true community involving students, the teaching assistant and the teacher.

"Group Think."

It seems apparent that within the learning community culture a certain set of expectations evolved as to what was good or bad about the class, the teacher and what was appropriate or inappropriate behavior in the classroom. Comments such as, "it's a good review of what I learned in high school" were left unchallenged by most of the classmates and encouraged by some. In contrast, a pre-med student wrote, "volunteering without learning interpersonal skills is like seeing everything in black and white. When you add the interpersonal skills into your tool box, everything turns to color and your whole perspective changes." That individual would have challenged the previous rather naive and simplistic comments.

In reflection papers a few LC students suggested that the teacher should stop talking about her experiences; however, the heterogeneous class had numerous students indicate how they appreciated the faculty member's life experiences bringing reality to the subject area. A few members of the learning community felt free to write that the text was horrible, the service learning projects unnecessary and time consuming, the tests too hard and one even suggested the course should be revamped. The heterogeneous class had none of these comments. In fact, they were profuse with their positive comments about the text, the organization of the class and affirmed that the tests were hard, but appropriate.

It appears that there was a "group think" within the LC. While the HC involvement and commitment continued to improve throughout the semester, the learning community appeared to have "peaked" somewhere in the middle of the term.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

The changing of the classroom location, methodology and classroom management techniques did improve the overall CIEQ evaluation. However, the single overriding variable was whether or not the classroom contained only first-semester, learning community students or whether it was open to the general population with a diversity of grade levels, goals and life experiences. In addition, having the learning community mentor also being the teaching assistant resulted in distancing the teacher from learners.

The faculty presented this case study analysis as a discussion topic to the learning community steering committee. This committee agreed that a class whose subject area is interpersonal skills would definitely improve with diversity. Another class was designated for the learning community.

As a result, the committee unanimously agreed to integrate the learning community students within each of the six sections of the leadership class. In addition, it eliminated the requirement of TA responsibilities from the learning community mentor's responsibilities. However, all mentors will have taken the class and learning community students will be encouraged to apply to become Teaching Assistants throughout the six classes.

The decision was shared with the graduate assistants who also taught the other sections of this class the past two years. Each spontaneously expressed relief and support for the decision. They each expressed their concern about the "group think" mentality. They also commented on a sense of privilege within the learning community culture. They were uniformly pleased with these recommendations and were confident that the learning community's educational experiences would be greatly enhanced with the diversity of ideas and life experiences now available.

Taylor, K, Moore, W., MacGregor, J., and and Lindblad J. (Nd.) state in their analysis of research into Learning Communities "From both assessment and research studies, we still have much to learn about the learning community curricula and co-curricula activities, and about the pedagogy and assessment approaches used within these programs." This research further enhances the above assertion. Further research is recommended to determine appropriate courses for community learning.

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"STRENGTHENING THE CURRICULUM IN A PERSONAL LEADERSHIP COURSE: APPLICATION OF STRENGTHSQUEST IN PERSONAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT"

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track: Practice

Supported by three decades of research by The Gallup Organization, the "Strengths Philosophy" is quickly becoming the new paradigm for achieving excellence, including leadership development. We will engage you in the strengths philosophy and how it has been incorporated into our personal leadership development course and outcomes thus far.

Summer Felton wears two hats in the Department of Agricultural Education at Texas A&M University. Teaching multiple leadership courses and advising over 350 undergraduate students keeps her busy, but she enjoys it thoroughly! One of her favorite quotes is "Life is more accurately measured by the lives you touch than the things you acquire."

Linda Powell has taught preschoolers through adults for the last twenty-five years while raising a daughter and participating in her husband's Air Force career. Instructing leadership courses for AGED, taking graduate classes, conducting research, and advising a unit for the Texas A&M Corps of Cadets completely fill her days (and nights)!

"*Strengthening* the Curriculum in a Personal Leadership Course: Application of Strengths Quest in Personal Leadership Development"

Introduction

A course in personal leadership development was developed in our department at Texas A&M University to help students gain insights into their personal leadership strengths, styles, motivations, and values. Through self-assessment and reflection, students are guided through planning a course for self-improvement as a leader. This semester, students were introduced to the Strengths Philosophy. The Strengths Philosophy is a relatively new concept and has great implications for helping students develop their leadership potential. By attending this presentation, participants will:

- Gain a brief understanding of the Strengths Philosophy and why it is important in a personal leadership development course
- Engage in strengths philosophy activities
- Become aware of the 34 Strengths Themes and how they apply to leadership
- Take away examples of how the Strengths concepts have been incorporated into a personal leadership development curriculum

Background

The premise behind teaching the strengths philosophy in a personal leadership development course is this: a leader needs to know themselves before they can lead others and knowing their strengths is part of this process. Also, "leadership is a process and becoming a leader is also a process. Becoming a "strengths-based leader" involves a process that begins with who you are, then moves to what you do." (Clifton & Anderson, 2004, p. 14)

How it Works

The Personal Leadership course is taught as a 2-credit hour course, which meets two days a week. Resources for the course include two books, *Now, Discover Your Strengths* by Marcus Buckingham & Donald O. Clifton and *Discovering the Leader in You* by Robert J. Lee and Sara N. King. The specific strengths curriculum also includes articles published by the The Gallup Organization "What Superstars Do Differently" and "Developing Leadership Strengths Through the College Experience." The strengths curriculum is taught for two days of the semester and is also applied throughout the other topics in the course for the remainder of the semester. On the first day, students are given an overview of the strengths philosophy and given instructions on how to take the Strengths Finder instrument, which gives them their top 5 strengths. Some of the strengths from the Strengths Finder instrument include: achiever, responsibility, adaptability, arranger, belief, communication, competition and connectedness. Students bring the report of their top 5 strengths with them to the next class for discussion.

On Day 2 of the strengths philosophy, students have the opportunity to converse and share their strengths with members of their learning community*. After students share their strengths, they design a visual to represent their top 5 strengths. This addresses the fact that your strengths do not operate in isolation and no two people are likely to have the same list of Top 5 strengths. We want students to realize the uniqueness of their individual strengths and how they can make use of them in their daily lives.

As part of the student's grade for the class, they are required to keep a journal of their thoughts and answer some reflection questions on the class activities. Reflection questions for the Strengths philosophy include:

- What are your 5 themes?
- What key words or phrases from your themes' descriptions did you identify with as being very true of yourself? Did you find it difficult to think of a visual representation of your 5 themes? Or did you come up with several ideas? If so, what were they?
- After asking 2 people to "affirm" your strengths explain how they saw your strengths in you.

Results to Date

This is the first semester the course has been taught, incorporating the strengths curriculum. Students really bought into the idea of strengths and have come to a better understanding of themselves and how their strengths affect their lives. Here are a few excerpts from journals students have submitted on strengths:

> "Belief is another strength that I am very passionate about, as I think about my life I take pride in my morals and standards. I do definitely have certain beliefs that I will not venture from no matter what."
>
> "The strategic theme states that I "create alternative ways to proceed" which is very true because I like to do things differently and not the way everybody else thinks they should be done."
>
> "In the few short weeks that I have been in this class I have already learned a great deal about myself. I knew I always basically did the same things, reacted the same way in similar situations, I just never knew why."

Conclusions/Recommendations

The strengths philosophy should be incorporated into a personal leadership course. Students get to know their own talents and how to develop them into strengths, which helps them build their own "leadership capital." In *Exploring Leadership: For College Students Who Want to Make a Difference*, the authors discuss that "clues to your strengths are all around you. Identifying them can affirm your confidence and esteem by acknowledging that you do bring reliable talents to situations and can contribute to the leadership of a cause" (Komives, Lucas, and McMahon, 1998, p. 110-111). Allowing students to get to know their strengths through discussing it with a small group of their peers, creating a strengths visual, and reflecting on their strengths is very important to the development process. Students could simply buy the book and take the Strengths Finder assessment, but through a personal leadership course, we have created an environment for learning and provided guided discussion about strengths which makes students accountable for their self-discovery and helps to facilitate the application of the strengths philosophy in their daily lives.

> *The learning community is a teaching technique we incorporated into this class, which involves the class being split into groups of 5-6 students for intimate discussion about what they are learning about themselves. One day 2 of each week students are with the same group members.

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Frazzled about developing an on-line leadership course? Come check this out!

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track: Practice

Carrie Fritz is an Assistant Professor in Agricultural and Extension Education at the University of Tennessee. Her teaching is focused on developing leaders for the classroom and beyond. In addition, her research is focused on the teaching and learning process which includes leadership education.

Instructional design of any course can be stressful and frustrating for many instructors; however, if a course is not designed correctly the learner may become frustrated as well. The previous statement is heightened even more for distant delivered courses and on-line learners. Therefore, it is important to creatively design an on-line course that is interactive, fun, and engaging for the learner. One way to do this is to incorporate several hands-on experiences for the students enrolled in the course.

The hands-on experiences for an on-line leadership course consist of popular multimedia, discussion forums, on-line textbooks, service learning projects, and developing newsletters to showcase leadership experiences. Once you incorporate active teaching tools into your on-line course, essentially students become leaders of their learning.

Introduction

In teaching leadership or leadership skills, university faculty members essentially value the importance of face-to-face interaction with their students. However, this is not always possible with university faculty teaching graduate courses. With the increased responsibility at work and home, many graduate students do not have the opportunity to pursue a graduate degree in the traditional format: on-campus. Thus, it has become important to help meet the educational need of graduate students by providing quality courses in the curriculum via distance education (Pilcher & Miller, 2000). One graduate course that comes to mind is leadership education.

At the conclusion of this workshop, participants will be able to develop an on-line leadership course that utilizes on-line textbooks, concept maps, discussion forums, on-line tools for assessing leadership development, popular multimedia sources, case studies, service learning projects, and newsletter creations.

Background/How it works

The scariest thing about teaching an on-line leadership course is that you never truly get to interact with the students face-to-face; therefore, it forces the educator to become “creative” with their delivery methods. Although creativity is in the eye of the beholder, it does mean more than displaying Powerpoint® presentations and talking through your materials on each slide. Once you realize you need to deliver an effective leadership course on-line, the fun begins.

You must have a friendly and compatable software package like Camtasia Studio. Once the educator is trained to utilize the software, there are many content options to incorporate in the course.

One piece of material that becomes essential in a course is utilizing concept maps. It is beneficial for students to create a preliminary concept of what they think leadership is. This gives the educator a basis in which to work from. In addition, creating a final concept map at the end of the course can provide the educator with an outline of what the student has learned.

Several key components of an on-line leadership course become essential for active learning to take place. Some of those key components are: utilizing on-line text books, designing a discussion forum, utilizing multimedia (songs and movies) as case studies, creating service-learning teams to "practice leadership", and developing a newsletter to showcase the leadership performed by students.

Results to Date

Teachers and students may like the face-to-face interaction that a traditional classroom employs but teaching and delivering an on-line leadership course can be just as successful. Let's take a closer look at how key components of a leadership course were utilized to make it more effective.

An on-line textbook was identified to guide the course. The textbook that was chosen was one written by Kouzes and Posner (1999) called *Encouraging the heart: A leader's guide to rewarding and recognizing others*. This was an easy and applicable textbook for students to follow. Plus, it provided them with some basic principles of effective leadership.

In conjunction with the textbook, Powerpoint® presentations were utilized (no more than 30 minutes) and discussion forums were created. The Powerpoint® presentations highlighted the basic information for that particular week and the discussion forums provided opportunities for students to express their ideas, concerns, or feelings related to the chosen topic for that week.

After the basic components of the course were developed (textbook, presentations, and communication networks), more innovative teaching tools were utilized. Multimedia sources (songs and movies) were incorporated to effectively engage students in the teaching material. During the motivation section related to leadership, several songs were played on-line and students answered a series of questions related to leadership. Some questions were “How did the song make you feel?” and “How does this song relate to leadership?” *Remember the Titans* and *Patch Adams* were required movies for students to watch. These movies were treated as case studies and the focus was on how leadership is portrayed and developed.

Service-learning projects served as the capstone tool for the course. Students were divided into service-learning teams and were given their own discussion forum in which to communicate. Once assigned to a team, students collectively created and presented a proposal to the instructor describing the service-learning project they would engage in. Each team member carried out the service learning project, reflected daily about the project, and evaluated the effectiveness of the project. Newsletters were created by each service learning team and were displayed on the discussion forum for other members of the class to see.

Conclusions and Future Implications

With the increase demand to offer distance delivered courses, university faculty members may want to consider innovative and fun ways to deliver those courses. By utilizing several different types of teaching tools, students can be actively engaged in their learning and never come to campus. Furthermore, faculty will not have to get frazzled about designing an on-line delivered course but rather get excited about the opportunities that await them.

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ENGAGING THE DISENGAGED: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH UNDERGRADUATE CAMPUS LEADERSHIP INVOLVEMENT

Association of Leadership Educations
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Presentation track: Research

Student leadership involvement factors were measured by questions on the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Omnibus Survey; 453 undergraduates responded. Parental education, work, future income, GPA, and loans were positively correlated with at least one involvement indicator. Satisfaction, major and career selection, living off-campus, hours watching television and working, and scholarships/fellowships were negatively correlated to at least one indicator.

Susan Fritz is head and professor in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communication, University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Dr. Fritz also serves as the Associate Dean for the College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources. She is a native Nebraskan and received her B.S. in Business Administration, Masters of Education in Adult Education/Agricultural Education, and Ph.D. in Community and Human Resource Development-Training and Development from the University of Nebraska. She teaches leadership courses and advises undergraduate and graduate students. Her research interests include gender and leadership, community leadership, antecedents of leaders' behaviors, impact of leadership development programs, and acceptance and awareness of biotechnology.

Engaging the Disengaged:
Factors Associated with Undergraduate Campus Leadership Involvement

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Abstract: Student leadership involvement factors were measured by questions on the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Omnibus Survey; 453 undergraduates responded. Parental education, work, future income, GPA, and loans were positively correlated with at least one involvement indicator. Satisfaction, major and career selection, living off-campus, hours watching television and working, and scholarships/fellowships were negatively correlated to at least one indicator.

INTRODUCTION

The major theory upon which colleges and universities, and especially student affairs practitioners, base the rationale for promoting extracurricular participation and leadership development is Astin's (1984) Theory of Involvement in which involvement is defined as investment of physical and psychological time and energy into activities, tasks, and people. The Theory of Involvement states that students learn by becoming "involved"; thus, the greater the student's involvement in college, the greater the student's learning, personal and leadership development. Students' learning increases the more they are involved in both the academic and social aspects of the collegiate experience. Therefore, faculty and staff interaction both inside and outside the classroom and high quality university programs and policies reflective of institutional commitment to student learning are necessary for student growth and retention. Astin's work remains relevant today and frames this correlational involvement study of randomly selected undergraduate students at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Astin's (1993) long-term research demonstrates that student involvement enhances "most aspects of the undergraduate student's cognitive and affective development" (p. 394), as has other research (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Martin, 2000; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991), congruent with the Theory of Involvement. This theory was also supported by a meta-analysis and extensive literature review of research pertaining to the impact of students' out-of-class experiences on their developmental learning outcomes (Gellin, 2003; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996).

In Astin's (1985) Theory of Involvement, involvement is defined as investment of physical and psychological time and energy into activities, tasks, and people. The theory states that students learn by becoming "involved"; thus, the greater the student's involvement in college, the greater the student's learning and personal development. Astin (1984, 1999) argues the Theory of Involvement has an advantage over traditional pedagogical approaches because it focuses on the motivation and behavior of the student. Therefore, all institutional policies and practices can be measured by the degree of involvement they foster in students. Additionally, all faculty and staff can serve students with the same goal in mind, unifying their energies into making the students more involved in the collegiate environment, and thus better learners.

A large amount of empirical evidence supports the continued use of Astin's theory (1984, 1999) since the weight of college student involvement research supports the basic theoretical tenants. This study, therefore, presumes the importance of college student involvement and examines factors associated with such involvement.

For the purpose of this study, the researchers examined three indicators of student leadership involvement as measured by questions on the Omnibus Survey. The indicators related to student time spent participating in student organizations, volunteer work on or off-campus, and the total number of extracurricular activities. The specific questions used as independent variables from the survey include:

1) During an average week, how many hours do you spend participating in student organizations?
2) During an average week, how many hours do you spend doing volunteer work off campus?
3) How many university extracurricular activities, student organizations, or other organized activities do you participate in?

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The Omnibus survey is administered by the Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs at University of Nebraska-Lincoln. An omnibus survey serves several purposes and is repeated on a regular basis. The Bureau of Sociological Research at UNL administers the Omnibus Survey once a year to a random sample of regularly-enrolled students and has done so since 1996. All respondents were contacted via telephone. Questions were structured in a variety of formats and there was no unified scale for answers. Respondents were given a "don't know" or "refuse" option when answering questions.

This study was done as a secondary analysis of data from the annual Omnibus Survey. The questions from the survey were chosen for their potential relationship to student involvement, as measured by three questions in the Omnibus Survey. The population of students who participated in the Omnibus Survey in 2004 served as the subjects of the study. Students answering each independent variable question ranged from 450-453. Survey data were imported in to SPSS-PC; means, standard deviations, frequencies and a simple correlation were conducted. Significance for the study was set at .05. This secondary analysis was exempt from Institutional

Review Board approval as it is considered “archival research” and required neither consent nor compensation to access group data records.

FINDINGS

Table 1 indicates the Pearson Correlations computed for factors related to each of the three questions serving as independent variables. Means and standard deviations for each of the three questions are also provided.

Data revealed several factors were significantly correlated (Table 1) to at least one indicator of student leadership involvement, particularly for the total number of extracurricular activities in which a student was involved. For instance, the highest educational level of father and mother were positively related to the number of extracurricular activities. Students involved in a high number of activities also tended to perceive a high need to work while in school, yet the weekly number of hours working was negatively correlated with this group of students. This relationship was also true for students that spend a high number of hours participating in student organizations. Furthermore, for the group of students involved in a high number of activities, there was a positive correlation for taking out student loans but a negative correlation for receipt of scholarships. This was true even though Grade Point Average was positively correlated with this same group.

Living off campus was negatively correlated with student spending time in a high number of organizations. Career-related decision-making was negatively linked to the number of extracurricular activities in which a student was involved.

Two factors were negatively related to the number of extracurricular activities in which a student was involved and time spent in volunteer activities off campus. These factors included the motivation to work in order to gain work experience and time spent watching television. Finally, satisfaction was negatively linked a student’s number of extracurricular activities.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings reported here suggest several factors relate to student leadership involvement, particularly for the number of activities in which a student is involved. In this study, we examined undergraduate leadership involvement of students at just one institution, so caution must be used in generalizing the findings to all institutions. However, some implications seem apparent.

The positive relationships between highest educational level of father and mother might imply that students involved in a large number of extracurricular activities come from higher socio-economic backgrounds since education is linked to household income (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002). However, the results suggest that this group of students tends to be overlooked for financial aid that does not involve loans. Such evidence may allow for leadership educators to advocate for scholarships related to leadership involvement and G.P.A., rather than on standardized test scores.

The negative relationship between living off campus and the number of organizations a student was involved was understandable from a proximity perspective. From a policy and programming viewpoint, the relationship implies that efforts to require some or all undergraduates to live on campus remain important. Students will increase their involvement, and ideally increase their personal and leadership development as a consequence of living on campus.

The negative relationship between career-related decision making and the number of extracurricular activities in which a student was involved was of concern. The finding suggests that student leaders in this study were involved in a large number of organizations but did not spend quality time in each of those organizations, and were less likely to make a decision on both a major and career. Since there was no significant relationship with the amount of actual time spent on extracurricular activities, students in a larger number of activities appeared to be less able to make career-related decisions than those that spent relatively more time in a smaller number of organizations. This suggests that those working with campus organization leaders be acutely aware of this possibility and that students are encouraged to take advantage of career services on campus. Future research should be conducted to determine the kind of organizations in which the students were involved and their motivations for being involved. For instance, if someone reported being involved in a larger number of organizations were they primarily campuswide and/or social in nature? If someone reported being involved in a small number of organizations, were the organizations related to their career, department and/or college? Additionally, it would be helpful to determine the student motivation for pursuing a large quantity of involvement with no quality time. Ultimately, the inability to make a decision on a major and a career has opportunity and financial costs that could strain the lives, and budgets of students, families and institutions.

An unexpected finding revealed that satisfaction was negatively linked to a student's number of extracurricular activities. While no significant findings found actual time spent in student organizations related to satisfaction, student involvement as a whole tends to be related positively to student involvement (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). The finding of this study suggests that student leaders that become involved in a high number of organizations, but do not spend quality time in each of those organizations, may be less satisfied with their collegiate experience than those that spend relatively more time in a smaller number of organizations. This finding would be important to share with parents and first-year students as they chart a course for their collegiate years. Additionally, advisors to student organizations that have a preponderance of students that are not active members need to be encouraged to evaluate whether it is in a student's best interest to retain membership without contributing their time and talents.

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Table 1

Simple Statistics and Correlational Analysis

	Weekly hours spent participating in Student Organizations	Weekly hours spent doing volunteer work off campus	Number of University extracurricular activities
Frequencies, Means, and Standard Deviations	*n*=450 *M*=2.86 *SD*=8.1	*n*=453 *M*=1.06 *SD*=2.67	*n*=453 *M*=1.81 *SD*=2.08
Highest Father Education Level	.14*	.02	.16*
Highest Mother Education Level	.08	.05	.13*
Necessity of Working While in School	.19*	-.02	.17*
Number of Hours Working	-.16*	.04	-.17*
Student Loans	.09	.02	.11*
Receipt of Scholarships	-.05	-.01	-.21*
G.P.A.	.05	.06	.24*
Living Off Campus	-.18*	-.04	-.22*
Major Selection	-.04	-.05	-.10*
Career Selection	-.01	-.00	-.09*
Working to Gain Career Experience	-.11	-.17*	-.21*
Number of Hours Watching T.V.	-.03	-.09*	-.13*
Satisfaction	-.07	-.04	-.09*

Note. *Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

MIDDLE EASTERN STUDENT'S ATTITUDES TOWARD THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN AN INTENSIVE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

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Presentation Track: Research

This presentation showcases the attitudes of Middle Eastern and North African students ages 15-19 toward their involvement in an intensive leadership program.

Bryan Hains is currently a Doctoral student at Purdue University, where he is studying Agriculture and Extension Education in the Department of Education Curriculum and Instruction. Previous to attending Purdue, he taught high school agriculture in the state of Indiana. Both his bachelor and master's degrees were obtained from Colorado State University. During his education at Colorado State University he was trained in Agriculture Education and Integrated Resource Management.

Jerry Peters is professor in the Department of Youth Development and Agricultural Education in the College of Agriculture at Purdue University. He received his B.S. and M.S. degree in Agricultural Education from Purdue and his Ph.D. in Agricultural Education from The Ohio State University. He teaches an undergraduate course, Leadership in Developing the Agricultural Professional and has been actively working with the Indiana Center for Cultural Exchange presenting leadership programs in the support of projects that advance better understanding, appreciation, and cooperation between the United States and the Muslim world.

Introduction/Literature Review

Within society individuals are often classified as a leader, a follower, or a bystander. However, these three categories are not exclusive of each other; each of us performs them simultaneously in many different situations (Fritz, Brown, Lunde, and Banset, 2005). Fritz et al. (2005) states, “But regardless of the mix of functions in our lives, we know the most successful leaders are also capable of being successful followers.” (p. 342). The definition of leadership is very diverse. Chemers (2000) in his book on leadership research and theory defined leadership as “a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task.” (p.27). Most individuals defining leadership are influenced by their primary research objectives, therefore, making it difficult to narrow down a definition.

With the political unrest and turnover currently among Middle Eastern nations there is no better time to initiate a youth leadership program like the present. In his paper on youth crisis in Middle Eastern Society, Fuller (2004) adds insight to the current events associated with these countries.

> The culture of the Middle East is presently undergoing one of the greatest crises in its modern history. The old authoritarian order, so widespread through much of the region, is running out of steam and out of time. The gulf between ruler and ruled has never been greater, while frustration and anger among the general populations at existing conditions-economic, social, political, and international-is at new heights. (p.4)
>
> Against the background of these dramatic events there lies a less dramatic, but possibly more important, phenomenon that may have greater impact over the longer run than even terrorism and war. I refer to the emergence of a huge and growing population of young people in the region whose presence will likely shake present regimes from within more devastatingly than even the forces of international politics. This demographic factor, sometimes designated as a demographic “youth bulge,” refers to the unusually large percentage of young people among the overall population. (p.4)

United Nations (2004) demographic statistics reveal that the population of youth under the age of fifteen are 43% in Afghanistan, 34% in Egypt, 41% in Iraq, 37% in Jordan, 39% in Saudi Arabia, and 48% in Yemen. This is compared to the 21% of the population in United States under the age of fifteen. These statistics clearly show the increase in youth populations which will take leadership roles in the future.

Secretary of State Colin L. Powell (2002) in his speech, *Building Hope for the Years Ahead,* to the Heritage Foundation stated the need for youth leadership development in Middle Eastern countries, “too many of the region's children lack the knowledge to take advantage of a world of economic and political freedom. Powell continues by adding, “Our ultimate goal is a just and comprehensive Arab-Israeli settlement, in which all the peoples of the region are accepted as neighbors, living in peace and security.” Training youth for leadership and helping them implement these goals could help accelerate the reality of a unified Middle East.

The United States Department of State through the Middle East Partnership Initiative chose the Indiana Center for Cultural Exchange (ICCE) to initiate a Summer Institute on American Life and Youth Leadership to train youth from eleven Middle Eastern countries. “The ICCE was established as a partnership between Indiana University, Purdue University and the University of Notre Dame as well as twelve participating national institutions in order to collaborate on projects that will advance understanding and appreciation between the United States and the Muslim world” (Mitchell, 2004, p.1).

Faculty involved in the youth leadership component of the program chose to use both transactional and transformational leadership theories when developing and implementing curriculum for the leadership series. Fertman and van Linden (1999) in their article on character education for developing youth leadership, define transactional leadership as “focusing on the skills and tasks usually associated with leadership, such as speaking in public, delegating authority, leading meetings, and making decisions.”(p.1). They go on to define transformational leadership as “the process of leadership and what it means to be a leader. It is concerned with how individuals use their abilities to influence people.” (p.1) By utilizing both leadership theories within the curriculum design, it is thought that participants will become well rounded leaders.

Methods

The population of interest consisted of sixteen participants from eleven countries identified within the Middle East and North Africa (see Table 1). Six males and ten females between the ages of sixteen and nineteen were chosen to participate in the four week summer institute July 15- August 21, 2004. Each participant was evaluated by delegates representing the U.S. Embassy within each country. The selection process included evaluating each student’s scholastic performance, community and extra-curricular involvement, and English proficiency.

Table 1
Countries of Origin for Students Participating in Summer Institute on American Life and Youth Leadership

Country	Number of Participants
Bahrain	1
Egypt	1
Israel	2
Jordan	1
Lebanon	2
Morocco	1
Oman	1
Saudi Arabia	2
Syria	1
Tunisia	2
West Bank	2

Students participated in a four week intensive institute. The first two weeks focused on educating participants about American life and political structure. The final two weeks focused on leadership development. The leadership development component will be the focus of this paper.

Leadership education was implemented through panel discussions, on site visitations and traditional classroom instruction. Topics for each discussion panel were chosen based on their relevance to current events within Middle Eastern countries. Discussion topics included Women in Leadership and Diversity in Leadership.

To enhance student learning and implementation of leadership skills, participants attended a variety of on site visits. Students participated in a two part leadership program on the University of Notre Dame campus. Participants took part in international peace dialog and specifically examined Muslim and Christian relationships during a visitation to the Kroc Institute. They were also able to visit with directors of the Center for Social Concerns while discussing current collegiate service learning programs. While making an on site visit to meet Mr. Muhammad Ali, students watched a biographical movie highlighting his leadership accomplishments. The capstone site visitation included a two day conference with the Indiana 4-H program at the Indiana State Fair.

Throughout the leadership component of the institute, traditional classroom instruction was utilized to introduce transformational and transactional leadership theories. The Leadership Director implemented several National FFA Life Knowledge instructional leadership materials covering the following leadership topics. Each topic was chosen for its' relevancy to youth leadership development (Table 2).

Table 2
Leadership Topics Presented at the Summer Institute on American Life and Youth Leadership

Introduction to Leadership	Eliminating Myths in Leadership
Understanding Leadership Styles	Myers Briggs Personality Indicator
Personal Growth and Goal Setting	The Communication Process
Overcoming Communication Barriers	Distance Communication
Parliamentary Procedure	Group Dynamics
Team Building	Individual and Group Motivational Techniques
Critical Thinking and Problem Solving	Time and Stress Management

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were utilized to design a summative survey. The survey, designed by participating faculty, included a four point Likert Scale, as well as open ended discussion questions for students to add rich data relevant to each leadership topic.

The summative survey coincided with a pre-test post-test instrument developed by a panel of experts from the United States Department of State. Students took the pre-test within 24 hours of their arrival. The test was given upon their arrival to prevent a biased view of leadership influenced by their American experience. Participants concluded the institute by taking the post-test.

Findings

When reporting results from the faculty produced survey it is important to note that the table entries are percentages based on the number of students who completed each question. Due to rounding, some rows do not sum to 100%. It is also important to understand that the results from this study only pertain to the participants involved.

Summative Survey
Classroom Instruction

Participants were asked to rate each educational session covering fourteen specific leadership topics (Table 3). The four Likert categories included very helpful, somewhat helpful, not so helpful, and not helpful at all. All fourteen leadership categories were listed as very helpful or somewhat helpful by 100% of the students.

Table 3
Participant's Rating of Helpfulness of Individual Leadership Topics (n = 16)

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not So Helpful	Not Helpful At All
Introduction to Leadership	81%	19%	0%	0%
Eliminating Myths in Leadership	63%	38%	0%	0%
Understanding Leadership Styles	94%	6%	0%	0%
Personal Growth and Goal Setting	100%	0%	0%	0%
Perception and Conflict Resolution	100%	0%	0%	0%
The Communication Process	100%	0%	0%	0%
Overcoming Communication Barriers	94%	6%	0%	0%
Distance Communication	81%	19%	0%	0%
Parliamentary Procedure	69%	31%	0%	0%
Group Dynamics	88%	13%	0%	0%
Team Building	94%	6%	0%	0%
Motivational Techniques	94%	6%	0%	0%
Critical Thinking and Problem Solving	94%	6%	0%	0%
Time and Stress Management	88%	13%	0%	0%

Myers Briggs Personality Indicator

All participants took part in the Myers Briggs Personality Indicator. Students used the Likert scale categories helpful, somewhat helpful, not so helpful, and not helpful at all. Ninety four percent of participants felt that the Myers Briggs Personality Indicator was either very or somewhat helpful, while six percent felt that it was not so helpful (Table 4).

Table 4
Participant's Rating of Helpfulness of Myers Briggs Personality Indicator

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not So Helpful	Not Helpful At All
Myers Briggs Personality Indicator	81%	13%	6%	0%

Panel Discussions

Two separate questions were asked regarding panel discussions. Students were asked to rate the panel on Women in Leadership by its' helpfulness to their leadership education. In contrast, students were asked to rate the panel on Diversity of Leadership by how much they enjoyed the session. Two Likert scales were also used in the evaluation. When rating the Panel on Women in Leadership the categories included: very helpful, somewhat helpful, not so helpful, and not helpful at all. When rating the Panel on Diversity of Leadership the categories included: very much, some, not so much, and not much at all as the measuring factors.

When asked to rate the panel on Women in Leadership by its' helpfulness to their leadership education, 56% felt it was very helpful, 38% felt it was somewhat helpful and 6% felt it was not so helpful (Table 5).

Table 5
Participant's Rating of Helpfulness of the Panel on Women in Leadership

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not So Helpful	Not Helpful At All
Panel on Women in Leadership	56%	38%	6%	0%

Upon being asked how much participants enjoyed the panel on Diversity of Leadership, 64% of the students felt they enjoyed the session very much, while 29% felt they enjoyed the session some and 7% felt that they enjoyed the session not so much (Table 6).

Table 6
Participant's Rating of Enjoyment of the Panel on Diversity of Leadership

	Very Much	Some	Not So Much	Not Much At All
Panel on Diversity of Leadership	64%	29%	7%	0%

Youth Leadership Site Visits

Students evaluated each on site visit utilizing the Likert scale categories very helpful, somewhat helpful, not very helpful, and not helpful at all (Table 7). The visit with Muhammad Ali at his home and training facility rated highest with 88% of the participants rating it very helpful, 6% rating the visit not very helpful, and 6% rating the visit not helpful at all. The Kroc Institute at the University of Notre Dame was ranked second as 63% of the students felt it was very helpful, 25% stated it was somewhat helpful, 6% declared the visit was not very helpful and the remaining 6% felt it was not helpful at all. Peer visitation at the Indiana State Fair Youth Leadership Conference was rated fourth with 50% of the students stated that is was very helpful, 31% stated that it was somewhat helpful, 13% felt it was not very helpful, and 6% felt it was not helpful at all. The leadership visit to the Center for Social Concerns at the University of Notre Dame rated last with 44% of the participants feeling that it was very helpful, 44% rated the visit somewhat helpful, 6% felt it was not very helpful and 6% stated that it was not helpful at all.

Table 7

Participant's Rating of Helpfulness of the Youth Leadership Site Visits

	Very Helpful	Somewhat Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not Helpful At All
Muhammad Ali	88%	0%	6%	6%
Kroc Institute at the University of Notre Dame	63%	25%	6%	6%
Peer visit with 4-H leaders at the Indiana State Fair Youth Leadership Conference	50%	31%	13%	6%
Center for Social Concerns at the University of Notre Dame	44%	44%	6%	6%

Overall Evaluation

The method of measurement for the question, "How much did each of the following parts of the Youth Leadership segment of the Summer Institute develop your leadership skills?", included the Likert scale categories of very much, some, not so much, and not much at all (Table 8). Classroom discussion rated the highest as 100% of the students felt it developed their leadership skills very much. Classroom lectures placed second with 88% stating that lectures developed their leadership skills very much and 13% felt it helped develop their skills some. Placing third was their participation in on site visits with 80% of the students felt it helped their leadership skills very much, 13% felt it developed their skills some and 6% felt that it developed their leadership skills not so much.

Table 8

Participant's Rating of Segment Impact on Personal Leadership Skills

	Very Much	Some	Not So Much	Not Much At All
Classroom Discussion	100%	0%	0%	0%
Classroom Lecture	88%	13%	0%	0%
Site Visits	80%	13%	6%	0%

Upon evaluation of the qualitative component of the faculty produced survey participant's answers introduced a variety of common themes. When asked a question relating to which aspects of the Summer Institute were most valuable to them, a majority of students stated that the leadership component was the most valuable. This theme is best presented by quoting two students:

> *The most valuable aspect of the Summer Institute was our study about youth leadership, because it helped us understand how we must build our personality and organize our life, which in turn will help us become a leader in our community.*
>
> *I think that the leadership course is one of the most important courses. It isn't easy to take this course everywhere. In this course you can improve your leadership skills to become a great leader and to enhance your life success.*

Students were asked the open ended question, "How do you plan to use the leadership information you received from the Youth Leadership segment of the Summer Institute?" A majority of the students indicated they will use the leadership information gained within their community, family, and personal lives. One participant commented:

> *I will do my best to use what I have learned. Not only will I use this information in my daily life but also in my relation with friends and family. I think it will also help me in my future job.*

Another participant stated, *"I plan to read the information and try to establish my own youth group."*

Pre-Test Post-Test

The United States Department of State developed a quantitative pre-test post-test instrument which measured each participant's self evaluation of key leadership skills. One hundred percent of the participants stated that they increased their self evaluation (Table 9).

Table 9

Percentage of Participants Rating Themselves as Excellent in Leadership Skills

Self-Evaluation of Key Leadership Skills	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Self-Reliant	29	69	+40
Public Speaking	21	38	+17
Listening to Others	50	69	+19
Expressing Ideas/Feelings	21	56	+35
Working with Different People	43	63	+20
Leading/Motivating Others	36	50	+14
Being Flexible	7	69	+62
Solving Problems	14	56	+42
Planning for the Future	21	69	+48
Managing Time	29	50	+21
Managing Money	14	56	+42
Discussing Beliefs/Values	29	69	+40
Willing to Change your Community	29	63	+34

U.S. Department of State (2004)

Conclusions and Implications/Recommendations

Participants chose the areas of classroom discussion, classroom instruction, and the Myers Briggs Personality Indicator to be the most beneficial to them. It is implied that students thrived in an environment inclusive of transitional and transactional leadership theories which were presented by accommodating various learning styles. It can be concluded that by initiating the Myers Briggs Personality Indicator within leadership instruction, students are better able to understand individual personalities and associate them with individual leadership styles.

A majority of the students felt that the leadership site visits were advantageous to their leadership advancement. However, it is recommended that individual leadership sites chosen should be reviewed for impact on leadership growth.

In addition, it can be concluded that students felt the discussion panels were of minimal help to their leadership growth. It is recommended that future topics pertain to leadership subject matter discussed within the classroom.

Based on the summative survey results it can be concluded that all fourteen leadership topics helped participants with leadership growth. It is implied that topics chosen for the leadership curriculum were topics that were most beneficial to participants and should not be changed for future institutes.

Based upon the results from the U.S. Department of State pre-test post-test instrument, it can be concluded that participants greatly increased their confidence level of key leadership skills. It is implied that by attending an intensive leadership development program participants attitudes were positively influenced.

From the information gathered from the instruments and the student's comments on the open-ended questions, it appears that indeed the Middle Eastern students that participated in an intensive leadership development program improved their knowledge and skills in the area of leadership development. It is hopeful that these young men and women will return to their own countries and by utilizing their newly gained knowledge in leadership development, help make a difference in their local communities and beyond.

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HOW ARE WE GOING TO FIND TRUE NORTH DURING AN ORGANIZATIONAL PERFECT STORM? UNDERSTANDING SUCCESSION MANAGEMENT - A REQUISITE MODEL

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation track: Practice

By 2008, the first set of Babyboomers will retire. Add a widening skills gap, employee discontent, low global pools of talent, the shifting nature of work and you have the makings of a "perfect storm." Organizations will succeed by applying innovative talent strategies different than anything seen in the past.

Dr. Hass has a 25-year history of galvanizing economics to organizational development practices. In particular, he is interested in determining what individual, team and organizational behaviors bring a bottom-line difference to an organization. He is has trained audiences all over the nation and in eight foreign countries in organizational development and leadership. He is a noted author and sought speaker in the fields of leadership and management. Lanny is currently a faculty member of NC State University and president of Chrysalis Consulting in Raleigh, NC.

Demographic trends point toward leaner times for organizations. Between 1996 and 2006, the number of people between the ages of 55 and 64 in the United States will increase by 54 percent, while those between ages 25 and 34 will experience a net decrease of 8.8 percent.[1] These demographics are causing top management to strategically rethink the proper tactics that will ensure getting the right number of people with the right skills, experiences, and competencies in the right jobs at the right time. In addition, these demographics will generate rippling effects that will influence many areas of an organization's systems, policies and structures. For example, this economic environment will require leaders to develop better methods of finding, retaining and keeping their high potentials and determining what organizational models/theories best fit this new human resource environment. Elliot Jacques spent 50 years researching some of these concerns and questions. It is important as leaders and organizational development professionals to be aware of his concepts and why capacity index, learning agility and requisite organizational models are getting so much attention today. This workshop will attempt to present many of these models, concepts and outcomes to the participants.

In this workshop participants will:

1) Understand and comprehend the demographics that support the need for succession management and planning.
2) Learn about Elliot Jaques Requisite Model and how it can be used in succession management.
3) Appreciate the importance of the concepts learning agility, bench strength, capacity index and job stratums.
4) To gain knowledge of succession management models and how to pick high potentials.

Background

Succession planning revolves around evaluating what the organization's leadership and talent needs are going to be in the future, identifying individuals who can potentially satisfy those needs, and preparing future leaders for their eventual roles. A seat-of-the-pants approach won't work, and organizations can't wait until the crisis occurs to act. In fact, organizations that wait too long often find themselves forced to pursue costly outside hires through executive search firms rather than turning to talented people who already have a stake in the organization. This is a far too common problem and occurs because many organizations don't do their homework in advance. Appropriate knowledge and skills will be necessary to lead this issue in the coming years. Top management will have to team with organizational development specialist to design systemic strategies to successfully navigation this storm.

How it works

Requisite Organization is an evolving model based on more than 50 years of continuing scientific research by Elliott Jaques, aided, supported and validated by the research of many colleagues around the world. Requisite Organization is the term created by Elliott Jaques to refer to the only systematically scientific approach to the effective management of work systems,

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including structure, leadership processes and human resources. The concepts and practices embedded in Requisite Organization are the result of the systematic application of numerous scientific discoveries about the nature of work and the nature of people's capacity for work.

Results to date

Many companies are applying these models with success. However, given the timeliness of these models and the demographics in which they are applied the results are still be evaluated.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Given the rapid pace of change in the workforce and in business, the need for succession planning is increasingly urgent. The need to understand applicable models is necessary to create calculated approaches to these organizational issues. Succession planning allows for a coordinated effort to ensure an organization’s on-going, effective performance by developing individuals to replace key employees when these key employees vacate their positions. Organizational leaders need a systematic approach to identifying, evaluating and developing current employees so that they are prepared to assume higher level positions. This practical knowledge and skill can make sure that “organizational cartographers” determine a “organizational north” and chart a path that will move current leadership to those who will lead the organization in the future.

Suggestions for Inclusion of the Disability Community in Leadership Development Programs

Association of Leadership Educations
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Bob has a Masters Degree in Forestry from Oklahoma State University and is currently working on a Ph.D. in Agricultural Education, Extension, and Communication at the same institution. Bob has a full time position as the Director of Oklahoma State University's Forest Resources Center. He also serves on Oklahoma's Developmental Disability Council as the Chair of the Education and Child Development Committee. As the Chair of this committee, he has been the primary principle in the establishment of a week long youth leadership forum for Oklahoma junior and senior high school students with disabilities. His interests in leadership are rooted in his participation in many volunteer organizations and a desire to help develop future leaders to advance disability issues.

This brief will identify possible barriers that exclude people with disabilities from seeking leadership opportunities and how current instruction methods can be adapted to overcome these barriers ensuring inclusion.

Introduction

While serving as Program Manager of the President's Committee on Employment of People with Disabilities during the Carter Administration, Claudie Grant, Esq., stated that the key to the advancement of the social inclusion of individuals with disabilities is empowerment; “Now, more than ever, leadership abilities are essential skills that the disability community must nurture and fully utilize.” (Grant, 1995) The question then becomes how leadership educators can aid in this nurturing process. With this in mind, the task for leadership educators becomes two fold; the identification of possible barriers that exclude people with disabilities from seeking leadership opportunities and how current instruction methods can be adapted to overcome these barriers to ensure inclusion.

Carol Gill, Director of the Chicago Center for Disability Research, suggests that there are several specific barriers to leadership development in the disability community;

- Environmental and program access
- Transportation and access barriers
- Failure to accommodate differences in functioning
- Income level of individuals with disabilities
- Educational disadvantage
- Job discrimination leading to lack of employment and in turn leadership experience
- Strength of the status quo of society’s institutions
- The dilemmas created by future roles of non-disability allies (Gill, 1999)

Gill further suggests the following to assure future opportunities for leadership development in the disability community;

- Ensure access at all levels of projects, programs, and systems
- Break from tradition and modify programs to meet the styles and needs of the individuals with disabilities
- Create procedures to recruit, develop, train, support and promote persons with disabilities
- Avoid stereotyping attitudes
- Develop ways to recognize and reward leadership accomplishments of persons with disabilities
- Develop innovative working alliances between people with and without disabilities. (Gill, 1999)

How Does It Work

Potential barriers to inclusion of individuals with disabilities in leadership development programs must be identified and accommodations developed to ensure the opportunity for participation in such programs. In addition, current disability based programs must be adapted to provide more traditional leadership training. The Oklahoma Youth Leadership Forum (YLF), a self advocacy program for high school juniors and seniors with disabilities, has integrated a traditional leadership module into its curriculum. An examination of the combination of inclusive techniques and leadership training used in the Oklahoma YLF can provide an excellent frame work to modify existing traditional leadership development programs for inclusion of individuals with disabilities.

Results to Date

There are currently 37 states offering a Youth Leadership Forum. The Oklahoma YLF staff developed and implemented a traditional leadership training module this year (2005) into the curriculum. An evaluation of the leadership training module's efficacy is currently being conducted. There are also ongoing assessments by the participants and staff on how to improve inclusion and involvement of traditional educators (pre-service Special Ed educators, leadership educators, and graduate students) in the forum staff. Discussions are currently underway between the Okalahoma Development Disabilities Council and the New Mexico Developmental Disabilities Council to aid the New Mexico Council in the establishment of a YLF in that state.

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PEER TEACHING OF SHARED LEADERSHIP

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Presentation Track: Practice

Techniques to enhance students' abilities to take on leadership roles, foster shared leadership and develop their ability to improve group member's confidence and skills are described. A combination of lecture, audience participation and discussion will target those engaged in leadership education who wish to develop shared leadership skills in groups.

Jim Mahone is an Associate Professor of Rural Extension Studies at the University of Guelph in Guelph, Ontario. He did his undergraduate work at the USCG Academy in New London, Connecticut receiving a BSC in Naval Architecture and Marine Engineering. Jim obtained two PhD's (Animal Husbandry and Physiology) from Michigan State University. He followed his doctoral work with an NIH postdoctoral fellowship at Purdue University. His employment history post grad School is as follows: Assistant Professor Department of Animal Science McGill University, Ste Anne de Bellevue, Quebec, Physiologist Alberta Department of Agriculture, Edmonton Alberta Director of Research, Alberta Department of Agriculture, Director of Research, University / Ontario Ministry of Agriculture and Food, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Assistant to the Dean, OAC, Rural community Development University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Associate Professor Rural Extension studies, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario. Jim teaches Leadership Development in Rural Organizations, Facilitation and Conflict Management and Decision Making and Conflict and was faculty advisor for Ontario's Advanced Agricultural Leadership Program. His research interests are in leadership development and capacity building.

Peer Teaching of Shared Leadership

Introduction

Professors employ many approaches to leadership education including lecture, journaling, service learning, skills training and case studies. This paper describes the use of in-course students to act as peer teachers in the process of learning and developing group leadership. The learning objectives of peer development of leadership are to utilize students' individual skills to develop teams based on shared leadership and to engage group members in their own development and the development of others as leaders.

Background

Facilitative leadership is leadership that promotes respect and positive relationships between team members, productive conflict resolution, and open expression of ideas and opinions (Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola–Merlo and Richver, 2004). Day, Gronn and Salas (2004) describe a shared distributed process in which all team members participate in the leadership process creating a capacity for versatility and adaptability. Reasons for leaders to teach other leaders include gaining personal satisfaction from watching others grow, developing their own skills as a consequence of sharing experiences resolving business (Mumford, !998), adding considerable value with minimum expense and building leadership within and across groups (Cacioppe, 1998). Learners can serve as sources of information and interact with each other by assuming roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formal trained teacher or tutor This has the potential for creating a rich learning environment(Liu and Hansen, 2004).

How it works

The author's graduate course in Facilitation and Conflict Management and undergraduate course in Leadership Development in Rural Organizations are structured in such a way that peer to peer development of group member's leadership skills is central to the learning experience.
I lecture on several central themes modeling a facilitative teaching style. Lecture topics include oral presentation skills, meeting management. conflict management, facilitation, teambuilding, group dynamics and networking. Students are administered a pesrnality assessment instrument, such as 'True Colors', to engage them in the exploration of their group work values and those of others. In groups of 4-6, students conduct lectures on the different leadership theories in such a way as to demystify the academic jargon and then come up with a class exercise illustrating the theory under discussion. All group members take part and must facilitate a portion of the exercise. As part of the group experience they coach each other for presentation skills, techniques to engage the class during their presentations and subsequently, to evaluate their group members' performance.
Additionally, students are assigned a number of 'cases' that require leading their group to reach decisions and create effective oral presentations in which all members must

participate. Examples include survival scenarios, marketing strategies, conflict management strategies, strategies for dealing with difficult people and negotiation problems. The students submit e-journals of learning's gained throughout the course, Make a group oral and written presentation analyzing the leadership of a volunteer or not for profit organization of their choice and develop a paper and make an oral presentation on their personal vision of leadership.   The students in the graduate course are required to work with community organizations to conduct focus groups on topics of interest to the community also.

Results to date

For the past 5 years I have used students' e-journals, personal vision papers and course evaluation comments as a basis for assessing the effectiveness on peer teaching of leadership. Some observations of those students who were most engaged follow.

"I can't think of another class or group situation that has ever provided this kind of growth and learning. The personalized critiques were obviously a huge force in moving us all forward if education was structured in this way everyone would have valuable personal insight and awareness much earlier in their lives."

"I thought this week's class was amazing! I was amazed because this is the first time in my considerable experience with classroom settings that an instructor allowed for a critical, formative evaluation of the program. ….. I really feel that we (class participants) have considerable ownership of the program and ………that we can take steps to make changes. How incredibly empowering."

"This has been the ultimate in learning experiences because every medium of teaching was used. We have all had an opportunity to learn from others in a very creative and impactful way."

"The place where I learned the most in the class was in the group work. I realize that I have to talk with people and not just to people. To me working with the difficult personalities was the hardest part of the class. Its not that we didn't have the techniques to handle problems it is just that we didn't handle them at all."

"I do feel more comfortable being assertive. Much of this is due to the multiple 'play-acting' scenarios we do in class, putting ourselves into different roles. It reminds me of what theater must be like"

"This class is about putting words into action, facilitating the catalyzing of action, building the confidence to turn ideas into action, to help others turn ideas into action. ….. We really bonded together and created an incredibly supportive environment to explore our own gremlins, to face our fears and to challenge ourselves without fear of judgment or making mistakes or looking silly or feeling inadequate."

"I watched fellow classmates come out of their shells in my small group environment and then with some encouragement and motivation they were able to carry this involvement to the larger class as well."

"My peers were all great coaches because they helped me to identify my needs and supported me so much that my confidence grew."

*"The (*graduate focus group) *meeting was phenomenal. No word of a lie. Individually we were great and as a team we functioned like a well-oiled machine. Kris got a job offer."*

Conclusions

Peer interaction in the teaching of leadership provides a valuable approach to leadership development. Students gain confidence in sharing leadership by taking charge, following, coaching and facilitating discussion within their group. Instructors gain rich insights from participating in the peer learning experience.

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CONNECTING FEAR, LEADERSHIP, AND CHARISMA

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Presentation Track: Research

This literature review explores effective leadership in the face of fear on the part of the leader as well as followers. Psychology literature is used to define fear and coping methods, followed by a discussion of the concept of crisis leadership. This points to some interesting connections to the concept of charismatic leadership.

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Connecting Fear, Leadership, and Charisma

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Introduction

In a time of violence and crime, both here and abroad, our people, businesses, organizations, and government are all feeling the effects of fear. People are afraid of crime, afraid of another 9-11, afraid of losing their jobs, their spouse, their children. Businesses are afraid of unethical leaders, going bankrupt, takeovers, and having to fire people. So what is effective leadership in an environment of crisis? This study attempts to pull together related literature from several disciplines to answer this question.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to conduct a thorough review of literature related to fear and leadership. The objectives were as follows:

1. Define key terms
2. Describe coping strategies for dealing with fear
3. Summarize the literature related to crisis leadership
4. Compare coping strategies for dealing with fear with crisis leadership concepts

Procedures

Data for this study was gathered through a library search at Oklahoma State University. Searches were conducted through databases including Proquest, ERIC, Academic Search Elite, Humanities Abstracts, PsycARTICLES, and PsycINFO. Search terms included “fear,” “crisis,” “leadership” and “coping,” as well as various combinations of these terms. The databases were accessed online, and articles were collected both online and through the library print resources. An internet search was also conducted with the same search terms.

Findings

Definitions

The key terms for this research include fear, crisis, leadership, and charisma. For ease of use and common understanding, terms were defined using Merriam-Webster's dictionary, both online and in print.

Fear is defined as "an unpleasant often strong emotion caused by anticipation or awareness of danger." Synonyms include alarm, dismay, dread, fright, horror, panic, terror, and trepidation.

Interestingly, the first definition of crisis in the dictionary is "the turning point for better or worse in an acute disease or fever." For the purposes of this study the third definition will be used: "an unstable or crucial time or state of affairs in which a decisive change is impending; especially one with a distinct possibility of a highly undesirable outcome." Synonyms for crisis include juncture, contingency, emergency, turning point, dilemma, puzzle, quandary, and predicament.

Leadership is defined by Merriam-Webster's as "1. The office or position of a leader; 2. Capacity to lead; 3. The act or an instance of leading." To gain a more complete understanding, we look to the definition of lead, "1. To direct, as by going before or along with; guide; 2. To direct by influence." Synonyms for leadership include authority, control, effectiveness, foresight, and influence.

This study eventually took a turn toward charismatic leadership, and therefore a definition of charisma will be helpful before moving on. The second definition of charisma in the dictionary is "a personal magic of leadership arousing special popular loyalty or enthusiasm for a public figure." Charm, allure, appeal, fascination, and magnetism are all synonyms for charisma.

Coping With Fear

Mikulincer and Florian (1995) help us define coping as it relates to fear. They describe coping responses to fear as consisting of “cognitions and behaviors that a person uses to reduce stress and to moderate its emotional impact.” They group these responses into two types, problem-focused and emotion-focused. Problem-focused coping responses are directed at solving the cause of stress. Emotion-focused coping responses attempt to ease internal tension through rationalization, distancing, and wishful thinking. They state that the general consensus in the literature is that problem-focused coping strategies tend to have a positive impact on the individual’s emotional outcomes, while emotion-focused strategies tend to have a negative impact.

Much of the research related to coping with fear focuses on fear of crime. Reid, Roberts and Hilliard (1998) studied a sample in New Orleans, Louisiana in an attempt to determine if people cope with their fear individually or collectively. They categorized fear as emotion-based: “the individual can visualize her/himself as a victim of a specific crime;” and risk-based: “the individual evaluates her/his risk of victimization in certain situations.” Coping strategies differ depending on they type of fear exhibited, as well as individual factors (Reid, Roberts, & Hilliard, 1998).

Fear motivates many people to take precautionary measures, although prevention techniques often actually increase fear of crime (Liska, Sanchirico, & Reed, 1988; Reid, Roberts, & Hilliard, 1998). These precautions tend to serve as reminders of the risk of victimization, therefore increasing fear. These precautionary measures, then, do not reduce fear but rather serve as a buffer, allowing the individual to live with the fear (Rosenbaum, 1986).

Schoenberger (1999) agrees that fear motivates people “to take the actions necessary to avoid or escape from danger.” He states, however, that the danger of the situation is seldom related to the amount of fear and anxiety experienced. Anxiety expectancy, then, is the trigger for fear. Anxiety expectancy can be defined as “a belief about the occurrence of anxiety” (Schoenberger, 1999). It is purely internal, but this perception of personal threat is the single variable most likely to cause fear. Schoenberger (1999) goes on to suggest that the best way to cope with fear is to decrease the anticipation of fear. This can be done through a variety of therapeutic techniques, including systematic desensitization, in vivo exposure, and cognitive restructuring.

Crisis Leadership

It is crucial for leaders to have a well thought-out strategic plan in times of crisis and instability (Weiss, 2002). “We call for someone with answers, decision, strength, and a map of the future, someone who knows where we ought to be going – in short, someone who can make hard problems seem simple” (Heifetz, 1994). But what does effective leadership in a crisis actually mean?

Very little actual research exists examining what is effective leadership in a crisis. However, the business literature is full of suggestions, possible models, and anecdotal evidence. The simplest of these is presented by Anderson (2002). His three key tenets of crisis leadership are: “1) Stay engaged and lead from the front; 2) Point to the big picture and communicate the vision; 3) Seek wise counsel and use your team.” Weiss (2002) also presents some keys to crisis leadership. Hers include: “1) Maintain absolute integrity; 2) Know your stuff; 3) Declare your expectations; 4) Show uncommon commitment; 5) Expect positive results; 6) Take care of your people; 7) Put duty before self; and 8) Get out in front.”

Mitroff (2001) focuses his model for effective crisis leadership more on a specific crisis, but the themes are the same. One of his biggest points is “first respond primarily to the emotional needs of the public with care and concern.” He urges leaders to do all they can to prevent crisis, and to consider crisis leadership an ongoing effort, part of the strategic planning efforts of the organization. Samuelson (1990), on the other hand, argues that this concept is nice, but many crises are unavoidable: “Crisis governance, though often not the best way of handling our affairs, is often the only way. We are now writing our future history. The right question to ask in not why we have crises but whether our leadership is good enough to handle the ones that we must inevitably confront.”

Anecdotal evidence of effective crisis leadership can be found in studying the presidency of George W. Bush. After September 11, 2001, Bush’s approval ratings jumped 35 points, and maintained this “rally boost” for a record-breaking eighteen months (Gregg, 2003). The president’s post-attack leadership can be broken down into four key elements (Gregg, 2003). First, the president projected reassurance. He made sure he was visible, calm, and in charge, bolstering the public’s view of their leader and giving them confidence that everything would be right again. Second, Bush reflected the public mind. The people were full of anger and sadness, and Bush let them know he was feeling the same thing. Third, the president instructed the public mind. He took the opportunity to educate the American people on who the enemy was, who the enemy was not, and how this war would be fought. Finally, Bush ministered to the nation’s wounds. He shared his religious faith openly in the days and months following September 11, and made it his business to be there with families, friends, and public servants as they put life back together (Gregg, 2003).

Charismatic Leadership

The link between fear, crisis, and leadership in the literature focuses around charismatic leadership. Much of the business literature cited above describes components of charismatic leadership, but without relating it directly to the theory. There is also a strong link between crisis and charismatic leadership through research, which will be explored below. First, it is important to define the concept of charismatic leadership.

One definition of charisma is “an inspired and divine gift.” The synonyms at the beginning of this paper point out the fact that charisma is often seen as something not quite comprehendible. Words such as “personal magic,” “allure,” and “mystical” are sometimes used to describe charisma. The leadership theory, then, is based on a leader’s ability to inspire followers, and capture their imagination (Nahavandi, 2003).

Charismatic leaders have a strong conviction about their ideas, and high self-confidence. They tend to have high energy and enthusiasm levels, and are expressive. They have excellent communication skills, and are good at building images their followers can experience and understand (Nahavandi, 2003). Examples of charismatic leaders include Martin Luther King, Bill Clinton, Adolf Hitler, and Gandhi. Their followers tend to have a strong affection for the leader, and great respect, loyalty and devotion. Followers also have high performance expectations for their charismatic leaders (Nahavandi, 2003).

Charismatic leadership has to do with more than just a leader and followers, however. It is most likely to occur in a specific environment, particularly one that has a sense of imminent crisis. Other elements related to the occurrence of charismatic leadership include a perceived need for change, an opportunity to articulate ideological goals, and the availability of dramatic symbols (Nehavandi, 2003).

Finally, it is important to note that, in the leadership literature, charismatic leadership is often used interchangeably with the term transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is actually a broader term that encompasses charisma as one of it's key elements (Nehavandi, 2003).

Crisis and Charismatic Leadership

Much of the literature related to charismatic leadership links it to crisis, primarily from the perspective that crisis is the environment that allows for the emergence of charismatic leadership (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). Little research has been conducted, however, to demonstrate this link. The basic concept can be summarized as follows: "People in crisis seek proxy control. They find it in their "savior," i.e., the leader to whom they attribute extraordinary abilities. Crises provide leaders with opportunities to take bold purposeful action, which is then interpreted by followers in charismatic terms and may increase their willingness to follow" (Pillai & Meindl, 1998).

Charismatic leadership can also be seen as a coping mechanism for followers faced with a crisis (or fear). The follower turns to a leader, who helps the follower improve performance and reduce anxiety anticipation, thus instilling loyalty and respect for the leader (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). The downside to this is if the crisis and ensuing stress persist, the leader may be evaluated poorly and attributions of charismatic leadership are likely to fade. In essence for a charismatic leader to maintain that attribute they must routinely solve crisis situations to the satisfaction of their followers (Pillai & Meindl, 1998).

A few research articles exist that attempt to link crisis and charismatic leadership empirically. Pillai and Meindl (1998) did a comprehensive survey including many elements, two of which were crisis and charismatic leadership. They found that crisis had a negative relationship with charismatic leadership in their survey, which asked followers to reflect back on a crisis and evaluate their leaders. Basically the more current stress and crisis a follower felt the lower their rating of their leader's charisma was. Pillai and Meindl (1998) did not see this as inconsistent with the possibility that crisis allowed for the emergence of charismatic leadership, but concluded that the persistence of the crisis would create dissatisfaction among followers who would therefore not rate their leaders as charismatic.

In a laboratory study Pillai (1996) had similar results. He simulated a crisis with a group of undergraduate students, and found that group members were more likely to base their evaluations of leader effectiveness on charismatic appeal in crisis situations than they were in noncrisis situations. He concluded that crises foster the emergence of charismatic leaders who are then perceived to be more effective than leaders who emerge in non-crisis situations.

Finally, House and Spangler (1991) studied 31 presidents in their first term of office. They argue that crises may present the president with an opportunity to take charismatic action and may lead subordinates to accept or demand charismatic action from the president. They define charisma as a relationship and not a personality characteristic. With this definition, charisma exists only if followers see the leader this way. Their extensive, historical study concluded that crises were significantly and positively related to behavioral charisma and to presidential performance.

"The attribution of charisma depends on the simultaneous interaction of the situation context (i.e., crisis), the characteristics of the followers (i.e., norms, values, culture), and the qualities exhibited by the leader. The charismatic bond may ultimately represent a manifestation of the need of followers during times of crisis for centralized authority" (Valle, 1999).

Conclusions

Fear is obviously a major component of our environment personally, professionally, and as a nation right now. If leaders intend to be effective, they will need to deal directly with this fear and help followers cope. The literature on coping with fear gives us a few clues as to how to deal with this. First and foremost, reducing anxiety expectancy through precautions and cognitive restructuring can be effective leadership techniques. John Engels states: "The most influential variable in regulating the anxiety of any work group is the presence of a clear-thinking leader. Leadership regulates the anxiety of any group – the family, a company, the nation" (Weiss, 2002).

The literature on crisis leadership gives us a few more clues. We should focus on strategic planning, caring for people first, leading from the front, and showing uncommon commitment. These concepts are also directly applicable to charismatic leadership. Good charismatic leaders bolster commitment in their followers through sharing a vision from the frontlines, making followers feel important and cared for, and being committed to their own vision and the organization. So, charismatic leadership emerges through crisis, and is also the most effective way to move through a crisis to the other side.

Implications and Recommendations

This literature review attempts to establish a link between fear, crisis, and charismatic leadership. Right now this link is tenuous at best, and requires further research to figure out exactly how the three fit together. To that end, future research needs to explore the relationship between crisis and charismatic leadership further, particularly how they each create the other. Research also needs to identify more specifically the skills of charismatic leadership and how leaders can incorporate these skills into their repertoire. Finally, some future research should focus more specifically on fear and leadership. How fear creates crisis would help link the topics, but specifically how followers who are fearful evaluate leadership differently would be interesting and helpful in the current times.

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STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF A COLLEGIATE ALL MALE PERSONAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT COURSE

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track: Research

Perceptions of male students enrolled in a single-gender personal leadership development course revealed that males were more relaxed and felt greater freedom to have honest and open class discussions. Likewise, they felt the lack of a female perspective in class discussions hampered them having a complete view of personal leadership.

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Student Perceptions of a Collegiate All Male Personal Leadership Development Course

Introduction

It has been debated and researched whether students placed in a single gender classroom learn better than students in a coeducational classroom. However, little research has been conducted to determine the perceptions of the students in these classrooms as to the learning that is occurring. Do they believe the experience was more or less beneficial to them as a learner? What are the positive and negative aspects of a single gender class as perceived by the learner? This study sought to determine the perceptions of male students enrolled in an all male personal leadership course. Specifically the study sought to determine if

Literature Review

Many studies have investigated the value of single gender classes for females (American Association of University Women, 1994; Canada & Pringle, 1995; Koppel, Cano, Heyman & Kimmel, 2003; Pollina, 1995), but few studies have focused on the outcomes of males in single-gender classes. The majority of studies found relating to single-gender classes focused on the secondary level.

Sharp (2000) found that high school students enrolled in single-gender classes tend to improve the academic performance of males; creates an environment that is less distracting to both genders; and is motivating to the students.

The National Association for Single Sex Public Education (n.d.) found that lower academically performing males enrolled in high school single-gender classes showed statistically significant improvement in their grades. In addition, this organization also found that all male classes allowed for better social development of males, as there was less pressure in males to take on a masculine role to prove themselves. In essence, males were more relaxed in single-gender classes.

An Australian study allowed ninth grade males to selectively place themselves in single-gender math and English classes in the middle of the year. The researchers found that while there was no significant difference in math scores of the single-gender classes, there was a significant increase in English scores for the single-gender classes (Mulholland, Hansen & Kaminski, 2004).

When single gender learning groups were studied in a college accounting class, males learned equally well in the single-gender and the coeducational groups, while females in single-gender groups showed greater learning than females in the coeducational group. In addition, females preferred to work in all female groups, while males reported no difference in between all male or coeducational groups (Debarthe, 1997).

Thorp, Cummins and Townsend (1998) found that women in an all female section of a collegiate leadership class had stronger self-perception of their ability to work with groups, lead others, make decisions, and understand themselves than did women enrolled in a coeducational section.

Taylor's 1998 study of males enrolled in a collegiate single gender leadership course revealed that no factor enhanced students' leader-centered attitude or group-centered attitude, although the male students' perception of their leadership skills was stronger after the conclusion of the leadership course. When students enrolled in the all male class were compared to students enrolled in the coeducational class, the study revealed that each group learned the same.

Although these studies focused on student academic success and attitude towards leadership, no studies could be found that documented male students' perceptions, towards being enrolled in a single-gender leadership class.

Methods

An instrument consisting of five open-ended qualitative questions and one quantitative question was developed by the researchers to determine the perceptions of male students in a single gender class. The instrument was analyzed for face validity by the researchers. Using the constant comparative method (Glazer & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), responses to the qualitative questions were sorted and grouped by common answers. The responses to the quantitative question were summated.

A purposive population was used for the study (*n*=26). The population consisted of male students who enrolled for a collegiate personal leadership skills course. Two sections of the personal leadership skills course were scheduled for the same hour and after enrollment one section was designated as an all-male section and one section was designated as an all-female section. This research is part of a larger study and only reflects the perceptions of the male students.

Findings

The first question asked was, "*How do you believe that learning about leadership in an all male verses a co-ed class has helped your leadership development?*" The majority of the responses (n=16) indicated that the atmosphere of the class was more "open" and that they felt freedom to express themselves more freely without the fear of offending women. The second most popular response (n=10) to this question was that the lack of females provided fewer distractions and therefore more opportunity for learning. Some of the answers were, "I paid more attention in class because I was not looking at pretty girls" and "I felt less distracted." The third most popular answer to this question (n=7) related to a commonality among their peers. Because the class was all male, students felt they could more easily relate to their peers.

Question number two asked, "*How do you believe that learning about leadership in an all male class versus a co-ed has hindered your leadership development?*" The most popular answer (n=11) was that without women the female perspective to leadership was missing. Answers such as, "You lost the insight into leadership that women can provide" were common. The second most popular response was that it the all male class made no difference (n=7). The third most frequent answer (n=4) was that the lack of women in class decreased the male's motivation to attend class, "Not having women here makes it harder to go to class."

The third question asked, *"Have you behaved differently as a student in an all male class? Please explain*." Nine students stated they were more relaxed in class and they were more inclined to "clown around" and "act immature." In addition, nine students stated that because there were no women to offend, they felt a greater freedom to respond honestly. Three students stated they didn't behave differently at all.

Question number four asked, "*Do you believe you would have learned more or less about leadership in a co-ed class? Why is this?*" Eight students stated they do not believe they learned any more or any less, "If you want to learn, you will learn in any given environment." Five students stated they would have learned more if females had been available to provide insight into the feminine leadership perspective. One student stated, "I believe a co-ed class would have been beneficial because in leadership we deal with both genders, not only males." The third most popular response (n=4) was they would have learned less in a co-ed class because of the distractions. "I believe I learned more since I have my mind on learning the material and not looking at the women in the classroom."

The final qualitative questions asked, "*If you have another opportunity to participate in a same gender leadership development class, would you do so? Why or why not?*" Most students said they would participate in a single-gender leadership class for a number of reasons: "I had a lot of fun in this format," and "I felt more comfortable." Likewise, eight students stated they would not enroll in a single-gender leadership course. "I just think co-ed is more beneficial," "In the world outside of college there is not segregated gender jobs, so I don't see class as productive." Four students were unsure.

For the quantitative question, students were asked to "*Rate your overall feeling regarding your experience in this class*" by choosing either "strongly disliked," "disliked," "liked," or "strongly liked" as a response. Sixteen students chose "liked," four students chose "strongly liked" and four chose "disliked." One student chose "strongly disliked."

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Although the male students enjoyed the freedom and relaxed atmosphere of a single gender class, they missed the perspective that female classmates bring to class discussions. Interestingly, the males readily admitted that it was easier for them to focus and pay attention in class without the visual distractions of women in the classroom. A possible compromise may to retain the single-gender format, but to bring in a panel of females so the feminine perspective of leadership topics can be shared with the males.

This study supports the findings of Sharp (2000) that single gender classes help more learning to occur because students are not distracted by the opposite sex. This study also supports the findings of National Association for Single Sex Public Education (n.d.) that males are more relaxed, which allows for greater learning, in a single-gender class.

The final two questions provided interesting responses. Although 20 students stated they either "liked" or "strongly liked" the experiences in the class, only 11 students stated they would participate in a single-gender leadership development class again. While at the same time, only five students "disliked" or "strongly disliked" their experience in the class, yet eight students stated they would not want to participate in a single-gender leadership development class in the future. Additional research should be conducted to more fully understand the apparent incongruence of these answers.

It is recommended that male students be provided the opportunity to enroll in a single-gender personal leadership development class. At the same time, an instructor should be obligated to provide multiple opportunities for women to enter into essential discussions in an all male class to provide the female perspective of personal leadership.

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FFA LEADERSHIP: DO ACTIVITIES NAVIGATE TOWARD FULL POTENTIAL?

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Presentation Track: Research

This study describes the perceptions rural youth have of leadership activities in FFA. Specifically, these perceptions focused on the role and context of leadership activities as they were described through a series of statements in a survey administered to 1202 Chapter members.

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Abstract

The target population was members of the National FFA organization. A multi-stage cluster sampling technique was used. The responding sample consisted of 36 out of 48 FFA chapters resulting in 1202 participants for a 75% responses rate. Dillman (2000) survey research procedures were followed. The instrument was a researcher-developed 64 item survey. Participants indicated their agreement using a four point Likert-type scale. With regard to role, respondents indicated that during participation in leadership activities they are most frequently treated as resources and partners but also as program recipients and objects. The context of leadership activities is least likely to be community-based. When youth are treated as partners, the partnership focused on developing self. Respondents tended to be white males, high school freshmen with one year in FFA. In addition, few held a chapter office (less than 25% were officers at the local level). Future research should include greater analysis youth's role and context of leadership activities specifically how it relates to educational level and years of experience in FFA.

Introduction

Over the past several decades, a number of studies have attempted to characterize the leadership skills and behaviors of various youth organizations. These studies have tended to examine either the degree to which youth have acquired particular leadership life skills or the level within the organization at which the members have participated in leadership activities. Little attention has been paid to either the conceptual role that the young person plays in the day-to-day functioning of society or the context in which the leadership behaviors are performed. Research has suggested that the most effective leadership develop programs engage young people in meaningful ways as they work as partners with adults in addressing real world situations.

Literature Review

Role of Youth in Society

Lofquist (1989) developed what he termed a "spectrum of attitudes" that adults may hold regarding the role of young people in society. The left side of his continuum (See Figure 1.) represents an attitude where young people are viewed as "objects," being told what to do because the adult "knows what's best" for the youth. As "recipients," young people participate in learning experiences that adults see as "being good for them." However, the real contributions of young people are seen as being deferred until some later date and learning experiences are seen as practice for later life. When youth are viewed as "resources", actions of young people have present value to the community and there is an attitude of respect focusing on building self-esteem and being productive. The Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development (2001) later added a characterization of youth as "partners" to Lofquist's original continuum. As partners, youth share leadership and decision-making roles with adults.

Figure 1. A Spectrum of Adult Attitudes toward Youth

Youth as Objects	Youth as Recipients	Youth as Resources	Youth as Partners

The view that adults take toward young people tends to shape the nature of the leadership programs they design. In some programs, leadership is taught through formal routines that emphasize command and compliance. The leader is "in charge" and followers are objects to be directed. In other programs, youth run club meetings and organize events as practice for more significant roles in the community later in life. In these instances youth are recipients of programs designed by well-meaning adults. When programs involve young people as resources, youth grow, gaining knowledge, skills and building self-esteem from their involvement in service learning activities such as food drives and community clean-up campaigns while performing needed functions within their community. More recently, youth have been engaged as full partners with adults in making decisions and taking actions aimed at producing sustainable and vibrant communities.

Context of Leadership Activity

Ayres (1987) identified four key developmental phases through which individuals engaged in a leadership curriculum should progress. (See Figure 2.) First individuals must develop an expanded knowledge of self, that is, who they are, what they believe, and how they function. Next they move toward mastering skills necessary to work effectively with others. In the next phase, individuals refine their skills working with groups or organizations. The final phase focuses on leadership within the context of communities, systems, and society. As the arena in which leadership is being practiced continues to broaden, individuals must use knowledge and skills learned at previous levels to be effective in the new context.

Figure 2. Context of Leadership Activity

Self	Interpersonal	Groups and Organizations	Community and Society

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

Purpose and Research Objectives

The overall purpose of this study is to describe and map the leadership activities and adult-youth interactions of rural students who are current members of the National FFA Organization.

Specific objectives of the study include:

1) Describe the context in which leadership activities are performed.
2) Describe the role of youth in those activities.
3) Plot the intersection of role and context.
4) Examine demographics of FFA members.

Methods

The target population for this descriptive study was members of the National FFA Organization. Specially, rural youth were identified. For the purposes of this study, "rural schools" was defined as those serving a geographic region containing no city or town larger than ten thousand residents. Multi-stage cluster sampling technique was implemented to draw a representative sample of active FFA members from across the United States. In the first stage, three states were randomly selected from each of the four National FFA regions for a total of twelve states. In the second stage of the sampling procedure, state FFA Advisors randomly selected four schools, each containing a FFA chapter which serves rural areas. Of these 48 schools, a total of 36 FFA chapters (75%) responded, resulting in 1202 FFA members (N=1202) completing surveys.

Development of Instrument

A researcher developed instrument was created for the purpose of collecting data regarding youth participation in leadership activities. The context of youth activities were identified by developing statements which reflect the potential roles FFA members engage in as they develop leadership skills moving from personal development to interpersonal development to organizational and group development to ultimately engaging in community and societal leadership (Ayers, 1987).

Roles of youth in adult-youth relationships through leadership activities were also examined. Questions were developed which reflected the role in which FFA members were engaged through leadership activities which viewed them as objects, recipients, resources, and/or partners (Lofquist, 1989).

Researchers created a matrix integrating the context of leadership development in relationship to the roles of youth in the leadership activities conducted by FFA chapters. Four questions were developed for each cell of the matrix. A total of sixty-four questions were developed in this instrument, corresponding to the sixteen quadrants of the role-context matrix (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Role-Context Matrix Explaining Cell Alignment

Context of Activity

Community	13	14	15	16
Groups	9	10	11	12
Others	5	6	7	8
Self	1	2	3	4
	Objects	Recipients	Resources	Partners

Role of Young People

Each question began with the statement, “In my FFA Chapter…” and through responses FFA members measured their current state of leadership activities. Responses were measured using a four point Likert-type scale. The points on the scale were: “1” = “Strongly Disagree”, “2” = “Disagree”, “3” = “Agree”, “4” = “Strongly Agree”.

For example, a cell 1 statement representing Self and Objects was “In my FFA Chapter….New members must participate in initiation activities.” In contrast, cell 16 represents Community and Partners. A specific statement in this cell read “In my FFA Chapter…Members work side by side with local citizens in planning, conducting and evaluating meaningful community projects.” Four statements were developed for each cell in the role-context matrix describing FFA leadership activities in the paired levels in the role-context matrix.

Validity and reliability of this instrument was established. Content and face validity of the instrument was established using a panel of experts. These experts were in the field of leadership development, current agricultural education teachers serving on the National Association of Agricultural Educators (NAAE) Board of Directors, Extension staff, agricultural education pre-service teachers, and former FFA members. The instrument was pilot tested with high school FFA members not included in the random sample. Reliability was established using Chronbach’s Alpha and was reported for each construct. Scores included: Objects ($\forall$=71), Recipients (α=.85). Resources (α=.88), Partners (α=.86), Self (α=.72), Interpersonal (α=.88), Groups (α=.88), and Community (α=.88).

After receiving approval from the Human Subjects Review Board, researchers received a waiver of consent. Permission was granted by the FFA advisor and school administrator for their students to participate in the study. Dillman (2000) research design method was incorporated; therefore 48 FFA chapter advisors were notified of the opportunity to participate prior to the first mailing. Follow-up contacts were made with non-respondent FFA chapters. Ultimately, 36 FFA chapters agreed to participate in the study, leading to a response rate of 75%. Survey instruments were mailed to the chapter advisors. Each advisor administered the survey instrument to all FFA members in their chapter. Researchers received 1202 completed survey instruments. Research data were analyzed using SPSS 10.0. Descriptive statistics of frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were given for each objective.

Findings

The first objective described the context (Self, Others, Groups, Community) in which leadership activities are performed (Table 1). FFA members viewed leadership activities focusing on personal development (self) as the greatest (M=3.01) context in which leadership activities are performed. Members viewed activities resulting in interpersonal (others) development (M=2.92) as the second highest. Leadership activities resulting in skills related to group development (M=2.90) followed. Community/Society Development leadership activities were perceived as area of least involvement (M=2.88).

Table 1

Context in which Leadership Activities are Performed

	M	SD
Self	3.01	.520
Others	2.92	.530
Groups	2.90	.528
Community	2.88	.599

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

The second objective described the role of youth (Objects, Recipients, Resources, Partners) in leadership activities (Table 2). FFA members viewed themselves as partners (M=2.99) to a greater degree than any of the other roles. However, following very closely, youth saw their role as resources (M=2.97) in leadership activities. FFA members viewed their role in leadership activities as recipients (M=2.88) and objects (M=2.87) less than they viewed their role as partners and resources.

Table 2

Describe the Role of Youth in Leadership Activities

	M	SD
Objects	2.87	.515
Recipients	2.88	.507
Resources	2.97	.534
Partners	2.99	.548

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

The third objective was to analyze the intersection of role and context to the leadership activities. Figure 4 shows how FFA members perceived their role in leadership activities related to the context (Self, Others, Groups, Communities). When members responded to survey statements regarding the role and context of their leadership involvement, they indicated the greatest agreement in the cell relating to involvement as a partner and understanding self as a leader (M=3.07) (Self and Partners role-context). Youth perceived their role and context as resources and self (M=3.03) and recipients and self (M=3.03) equally. This indicates that in the resources and self role-context matrix, members viewed activities which focused on personal development (self) in the context of being resources or recipients. Members responded they had the least agreement with statements indicating their role was objects in the context of group development (M=2.79).

Figure 4. Matrix Showing Intersection of Role and Context

Context of Activity

Community	2.82	2.85	2.95	2.91
Groups	2.97	2.84	3.01	2.99
Others	2.93	2.80	2.90	3.01
Self	2.94	3.03	3.03	3.07
	Objects	Recipients	Resources	Partners

Role of Young People

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

FFA members responded to statements which identified the relationship between the roles of youth in leadership activities within the leadership context (Table 3). Means and standard deviations were expressed for each group of statements in the role-context matrix. The standard deviations showing the greatest variance were all related to the context of leadership in the community (SD=7.12, SD=6.96, SD=6.94). The standard deviations showing the least variance was in the context of groups (SD=5.98). However, the next four cells with the lowest variance was in the context of developing self (SD=6.05, SD=6.11, SD=6.22, SD=6.22). It should be noted this is consistent with the mean scores for self as reported in Figure 4.

Table 3

Means of Role and Context

	M	SD
Objects and Self	2.94	.611
Objects and Others	2.93	.647
Objects and Groups	2.79	.666
Objects and Community	2.82	.694
Recipients and Self	3.03	.622
Recipients and Others	2.80	.679
Recipients and Groups	2.84	.598
Recipients and Community	2.85	.712
Resources and Self	3.03	.622
Resources and Others	2.90	.647
Resources and Groups	3.01	.648
Resources and Community	2.95	.666
Partners and Self	3.07	.605
Partners and Others	3.01	.664
Partners and Groups	2.99	.670
Partners and Community	2.91	.696

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

The final objective focused on the personal characteristics of rural FFA members (Table 4). Over half of the respondents were male (53.08%). Of those who reported ethnicity, over two-thirds (78.20%) were white. Almost five percent (4.74%) were black, and the same amount (4.74%) reported their ethnicity as Hispanic. Approximately two percent were Asian (2.25%) and 2.75% of the respondents indicated their ethnicity as other.

In terms of level of education, nearly one-third of FFA members were high school freshman (29.95%). Approximately one-fourth of the respondents were sophomores (24.63%), 18.97% were juniors, 15.64% reported being seniors, and 7.65% of the respondents were in Middle School.

Almost 4 out of 10 members (39.43%) were first year members of FFA, and 21.55% were second year members. Fifteen percent have been members for three years (15.81%), over one-tenth (11.23%) have been members for 4 years, and 3.99% have been FFA members for 5 years. Finally, 4.33% of the respondents reported being an FFA member for six years.

In terms of leadership positions in the FFA, only 23.13% of the respondents reported serving as a chapter officer, while almost three-fourths (74.29%) have not held an office in their FFA chapter.

Table 5

Personal Characteristics of Rural FFA Members

	Frequency	*Percentage*
Gender		
Male	638	53.08
Female	525	43.68
Ethnicity		
White, Non-Hispanic	940	78.20
Black, Non-Hispanic	57	4.74
Hispanic	57	4.74
Asian	27	2.25
Other	33	2.75
Grade in School		
Middle School	92	7.65
Freshman	360	29.95
Sophomore	296	24.63
Junior	228	18.97
Senior	188	15.64
Years in FFA		
1	474	39.43
2	259	21.55
3	190	15.81
4	135	11.23
5	48	3.99
6	52	4.33
Chapter Officer		
Yes	278	23.13
No	893	74.29

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Conclusions

Respondents indicate that through their leadership activities they are able to move through various leadership roles. These roles ranged from leadership as objects (participating because it is good for them) to being resources and partners in leadership roles which help them develop as individuals (self). FFA members believe that in all roles, objects, recipients, resources and partners, they have the least experience as it relates to community.

When examining the role of youth through leadership activities, respondents indicated the strongest agreement in being treated as partners. However, their partnership focused on developing self. As we looked at developing leadership knowledge and skills moving from self to interpersonal development (others) to group development and ultimately to community/society development, the means decreased at each level. This indicates less opportunity for involvement in leadership activities focusing on developing skills at a higher level.

Respondents tended to be white males, high school freshmen with one year in FFA. In addition, few held a chapter office (less than 25% were officers at the local level).

Implications

There was not a strong agreement with any statement describing the roles and context of leadership activities. Thus, this lack of agreement implies there is a great variance in the way respondents viewed their chapter leadership activities.

Participants in FFA chapters recognize the focus on their own personal development in leadership activities. However results from this study imply these youth have not been given the opportunity for community and group development. Because of the educational level and years of experience in FFA indicated by the demographic data, researchers can not conclude chapters are not developing the higher level of leadership skills in context of groups and community.

Recommendations

It is recommended FFA chapters continue to organize activities around the conceptual framework identified in this study. Ultimately, FFA chapters should design activities to engage youth as objects, recipients, resources, and partners in an age-appropriate manner. Similarly leadership development activities should help young people gain skills that help them better understand self, interact with others, function effectively in groups, and provide leadership within the community. Currently, FFA is less likely to teach leadership in real community contexts.

However, the benefits of engaging young people as partners in addressing real community issues and concerns are increasingly well documented. When young people exercise leadership in real community contexts, their activities have more meaning and young people feel a stronger bond to the community in which they live. Furthermore, when leadership development activities have real consequences, they are not seen as just practice for future community roles. Community-based leadership experiences include service learning, action research, youth organizing, and serving on community boards.

Further study should examine the role and context of leadership development through FFA activities with upper classmen and experienced FFA leaders. Further analysis of data should compare years in FFA and leadership experiences in FFA by geographic regions.

Future plans include replication of this study including focus group interviews with chapter leaders to further define and clarify the degree of involvement in their roles and the context of the activities. This will provide qualitative data to further explore implications to this study. In future studies, scenarios which describe leadership situations comparing the context and roles will be incorporated. Ranking of these scenarios will provide additional validation to the FFA member's leadership activities at the chapter level as they relate to role and context.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS OF SELECTED YOUTH LEADERS IN THE NATIONAL FFA ORGANIZATION.

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
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Presentation – Research

The purpose of this correlational study was to explain the relationship between discipline specific critical thinking skills and leadership training and experiences of selected youth leaders. Researcher-developed measures of critical thinking skills and leadership were used to discover low, but positive relationships between critical thinking skills and leadership.

John C. Ricketts is an assistant professor at The University of Georgia where he teaches and advises future agriculture teachers. He is a graduate of the University of Florida (PhD) and Middle Tennessee State University (MS, BS), and a former high school teacher and football coach. He has taught courses on leadership development at the secondary and post-secondary level. Currently he teaches the course, *Utilizing the Science of Leadership for Collegiate, Professional, and Personal Enrichment* through the Franklin College of Arts and Sciences and the Honors Program at The University of Georgia. Throughout John's career he has tried to instill important life skills in his students, specifically the life skills of critical thinking and leadership development. Consequently, John's research foci are in these important areas.

Introduction

Leadership development is crucial for youth on the verge of becoming productive citizens, but one of the key competencies of leadership development is the ability of those youth to make sound decisions and judgments, which incorporate critical thinking (Ricketts & Rudd, 2003). How valid is this claim? Is critical thinking related to leadership development, leadership education, or leadership status? These are the questions this study attempts to address.

Literature Review

Youth Leadership Development

Studies that address leadership and youth specifically, while incorporating some measure of critical thinking in their conceptualization of leadership development were limited. DesMaria, Yang, and Farzenhkia (2000) indicated certain elements that were necessary in the development of youth leadership. They listed the critical elements as

- Youth/adult partnerships
- Granting young people decision making power and responsibility for consequences
- A broad context for learning and service, and
- Recognition of young people's experience, knowledge and skills (p. 3).

VanLinden and Fertman (1998) believed, "Leaders are people who think for themselves, communicate their thoughts and feelings, and help others understand and act on their own beliefs; they influence others in an ethical and socially responsible way."

Ricketts and Rudd (2003) developed the *Model of Youth Leadership Development*. Based on the research of Fertman and Long (1990); Fertman and Chubb (1993); Wald and Pringle (1995); and Long, Wald, and Graff (1996); their model demonstrated a way of fostering leadership in youth in career and technical education programs, such as agricultural education, general secondary education curricula, agricultural extension programs, and even post secondary undergraduate study of leadership. Five constructs are detailed in the Ricketts and Rudd (2003) model, but the construct pertaining to decision-making, reasoning, and critical thinking skills is germane to this study.

Decision-making, reasoning, and critical thinking skills as principal components of leadership development (Ricketts & Rudd, 2003) were evaluated in this study. Research linking critical thinking and leadership development was limited in the youth leadership education literature. Findings of this study will provide immediate and direct benefits to the leadership education discipline if critical thinking is a factor of leadership development.

Critical Thinking

Richard Paul (1995) defined critical thinking as "A unique and purposeful thinking in which the thinker systematically and habitually imposes criteria and intellectual standards upon the thinking, taking charge of the construction of thinking, guiding the construction of the thinking according to [critical thinking] standards, and assessing the effectiveness of the thinking according to the purpose, criteria, and the standards [of thinking] (p. 21). Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) provide the description of critical thinking guiding this study. They determined that "Critical thinking is a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information and for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (p. 5).

Peter Facione (1990), who conducted a national Delphi study of experts to define critical thinking, came up with the following definition: "We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgment, which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based" (p.2).

Following the lead of Facione (2000), three critical thinking skills, Analysis, Evaluation, and Inference were the skills measured in this study. These skills were selected to represent critical thinking skill because of their orientation to objective measurement; their indicativeness of all critical thinking skills; and because subsequent studies have been conducted to validate their usage (Facione, 1990; Jones, et al., 1994).

For example, a student competent in the critical thinking skill of Analysis can effectively identify the relationship between statements, questions, concepts or descriptions to express beliefs, judgments or reasons. Students excelling at Inference consistently demonstrate the ability to draw reasonable conclusions and/or hypotheses based on facts, judgments, beliefs, principles, concepts or other forms of representation. Finally, students competent in the skill of Evaluation can effectively assess the credibility of statements and representations of others, and are proficient at assessing the logical strength of statements, descriptions or questions (Facione, 1998).

Relationship Between Leadership and Critical Thinking

Rollins (1990) conducted a study to determine the critical thinking of high school students in Iowa, and found that leadership positions held accounted a percentage of the variance. Another study that may have indicated the value of leadership for explaining critical thinking skills was done by Duchesne (1996). He studied (n=119) organizational leaders. The only significant predictor of critical thinking in the leaders was the years of education and developmental leadership learning experiences.

Leadership training is the variable representing the amount of formal leadership training participants received. Empirical research making the connection between critical thinking skills and leadership training did not exist. Sources dealing with the contextual nature of critical thinking may give credence to formal leadership instruction (Ennis 1989; Kintsch 1994; Anderson, Howe et al., 2001), but Garcia and Pintrich (1992) conducted the only known study to identify correlations between critical thinking and leadership. They specifically looked at the relationship to motivation, learning strategies, and classroom experiences. College students (n=758) in 12 different classrooms in three different universities were studied. Intrinsic goals and critical thinking were positively related.

Methods

Purpose and Objectives

The primary purpose of this correlational study was to explain the relationship between discipline specific critical thinking skills and leadership training and experiences of selected youth leaders in the National FFA Organization. To accomplish these purposes the following research objectives were used to guide this study:

- Determine the relationship between level of leadership training and critical thinking skills in selected youth leaders in the National FFA Organization.

- Determine the relationship between leadership experiences and critical thinking skills in selected youth leaders in the National FFA Organization.

- Determine the relationship between total leadership score and critical thinking skills in selected youth leaders in the National FFA Organization.

Procedures

Since the purpose of this study was to explain the relationship between critical thinking skills and leadership training and experiences, the research design was correlational. The target population for the study consisted of the 2002 National FFA Convention delegates specifically selected because of their leadership record in the FFA organization. A pilot test of the researcher-developed critical thinking skills test was administered to 33 subjects at the Florida State FFA Convention. The pilot samples were purposively selected because of their similarity to the target population.

The researcher-developed critical thinking skills test measured the discipline-specific skills of Analysis, Inference, and Evaluation (Facione, 1990). Prior to pilot testing, a panel of experts in critical thinking and leadership education checked the multiple-choice skills test for content and face validity. After pilot testing and item analysis, Cronbach's alpha for each critical thinking sub-skill was 0.83 for Analysis, 0.66 for Inference, and 0.63 for Evaluation. These reliability ratings were deemed appropriate since Norris and Ennis (1989) recommended reliability ratings of 0.65 and 0.75 for any instrument testing a variety of critical thinking aspects.

To collect data for the leadership variables, a researcher-developed instrument was used to determine leadership training score, leadership experience score, and total leadership score. To measure leadership, participants were asked to write the number of times they had participated in a given list of leadership activities that are available in the FFA.

The list of items and the responses were classified as either formal leadership training (i.e., leadership workshops, leadership conferences, or formal leadership courses) or as leadership experiences (i.e., public speaking, livestock judging, state FFA convention). The responses were also weighted. Local activities were given a value of one point, District or Area activities were given a value of two, Regional activities were given a value of three, State activities were given a value of four, and National and International activities were given a value of five. A formal leadership development course was also given a value of 5. The self-reported activities were added together to create leadership training and experience scores.

Survey implementation followed Dillman's (2000) system of five compatible contacts. The instrument was initially available online. A paper copy of the instrumentation was sent to non-respondents. There were 229 responses from a population frame of 462 possible participants for a response rate of 50%. Twenty-seven of those respondents were removed from the database because of missing or erroneous data, which left (N = 202) usable responses. To account for non-response, early respondents were compared to late respondents (Miller & Smith, 1983), and no significant differences were found.

Data were analyzed using the SPSS® for Windows™ statistical package. Pearson's product moment (*r*) statistics were conducted to identify the magnitude of relationship of critical thinking skills to the other variables in the study. The Coefficient of Determination (R^2) was used as an index of the proportion of variance in critical thinking skills explained by the independent variables.

Findings

Critical thinking skill scores ranged from a low score of 67.86 to a maximum score of 300. The mean total critical thinking skill score was M = 227.86, SD = 37.91. The scores for Analysis ranged from a low of 25 to the highest possible score of 100. Inference scores ranged from 0 to 100, and Evaluation scores ranged from 14.29 to 100. The highest scores were recorded for the Analysis (M =82.17, SD =15.12) construct. All of the skill scores were above 70 for the possible range of 0 to 100. Students also scored in the upper range of scores for the Inference (M =73.40, SD =20.74) and Evaluation (M =71.50, SD =17.70) skills.

Objective 1 - Relationship between level of leadership training and critical thinking skills

Leadership training scores ranged from zero to 64, with an average score of M = 17.11, SD = 9.84. Table 1 displays critical thinking skill scores at six different levels of leadership training.

Table 1.
Mean critical thinking skill score by leadership training (N = 210)

Leadership Training Score	n	Analysis M	Analysis SD
0-9	42	81.25	13.87
10-19	98	82.36	15.10
20-29	49	84.18	17.45
30-39	15	83.33	12.20
40-49	3	91.67	14.43
50+	3	95.83	7.22
Leadership Training Score	n	Inference M	Inference SD
0-9	42	76.19	20.36
10-19	98	72.65	20.98
20-29	49	71.02	21.63
30-39	15	70.67	19.81
40-49	3	80.00	.00
50+	3	93.33	11.55
Leadership Training Score	n	Evaluation M	Evaluation SD
0-9	42	72.45	15.18
10-19	98	68.66	18.75
20-29	49	73.47	16.50
30-39	15	76.19	18.44
40-49	3	90.48	16.50
50+	3	76.19	8.25
Leadership Training Score	n	Total CT Skill M	Total CT Skill SD
0-9	42	229.89	34.40
10-19	98	223.67	38.12
20-29	49	228.67	41.39
30-39	15	230.19	34.58
40-49	3	262.15	30.93
50+	3	265.36	6.26

Note: Leadership training scores ranged from zero to 64.

According to Miller (1998), a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of 0.01 - 0.09 represents a negligible relationship; 0.10 - 0.29 represents a low relationship; and 0.30 to 0.49 represents a moderate relationship. Using Miller's terminology for magnitude of the relationship, there was a low relationship between leadership training score and each subskill and the total critical thinking skill score. However, the relationship was positive. Table 1 depicted a trend of higher critical thinking scores for higher levels of leadership training. Table 2 indicates that this low and positive relationship with leadership training is significant for Evaluation, $r(209) = 0.14$, $p<0.05$, $R^2 =0.02$ and total critical thinking skill score, $r(209) = .15$, $p<0.05$, $R^2 = 0.02$, explaining only two percent of the variance for each respective variable. The positive relationship was approaching significance with Analysis, $r(209) = 0.14$, $p>0.05$, and not significantly related to Inference, $r(209) = 0.06$, $p>0.05$. R^2 was reported for the statistically significant relationships because Miller (1998) claimed it was necessary for determining practical significance.

Table 2.

Pearson product moment correlation between critical thinking skills and leadership training score (N = 210)

Skill	r	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Analysis	0.14	209	0.06
Inference	0.06	209	0.41
Evaluation	0.14	209	0.04
Total critical thinking	0.15	209	0.03

Objective 2 - Relationship between leadership experiences and critical thinking skills

Leadership experience scores ranged from four to 87, with an average score of $M = 31.25$, $SD = 12.81$. According to Table 3, the total critical thinking skill scores improved from $M = 206.28$, $SD = 29.56$ at the lowest level of leadership experience to $M = 241.01$, $SD = 42.98$ at the highest level of leadership experience.

There was also a low relationship between leadership experience score and critical thinking skills. However, the relationship was positive. Table 3 depicted a trend of higher critical thinking scores for higher levels of leadership experience. Table 4 shows that this relationship is significant for Analysis, $r(209) =0 .14$, $p>0.05$, $R^2 =0.02$ and total critical thinking skill score $r(209) = 0.16$, $p<0.05$, $R^2 = 0.03$, explaining two percent and three percent of the respective variance in each critical thinking variable. The relationship was positive, but insignificant for Inference, $r(209) = 0.11$, $p>0.05$, and Evaluation, $r(209) = 0.08$, $p>0.05$, when alpha was set at 0.05.

Objective 3 - Relationship between total leadership score and critical thinking skills

Total leadership scores ranged from four to 111 with an average score of $M = 48.36$, $SD = 18.03$. Table 5 also shows an increase in critical thinking skill scores with increases in total leadership score. The lowest total critical thinking skill scores ($M = 220.19$, $SD = 34.80$) were at the 25-34 leadership score level. The highest critical thinking skill scores ($M = 240.15$, $SD = 34.60$) were at the 75+ leadership score level.

Table 3.
Mean critical thinking skill score by leadership experience (N = 210)

Leadership Experience Score	n	Analysis M	Analysis SD
0-9	4	84.38	6.25
10-19	23	76.55	11.43
20-29	81	81.92	17.67
30-39	62	84.07	13.42
40-49	24	86.98	13.02
50+	16	86.72	15.46
Leadership Experience Score	n	Inference M	Inference SD
0-9	4	60.00	23.09
10-19	23	71.30	22.42
20-29	81	70.37	23.90
30-39	62	76.77	17.06
40-49	24	75.00	16.94
50+	16	77.50	17.70
Leadership Experience Score	n	Evaluation M	Evaluation SD
0-9	4	61.91	12.90
10-19	23	67.50	13.05
20-29	81	71.96	18.52
30-39	62	71.66	17.45
40-49	24	71.43	15.19
50+	16	76.79	22.66
Leadership Experience Score	n	Total CT Skill M	Total CT Skill SD
0-9	4	206.28	29.56
10-19	23	215.35	36.24
20-29	81	224.25	42.06
30-39	62	232.51	33.10
40-49	24	233.41	30.40
50+	16	241.00	42.98

Note: Leadership experience scores ranged from four to 87.

Table 4.
Pearson product moment correlation between critical thinking skills and leadership experience score (N = 210)

Skill	r	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Analysis	0.14	209	0.05
Inference	0.11	209	0.10
Evaluation	0.08	209	0.23
Total critical thinking	0.16	209	0.03

There was a low relationship between total leadership score and critical thinking skills. However, the relationship was again positive. According to Table 6, this relationship was significant for Analysis, $r(209) = 0.17$, $p< 0.05$, $R^2 = .03$ explaining three percent of the variance; for Evaluation, $r(209) = 0.14$, $p< 0.05$, $R^2 = .02$, explaining two percent of the variance; and for total critical thinking skill score $r(209) = 0.19$, $p< 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.04$, explaining four percent of the variance. This positive relationship was not statistically significant for Inference, $r(209) = 0.11$, $p> 0.05$ when alpha was set at 0.05.

Table 5.
Mean critical thinking skill score by total leadership score (N = 210)

Total Leadership Score	n	Analysis M	Analysis SD
0-24	18	80.46	13.66
25-34	21	83.93	11.28
35-49	86	79.49	17.87
50-74	70	86.61	12.65
75+	14	87.50	12.01
Total Leadership Score	n	Inference M	Inference SD
0-24	18	72.22	25.80
25-34	21	68.71	22.43
35-49	86	71.86	21.56
50-74	70	76.00	18.84
75+	14	77.14	15.41
Total Leadership Score	n	Evaluation M	Evaluation SD
0-24	18	70.24	12.71
25-34	21	67.69	13.85
35-49	86	70.10	19.18
50-74	70	73.67	16.43
75+	14	75.51	22.71
Total Leadership Score	n	Total CT Skill M	Total CT Skill SD
0-24	18	222.92	38.32
25-34	21	220.19	34.80
35-49	86	221.45	40.47
50-74	70	236.28	34.87
75+	14	240.15	34.60

Note: Total Leadership scores ranged from four to 110.

Table 6.
Pearson product moment correlation between critical thinking skills and leadership training score (N = 210)

Skill	r	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Analysis	0.17	209	0.02
Inference	0.11	209	0.11
Evaluation	0.14	209	0.05
Total critical thinking	0.19	209	0.01

Conclusions/Implications

Though the positive relationship was only statistically significant for total critical thinking skill score and Evaluation, each subskill seemed to increase with increases in each level of leadership training. This relationship could be attributed to the content of the leadership training workshops, seminars, and courses, which participants listed as contributory to their leadership development. For example, topics such as conflict resolution, problem-solving, and inter-personal communication are usually laced with scenario-based educational activities that develop a leader's ability to evaluate circumstances and make critical decisions.

The relationship between leadership training and critical thinking is a new finding in leadership and critical thinking studies as only one other piece of research, conducted at the University of Connecticut (Duchesne, 1996) made the connection between leadership training and critical thinking. This connection between leadership and critical thinking is natural, and one that is necessary. It is necessary because leaders who do not use critical thinking as they make decisions that affect and influence others are dangerous (Facione, Facione, and Giancarlo, 1998). Facione, Facione, and Giancarlo list several ways that we can protect ourselves from leaders who lack the willingness or the ability to make good judgment, but the most important way cited was simply, educating persons to think.

Activities classified as leadership experience involved competitive events, experiences as an officer, experiences with committee membership, or other activities in the FFA or some other organization that was not a formal leadership training experience. Although gains in critical thinking are not as pronounced for the leadership experience variable, an examination of the total critical thinking scores clearly demonstrates a slight rise in critical thinking skill scores at each increase in leadership experience. This low, but positive relationship was significant for Analysis and total critical thinking skill score.

It is possible that the more leadership experiences students are exposed to, the more their mind, and the skill it has for critical thought improves. Participation in contests seemed to be a determining factor of the leadership experience variable. The competition could be the reason for improved critical thinking. The Analysis and quick thinking those contests require could also foster critical thinking. Additionally, the leadership experience of being an FFA officer may have contributed to the leadership experience variable. One could reason that the officer experience contributes to the relationship between total critical thinking and Analysis. One reason for the significant relationship between Analysis and critical thinking could be the nature of the Analysis critical thinking construct. According to Facione (1990), Analysis involves examining ideas; identifying arguments; and analyzing arguments. Presumably, FFA officers and contest participants are engaging in analysis types of activities as part of their responsibilities to the FFA members or competitive team.

Lastly, the high level of motivation this group of students exhibited, may be the reason that leadership and critical thinking are related (Garcia & Pintrich, 1992). Recall that Garcia and Pinctrich conducted a study to identify correlations between critical thinking and motivation, learning strategies, and classroom experiences. Their study supported the positive relationship between critical thinking and motivation. The students in this study should be highly motivated and therefore, according to Garcia and Pintrich (1992) competent at critical thinking as well.

Recommendations

The finding that critical thinking is related to leadership training may be important for teacher educators and leaders responsible for curriculum development. Youth need to be exposed to formal teaching and training in leadership development that directly and indirectly affect their ability to make fair, informed, judicious, and critically thought out decisions.

If the National FFA Organization believes effective leaders in their organization should "think critically, think creatively, practice sound decision-making, be problem solvers, commit to life long learning, articulate opinions to persuade others, practice sound study skills, and maximize mental assets and compensate for mental limitations," as a report by the National FFA Task Force on Leadership and Personal Success (2002) suggests, then a greater effort should be put forth to substantiate the relationship between leadership education and critical thinking. A concerted effort to teach critical thinking in leadership training could yield greater impacts on critical thinking skills.

Because of the relationship between leadership experience and critical thinking, leadership educators should begin to foster critical thinking by encouraging students to be more active and to participate in more activities that have been proven to develop leadership (Ricketts, 1982; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). These activities could include competitive events and participation as a leader within student organizations.

Educators should continue to foster, reward, and expect students to be highly motivated individuals. This motivation may translate into a competent critical thinker who can make sound decisions for the benefit of leading in any setting.

Lastly, additional research should be conducted to gain a better understanding of the relationship between leadership and critical thinking. This future research should include more quantitative, empirical, and reliable measures of leadership than the methods used in this study, and should investigate the impact of training leaders in critical thinking.

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EXTENSION, OUTREACH, KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER, TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER: WHAT IS IT THAT WE DO — OFFICIALLY?

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Presentation Track: Research

This study traces the history of the third mission of higher education from *service* to *engagement* and examines 19 university strategic plans to ascertain the extent to which the original programs for *extension* and *outreach* and their subsequent terms are still present in contemporary official policy documents.

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Extension, Outreach, Knowledge Transfer, Technology Transfer: What Is It That We Do – Officially?

Introduction

Higher education institutions widely agree that they have three fundamental missions. In traditional terminology, they are *teaching*, *research*, and *service*. More recent expressions are *learning*, *discovery*, and *engagement*. Although the first two missions are relatively well defined and understood, the third mission has many expressions: *outreach, service, lifelong learning, partnerships, economic development, etc*. In a larger study, the author developed a four-category framework and studied university strategic plans to better understand the official policy standing of the third mission. This study goes on to examine in more detail Category One of the framework, the original intention of the third mission. At first termed *extension* and *outreach*, these efforts expanded to include variations of terms like *knowledge transfer, technology application*, and *workforce development*. This study ascertains the extent to which this traditional segment of the third mission of higher education is represented in contemporary strategic plans and how it is officially defined.

Literature Review

The third mission of higher education began as service to community in the 1800s, veered toward research in the mid 1950s, then merged with a new form of service in the late 20th century emphasizing partnerships or two-way relationships between institutions and society.

When America was a collection of colonies, higher education consisted of seminaries to prepare religious leaders and liberal arts colleges to prepare the wealthy to become the leaders of society (Bringle, Games, & Malloy, 1999). As the 1800s unfolded, higher education’s endeavors escalated to speed the building of the nation. A political entity, the government through its legislative powers, changed higher education tremendously from religious and liberal education for the few and the elite to practical arts for the masses. Key (1996) carefully traced the changing public policy position regarding the government's disposal of public lands – either directly through sale of land or indirectly through donations for public purposes such as canals, railroads, and land-grant colleges – to bring about economic expansion and thus more federal revenue. This argument was compelling that acquiring revenue for the young federal government was the motivation for establishing the land-grant institutions by passing the Morrill Act of 1862, not educational value. In order to accomplish this political purpose, many people needed to be educated in agricultural and practical arts. The Morrill Act encouraged prosperity so that the government could raise more revenue to pay war debts and expand. Education was the means; revenue was the end.

The Morrill Act created the land-grant institutions to assist with the agricultural, mechanical, and technological changes affecting America, establishing the mission of public service. (Boyer, 1997; Thompson & Lamble, 2000). At the time, a majority of Americans were engaged in agricultural work. To build agriculture was to build America. The shift in philosophy was great, conveying much more of a craft view of scholarship and teaching than an expert one (Boyte, 2000). As the country recovered from the Civil War, 67 land-grant institutions emerged (Bender & Schorske, 1998), producing knowledge critical to the development of the country, expanding to include technical and engineering areas as the industrial age developed. Higher education was meeting the significant needs of the public (Singleton, Hirsch, & Burack, 1999). The Hatch Act of 1887 created the agricultural experiment stations as part of the land-grant mission, further connecting the common man and woman with the services of higher education (Thompson and Lamble). Academic institutions and the nation flourished as mass communication and transportation and the development of electricity and steam power transformed the country. Needs for developing technology and transferring the new skills to an ever-eager public were immense.

The support for the land-grant service mission continued in prominence with the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, which gave permanent funding for the Cooperative Extension Service through the land-grant colleges for the purpose of distributing the results of research to the public (Thompson & Lamble, 2000). *Extension* was “the provision of learning opportunities to people who were unable, or unwilling, to attend and participate in the regular programs of universities . . . deliberate efforts to extend learning opportunities to people in the larger community” (Thompson & Lamble, p. 52). *Outreach* was a close synonym for extension.

The land-grant tradition of service declined significantly during the 1950s (Boyte, 2000) as research and scientific inquiry came to the fore to meet the needs of the democracy at that time (Richardson, 1996). *Technology transfer* became “the full array of stored know-how, expertise, hard and soft technologies, and problem-solving capacity that can be applied to and adopted by a range of private businesses, units of government, and nonprofit organizations in the regions” (Goldstein & Luger, 1997, p. 535).

Then as the business model infused higher education and as funding became more scarce, a dichotomy developed. Extension practitioners were divided into those who worked for social change (older purpose) and those who believed that they were selling products in a marketplace (newer purpose) (Thompson & Lamble, 2000). This profit-motif enabled universities to secure more funding and businesses to obtain the latest product, process, or service information to maintain their competitive positions in the marketplace.

In recent decades, another movement emerged: *economic development.* Economic development ventures emphasized *partnerships* between academic and business interests, promoting the business model for higher education and enhancing the two-way interaction trend (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

Thus the third mission had evolved from serving the community, to extending and reaching out to it, to engaging it in bi-directional relationships and interactions.

Method

The method for this study was content analysis, a research technique to analyze the written word in quantitative groupings to pull meanings into focus that the prose format did not readily emit. Researchers have developed the methodology over several decades, notably Berelson (1952), Krippendorff (1980 & 2003), Weber (1990), and Neuendorf (2002).

In selecting a group of universities likely to be active in the third mission of higher education, public universities emphasizing service, research institutions producing knowledge and technology to transmit to the society, and land-grant institutions with a specific purpose of improving the agricultural, mechanical, and practical arts of the populace were best choices. In researching such institutions, the author discovered studies of two already-formed groups where some research existed regarding the missions of higher education: The Kellogg Commission (1999 & 2001) and Southern Growth Policies Board (Tornatzky, Waugaman, & Gray, 2002) studies. The 11 members of the Kellogg Commission that provided profiles of their university programs functioned as one group. The 12 institutions singled out for excellence by the SGPB formed another group. Because The Pennsylvania State University and The Ohio State University were in both groups, 21 different universities emerged as the sample to be studied. These 21 universities represented, not a random sample, but institutions on the leading edge regarding the third mission, trendsetters who voluntarily created profiles or case study materials to document their activities.

University official web sites and contacts with university officials produced 19 strategic plans or components of plans. The researcher confirmed that neither plans nor components existed for Stanford University and the University of California, San Diego. This process produced Table 1 with 19 viable universities, 15 of which had strategic plans and 4 of which had components of strategic plans (mission, vision statement, goals, objectives, long-range-plan, etc.).

Table 1: Engagement Universities for Study

University	**Kellogg Profiles**	**So Growth Bd**	**Dates**	**Strat Plan**	**Components**
Arizona State University	1		2004-2008	yes	
Carnegie Mellon University		1	1998	yes	
The Georgia Institute of Technology		1	2002	yes	
Iowa State University	1		2000-2005	yes	
North Carolina State University		1	2002-2007	yes	
The Ohio State University	1	1	2000	yes	
Pennsylvania State University-Univ Park	1	1	2003-2006	yes	
Portland State University	1		2003	yes	
Purdue University		1	2001-2006	yes	
Rutgers, State University of New Jersey	1		1995	yes	
Salish Kootenai College	1		online 7/16/03	no	yes
Stanford University		1		no	no
Texas A&M University		1	1999	yes	
Tuskegee University	1		1996	yes	
The University of California, Davis	1		2000	no	yes
The University of California-San Diego		1		no	no
The University of Illinois-Chicago	1			no	yes
The University of Utah		1	online, 05/17/03	no	yes
The University of Vermont	1		2003-2008	yes	
The University of Wisconsin-Madison		1	2003	yes	
Virginia Polytechnic Instit. & State Univ.		1	2001-2006	yes	
Total	11	12			

Note: Penn State and Ohio State are members of both groups.

Using content analysis, the author employed the Kellogg and SGPB studies, other research, and experimentation to develop and test a coding form to organize third mission topics into a four-category framework entitled "Third Mission Category and Topic Coding Scheme."

(See Appendix.) Category One was labeled "One-way efforts, sustaining, improving existing business":

> This category encompasses the original intention for creating the land-grant college system: assisting the citizenry in obtaining and using practical applications produced by the federal-and-state-funded college system, those things that derived from both the teaching (learning) and research (discovery) missions. It was primarily a one-way delivery system – halls of academe to populace – which in large part explains the derivation of the ivory-tower concept. It is the historical, traditional third mission of higher education.

The strategic plans were analyzed, producing statistics for number of topics found in each category. The findings below provide the results for Category One.

Findings

The varying lengths of the plans meant that the number of occurrences for any category for one university compared to another produced no meaningful result; therefore percentages were calculated to describe the varying emphases that universities revealed in the writing of their planning documents. The count of topics for each category was divided by the total count of third mission topics in strategic plans to produce percentages. The result was Table 2.

Table 2: All Institutions -- Categories 1 - 4

University	Type	Total Cnt	Category 1 Cnt	Category 1 %	Category 2 Cnt	Category 2 %	Category 3 Cnt	Category 3 %	Category 4 Cnt	Category 4 %	Date
Arizona State	SP	51	5	10%	12	24%	12	24%	22	43%	2004
Carnegie Mellon	SP	33	6	18%	5	15%	8	24%	14	42%	1998
Georgia Tech	SP	65	6	9%	10	15%	30	46%	19	29%	2002
Iowa State	SP	144	33	23%	68	47%	9	6%	34	24%	2000
N.C. State	SP	39	10	26%	7	18%	5	13%	17	44%	2002
Ohio State	SP	111	25	23%	21	19%	22	20%	43	39%	2002
Penn State	SP	30	9	30%	2	7%	4	13%	15	50%	2003
Portland	SP	119	14	12%	62	52%	8	7%	35	29%	2003
Purdue	SP	77	17	22%	23	30%	11	14%	26	34%	2001
Rutgers	SP	118	21	18%	16	14%	7	6%	74	63%	1995
Salish Kootenai	MVG	7	1	14%	0	0%	1	14%	5	71%	
Texas A&M	SP	114	18	16%	37	32%	25	22%	34	30%	1999
Tuskegee	SP	61	17	28%	5	8%	1	2%	38	62%	1996
UC-Davis	M	12	7	58%	1	8%	1	8%	3	25%	2000
U. Illinois	MV	13	3	23%	5	38%	1	8%	4	31%	
U. Utah	M	9	3	33%	1	11%	0	0%	5	56%	
U. Vermont	SP	8	2	25%	0	0%	0	0%	6	75%	2003
U. Wisconsin-Madison	SP	49	20	41%	12	24%	5	10%	12	24%	2003
Virginia Tech	SP	113	46	41%	19	17%	12	11%	36	32%	2001
Mean				**25%**		**20%**		**13%**		**42%**	
Standard Deviation				**12%**		**15%**		**11%**		**16%**	

Cells filled with light gray represent institutions more than one standard deviation below the mean and those with dark gray fill are more than one standard deviation above the mean.

One caution is necessary. Salish Kootenai College, The University of Utah, and The University of Vermont each had fewer than 10 total occurrences. With such low numbers, dividing the total into four categories left little room for error in category placement because a switch of one topic to another category would have a considerable impact on the resulting percents.

The author examined whether the variation in plans regarding Category One was more or less than could be expected in a normal population, where 68% of the data points would fall within +/- one standard deviation from the mean. For these 19 universities, 13 were in this range, precisely the expected 68% (Table 2 non-filled cells for Category One). The percent of occurrences among universities varied by 49% (from 9% in the Georgia Tech Plan to 58% for The University of California, Davis). In other words, a particular university presented a considerably different profile of interest in Category One from certain other universities.

The means in Table 2 showed varied emphases for the categories for the "average" university in the sample:

Category One: One-way efforts, sustaining, improving existing business	25%
Category Two: Two-way efforts, sustaining, improving existing business	20%
Category Three: Initiating efforts, creating and developing new business	13%
Category Four : One-way efforts, sustaining, improving society and community	42%

Another view of third mission programs emerged by ranking universities within each category. Table 3 gives each university's percents for Category One, ordered from high to low with the mean highlighted. The filled cells show universities that were one or more standard deviations above or below the mean.

Table 3: Category One for All Institutions

Institution	*Category One by Percent*
UC, Davis	58
U. Wisconsin, Madison	41
Virginia Tech	41
U. Utah	33
Penn State	30
Tuskegee	28
N.C. State	26
MEAN	25
U. Vermont	25
Iowa State	23
Ohio State	23
U. Illinois	23
Purdue	22
Carnegie Mellon	18
Rutgers	18
Texas A&M	16
Salish Kootenai	14
Portland	12
Arizona State	10
Georgia Tech	9

Remarkable among the three universities giving the most emphasis to this traditional, one-way category of assistance to business (Table 3) was the University of California, Davis at 58%. The other two were the University of Wisconsin, Madison and Virginia Tech, both at 41%. Portland (12%), Arizona State (10%), and Georgia Tech (9%) showed less emphasis at more than one standard deviation below the mean.

Next in the study was an examination of the terms used to describe Category One of the third mission (Table 4).

Table 4: Category One Topics

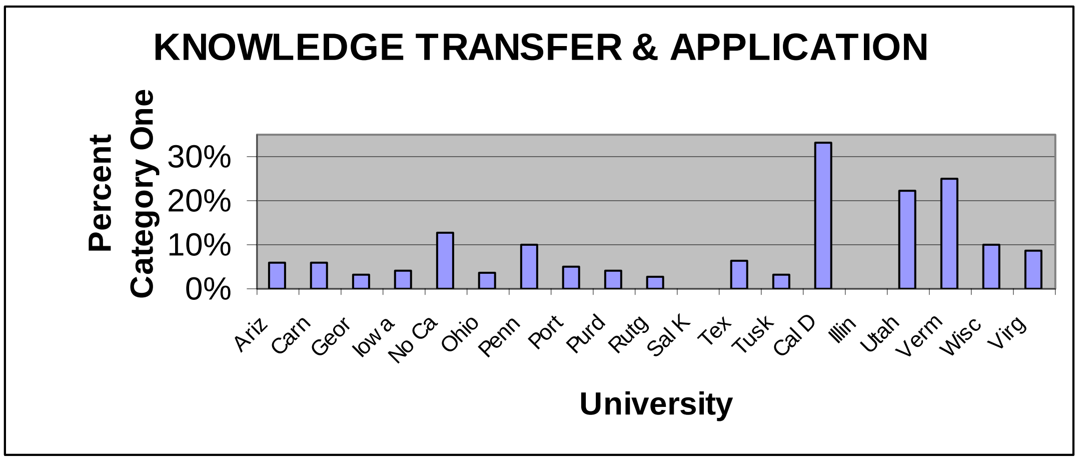
	UNIVERSITY																			
TOPIC	Ariz	Carn	Geor	Iowa	No Ca	Ohio	Penn	Port	Purd	Rutg	Sal K	Tex	Tusk	Cal D	Illin	Utah	Verm	Wisc	Virg	AVE
Extension				6%	3%	2%			1%	3%		5%	10%	17%					6%	2.8%
Knowledge trans & app	6%	6%	3%	4%	13%	4%	10%	5%	4%	3%		6%	3%	33%		22%	25%	10%	9%	8.7%
Outreach	2%		5%	6%	3%	9%	17%	5%	3%	6%		3%	13%		8%			2%	20%	5.3%
Support of public schools						5%												2%		0.4%
Technical assistance		3%							1%		14%								3%	1.1%
Technology trans & app	2%	9%	2%	6%	8%	3%		2%	9%	3%					8%			22%		3.8%
Workforce development				1%			3%		4%	1%		2%							1%	0.6%
Other										2%			2%	8%	8%	11%		4%	2%	1.9%
TOTAL Category One	10%	18%	9%	23%	26%	23%	30%	12%	22%	18%	14%	16%	28%	58%	23%	33%	25%	41%	41%	24.7%

In Table 4, universities in the sample especially those with full strategic plans (See Table 1), tended to show a variety of third mission topics. Vermont was an exception with only one topic – knowledge transfer and application. Among the remaining public, research, and land-grant institutions, the fewest number of topics in one plan was three for Arizona State, Pennsylvania State, Portland, and Tuskegee. Carnegie Mellon, the only private university in the study, also had three topics in its plan. The largest number of topics in one plan was six for Purdue's plan and five in the Ohio State plan. (These numbers omit the "Other" topic.) Four of the topics constituted the largest portions of references to all third mission topics: Knowledge Transfer and

Application, Outreach, Technology Transfer and Application, and Extension. Tables 5 through 8 examine them in order of frequency.

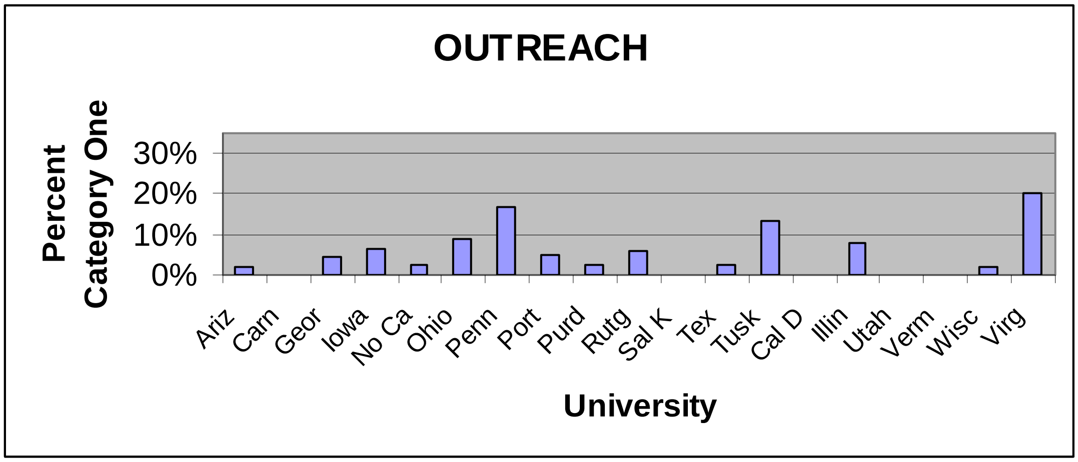
Several topics received less frequent mention in plans – *Technical Assistance* 1.1%, *Workforce Development* .6%, and *Support of Public Schools* .4%. In each case one-half or fewer of the universities mentioned these topics at all. Those along with the miscellaneous grouping (*Other* 1.9%) were not charted. The sum of these topics represents 4.1% of all mentions of the third mission.

Table 5: Knowledge Transfer and Application



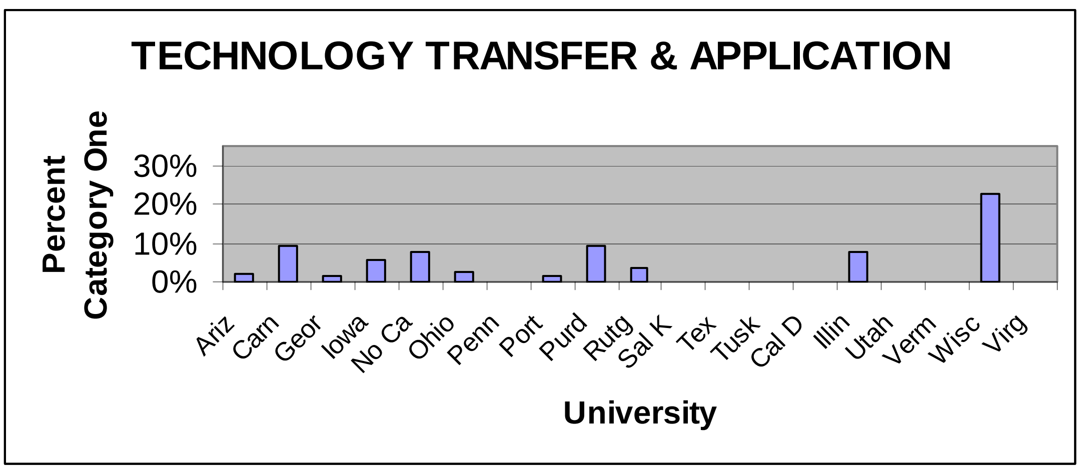
Seventeen universities – all but Salish Kootenai College (with limited documentation to study) and the University of Illinois (with only components of a strategic plan) – included *Knowledge Transfer and Application* in the strategic plan (Table 5). This topic led all others in accounting for 8.7% of the mentions for all third mission topics. The range for frequency of mentioning this topic was 1% to 17% of all third mission topics for all four categories (From Table 4).

Table 6: Outreach



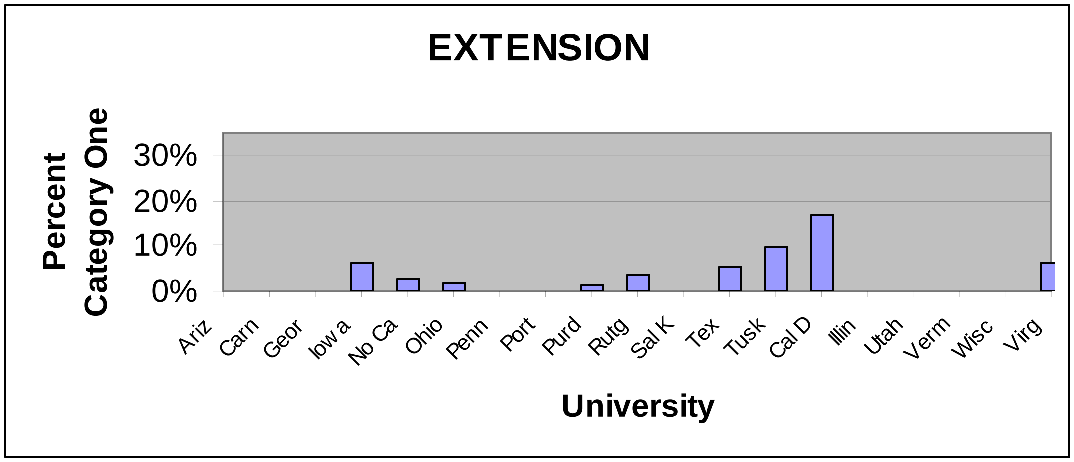
Thirteen universities included *Outreach* in the strategic plan (Table 6).This topic accounted for 5.3% of all third mission topics. The range for frequency of mentioning this topic was 2% to 17% of all third mission topics for all four categories (From Table 4).

Table 7: Technology Transfer and Application



Eleven universities included *Technology Transfer and Application* in the strategic plan (Table 7). This topic accounted for 3.8% of all third mission topics. The range for frequency of mentioning this topic was 2% to 22% of all third mission topics for all four categories (From Table 4).

Table 8: Extension



Nine universities included *Extension* in the strategic plan (Table 8). This topic accounted for 2.8% of all third mission topics. The range for frequency of mentioning this topic was 1% to 17% of all third mission topics for all four categories (From Table 4).

Implications

Five major implications emerged from the study.

1. The variation from 9% to 58% in the frequency of references to third mission Category One topics, although normal in distribution for a general population of colleges, was somewhat surprising here. One would expect more uniformity for research, mainly public, and preponderantly land-grant institutions, pointing to the varying emphases for the third mission of higher education, even among relatively homogeneous institutions.
2. Category One, the traditional third mission of higher education's one-way efforts to sustain and improve existing business, maintained 25% -- an expected share of a four-category schema – of all references to third mission topics, despite recent movements toward other manifestations for the third mission found in Categories Two, Three, and Four. This traditional focus for the third mission is maintaining its presence in university strategic plans.

3. Among the major topics for Category One, the preponderant one was *Knowledge Transfer and Application*, 8.7% of all mentions of third mission topics in strategic plans. This portion was far ahead of the nearest competitors, *Outreach* at 5.3%, *Technology Transfer and Application* at 3.8%, and *Extension* at 2.8%.
4. *Outreach* and *Extension* have vied for recognition for well over a century. At least in this study, *Outreach* is ahead slightly in percent (5.3% vs. 3.9%) and more so in inclusion in strategic plans (13 universities vs. 9).
5. Between the other two major topics, *Knowledge Transfer and Application* was considerably ahead of *Technology Transfer and Application* in frequency (8.7% vs. 3.8%) and inclusion (17 universities vs. 11). It may be that the prior topic is more general in nature, encompassing the third, and/or that the prior topic is older and has had more opportunities over time to be mentioned in planning documents.

What is it that we do officially? In these strategic plans, the answers are knowledge transfer and application (more than technology transfer and application) and outreach (more than extension).

Future Studies

Labels shift over time sometimes to reflect trends as *extension* originating to describe an agrarian society transforming to *knowledge or technology* reflecting the information and industrial ages. These shifts can thus signal changes in society and in academe. The author hopes this study serves as a benchmark against which to measure future trends which would add more light to the varied and at times confusing third mission of higher education.

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Appendix

Third Mission Category and Topic Coding Scheme

Category One: One-way Efforts, sustaining, improving existing business

(Example topics below each category)

Consulting	Technical assistance
Extension	Technology transfer
Knowledge transfer	Training / Retraining workforce development
Outreach	

Comment: This category encompasses the original intention for creating the land-grant college system: assisting the citizenry in obtaining and using practical applications produced by the federal-and-state-funded college system, those things that derived from both the teaching (learning) and research (discovery) missions. It was primarily a one-way delivery system – halls of academe to populace – which in large part explains the derivation of the ivory-tower concept. It is the historical, traditional third mission of higher education.

Category Two: Two-way Efforts, sustaining, improving existing business

A category one topic in a two-way context	Involvement
Alliance	Joint venture
Bridge	Linkage
Coalition	Network
Collaboration	Partnership
Connection	Relationship
Cooperative effort	Responsiveness
Engagement	Sharing (and dialogue)
Exchange	

Comment: These two-way efforts represent the newer third mission of higher education, engendered from the Boyer emphasis of the 1990s, the cry for higher education to listen and respond to the citizenry, especially motivated by the growing competition for tax dollars to support higher education. This is the 21st century third mission of higher education.

Category Three: Initiating Efforts, creating and developing new business

Commercialization	New business
Economic development / growth	Spin-off business
Entrepreneurial venture	Start-up (support) effort
Incubator	Research Park
Invention, patent, license	

Comment: These efforts are also related to the newer third mission of higher education, much like Category Two, except that the emphasis is on creating and nurturing new businesses, new products, new processes, and new services. Even more than Category Two, the efforts are very interactive, with the university usually initiating the effort and holding major responsibility for its early development. Some (patents, research parks) are not new, but the emphasis on importance and two-way nature are new.

Category Four: One-way Efforts, sustaining and improving society and community

Civic endeavor	Distance education
Community involvement	Lifelong learning
Continuing education	Quality of life
Contributions to society / public	Service

Comment: The previous three categories concentrated on business and professional issues; this one broadens to encompass society, community, and public at large. More historical and traditional in nature, it harks back to the original intent of land-grant colleges, attuned to the need to have an educated, active citizenry. Like Category One, it is primarily one-directional from university to the citizenry.

LEADERSHIP AND MENTORING: CEO PERSPECTIVES

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track: Research

Chief Executive Officers (CEO), leaders of organizations, provide a unique perspective on mentoring relationships and their experiences as both protégé and mentor. Few studies have explored mentoring as an educational tool for developing leaders/CEOs. This exploratory study provides insight into the perceptions of CEOs and their experiences with mentoring relationships.

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Introduction

Mentoring is recognized as a key developmental resource for individuals in organizations (Noe, Greenberger, & Wang, 2002). In particular, mentoring has been described as, "the most intense and powerful one-on-one developmental relationship, entailing the most influence, identification, and emotional involvement" (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003, p. 40) between a more experienced professional and a less experienced individual. The majority of research has explored mentoring from the vantage point of protégé perceptions, reactions, experiences, and development (Wanberg et al. 2003; Kram, 1988). Mentoring study participants have commonly been employees, college students, or mid-level managers. Little is known regarding the impact of experiences with mentoring for top executives who are, over the span of their careers, likely to participate in developmental relationships as both mentor and protégé. In fact, accessing study participants who are active CEOs has been extremely problematic for a majority of interested researchers (Thomas, 1995). According to Useem (1995), a major challenge to researching CEOs is gaining access.

Mentoring is one of the oldest forms of human development (Shea, 1994). Mentoring dates back to the Stone Age. Talented healers and shamans instructed younger people in the arts and knowledge needed to perpetuate their skills (Shea, 1994). A similar relationship can be seen during the middle Ages with craft guilds where young boys were traditionally apprentices to master craftsmen (Murray, 2001). Both historical contexts overlap with the current understanding of a mentoring relationship which involves a more knowledgeable senior person supporting the development of a less experienced individual. There is a strong connection between mentoring and leadership education as both are about developing people.

When developing individuals, the organization is being developed as well. From the beginning, organization development scholars and practitioners recognize the importance that leadership education, organization learning, and performance improvement efforts be supported by top management (Egan, 2002). Understanding how positional leaders at the top of organizations experience and conceptualize work related development may be helpful in finding ways to connect the importance of leadership education to those CEOs who have not made connections between key elements of their own learning and development and career success for those whom they manage. Further, understanding CEO experiences as protégés and mentors is important to the relatively unexplored area of how CEOs develop. Bragg (1989) identified that more than one-third of large U.S. companies use formal mentoring for professional development. Such companies have reported a variety of benefits from formal mentoring programs, including: retention, promotion and advancement, satisfaction, morale, and productivity and performance (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004).

Purpose

The purpose of this article is to provide results from exploratory research regarding CEOs' experiences with mentoring. Specifically, the discussion includes how the experiences of the CEOs as protégés inform how they mentor others. Further, CEOs' perceptions regarding the importance of mentoring will provide insight into how one aspect of leadership education is perceived by top executives.

Review of the Literature

Both individuals and organizations use mentoring relationships to enhance learning, professional, and personal development in the workplace (Wanberg, et al., 2003). There are two types of mentoring, formal programs and informal relationships. Formal mentoring occurs in a structured environment where a third party pairs the mentor and protégé together. Most formal relationships are structured with certain requirements and timeframe (Rosser & Egan, 2003). Informal mentoring develops spontaneously and voluntarily. Most informal relationships are unstructured, flexible, and are usually intimate because the mentor and protégé mutual identify and volunteer to be in the relationship. This study explores informal mentoring experiences; however, there is research being conducted to better understand the implications of informal mentoring relationships for formal mentoring programs (Egan, 2005). This is important for leadership educators because practitioners may be facilitators of formal mentoring programs aimed toward learning and performance improvement.

Kathy Kram, a professor at Boston University and research fellow for the Center for Creative Leadership, is the most cited author in mentoring literature (Wanberg, et al., 2003) and her work is foundational to much of the research that has been conducted. Kram (1988) identified two primary functions of mentoring, psychosocial and career development. Two broad categories of mentoring functions identified by Kram (1988) are what distinguish mentoring from other non-developmental work relationships (Mullen, 1998). Both types of mentoring functions are the essential characteristics that, combined, may differentiate mentoring relationships from other developmental relationships and establish general parameters for the type of development individuals receive from their mentor.

The career development function involves behaviors such as coaching, sponsorship, providing challenging assignments, protecting protégés from adverse forces, and fostering positive visibility (Ragins, 1997). The career development function is directly related to the knowledge and position of the mentor. The roles within the career development function serve to aid in advancing in an organization (Kram, 1988). Protégés and mentors alike may gain from the career development function and the roles within the function.

The psychosocial function is the aspect of development that enhances protégés sense of competence, helps them to develop a sense of identity, and promotes their effectiveness in a professional role (Kram, 1988). From the perspective of mentor-protégé exchange, these functions commonly involve behaviors such as role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. The psychosocial function typically provides the protégés a higher level of self-worth.

A theoretical foundation providing explanatory support for mentoring in the context of workplace development is social network theory. Higgins and Kram (2001) identified one aspect of social network theory as the developmental network perspective. The definition of an individuals' developmental network is “the set of people a protégé names as taking an active interest in an action to advance the protégés' career by providing developmental assistance” (p. 268).

Method

This article will report key findings from a portion of a qualitative study involving fifteen CEOs of large for-profit US corporations who detailed their experiences as both mentors and protégés. Each CEO had been involved in one or more informal mentoring relationship. Many of the findings will provide preliminary information for considerations in future research.

The following were criteria for participation in the study:

- All participants had to be chief decision-making officers in their organization.
- The participants had to be willing to engage in a face-to-face interview for at least an hour.
- The participants had to be willing to share their experiences.

The participants had to oversee large organizations.

Limitations to the Method

The population interviewed does provide a cross section of industries in a variety of locations; however, it was difficult to achieve a mixture of race, gender, and age. All participants were Caucasian and male. This is representative of the majority of CEOs today. As seventy one percent of all CEOs in the United States are Caucasian males (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003) and only seven female CEOs in the Fortune 500. In addition, it is necessary to identify that the CEOs in this study were all more than fifty years old and, because of the relative youth of formal mentoring programs, had no opportunity to develop relationships with formal mentors as part of their professional development.

Data Analysis

The fundamental steps of the analysis included:

1. Upon completing the fifteen interviews, interview tapes were transcribed. The transcriptions were reviewed in order to acquire a feeling for them, a “making sense out of them” (Colaizzi, 1978, p. 59). Field notes were incorporated into the protocol to help establish an overall understanding of the CEO’s experience as it

was shared.

2. All protocols had significant statements extracted and recorded in a table, and repetitive or irrelevant statements were eliminated. There were two groups of significant statements per protocol, those describing the CEOs' experiences as a protégé and those describing the CEOs' experiences as a mentor
3. In order to complete member checks (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), all CEOs were sent a copy of the significant statements from our discussion and were asked to review and confirm the accuracy of what they intended to say. Seven of the CEOs responded, all seven said they agreed, and a few expanded on some of their comments providing more information.
4. Formulated meanings were constructed for all interviews and their significant statements. A formulated meaning is a simple statement or phrase developed by the researcher that reflects the essential meaning of the significant statement identified earlier in the process (Colaizzi, 1978; Moustakas, 1994).
5. The formulated meanings for all CEOs were examined, and similar or closely related statements were clustered together to form themes.
6. In order to validate the themes, the original protocols were reviewed to insure the themes accounted for all the information in the transcriptions.
7. Three follow-up interviews were conducted over the phone with key informants. The second interview helped to expand and clarify on the themes that had emerged.

Findings

At the beginning of the study, I expected to get rich description of the experiences of the

CEOs as protégés and the CEOs as mentors. Although they discussed their mentors in detail, the CEOs did not feel comfortable identifying themselves as “mentors.” One CEO in particular described,

> *This whole thing of developing, mentoring people, is one of the most important factors. It has been hard, and maybe it’s one of my own biggest failings over the years is not developing enough people – someone else will have to judge that one day. If I write my own report card I’d give myself the lowest grade on the card in the area of development and succession of people*

Further, each of the CEOs initially distanced themselves from the notion that they had been mentors at all. Although, the CEOs do not consider themselves as mentors, they easily discuss mentoring and the importance of mentoring in the development of young professionals. Typically, the CEOs did not describe themselves as mentors. The mentoring behaviors described by the CEOs when interacting with young professionals; however, demonstrated Kram’s (1988) mentoring functions. Although, the CEOs did not use the vocabulary of mentoring functions (i.e. exposure and visibility and counsel), their stories perfectly illustrated many of the functions. Mentoring related behaviors are the actions through which Kram’s functions are seen. The CEOs talked about what they “hoped” to have accomplished and what they “should” have done. The CEOs did not realize their behaviors were demonstrating the functions of a mentor. Although these men deny being mentors, their behaviors provide evidence to the contrary. One CEO shared, “You should always want to develop other people. They are watching you when you are in this position, and you need to be helping them along.” As the CEO realized he is being watched, the behavior of role modeling begins to occur.

CEOs’ Perspectives on Mentoring Relationships

CEOs could describe the type of person they looked for to help “become better.” The

CEOs are intentional about who they want to develop and work with the individuals to help them be successful. One CEO shared, “You know you aren’t going to be CEO forever, and you need to make sure there are strong people to take up the reins.”

Each CEO thought mentoring was important. One CEO said, “Mentoring is perhaps even one of the most important things that can occur in developing others. Mentoring is giving, giving of yourself. There is no expectation of return.” The CEO said, “In mentoring, there is a love of the process of mentoring, and a love of the person. So, you have to love seeing people grow and develop, and also have love for that person. Some people can mentor, and some people cannot.”

One perspective from a CEO concerned how mentoring can be dangerous if not handled correctly.

> *Mentoring needs to be casual and the more you can have it not be obvious to the rest of the organization the better. I think one of the things that is dangerous about protégé/mentor relationships is when the protégé is hammered by his or her peers because they are jealous. People are dumb; they will look at something and say well that guy’s doing it for the wrong reasons, whether it’s a senior person or the protégé, so it’s got to be done carefully, methodical.*

This CEO, felt that even though some relationships are not positive mentoring is important in their organization. Leadership educators need to recognize the role mentoring can play in developing others and the impact it has had on getting people to CEO positions. Each CEO in the study mentioned they would have never been in the position of CEO had it not been for the people who helped them get there. Eleven of the fifteen CEOs came from low socio-economic backgrounds and new the value of working hard. With the attention their mentors provided, each of the eleven were able to break the barriers that could have stopped them from becoming a CEO.

Mentors Inform CEOs experiences with Mentoring

The CEOs each provided an in-depth and vivid description of their experiences as protégés. Clear examples of how more experienced individuals had impacted their development, both personal and professional, were evident as the CEOs discussed their experiences as protégés. The fifteen CEOs, all described mentoring as a key aspect of their development. Although some relationships described were more than 40 years old, the CEOs instantly and easily identified individuals who influenced their success.

Each mentoring relationship described by the CEOs began informally. The CEOs, as young professionals, were not necessarily seeking mentors. After brief interactions with more advanced professionals, something "clicked" and the opportunity for development occurred. Both parties (the CEOs as protégés and their mentors) unconsciously created a mentoring relationship. Each relationship lead to positive outcomes for the CEOs as protégés. Further, some mentoring relationships lasted more than thirty years and some over a short period of months. Some relationships were very positive and others were negative and hurtful; however, each relationship taught valuable lessons.

Most of the experiences of CEOs as protégés occurred before the men were executives. The CEOs attribute their success to the mentors who helped the CEOs learn and develop over time. The development occurred one-on-one, sometime in person, and many times over the phone with long conversations. Many lessons the CEOs learned from their mentors are life-long lessons and may be still in use today.

The CEOs often discussed how they learned something from their mentors or how the mentors had, through their actions, demonstrated what not to do when mentoring others. As development occurs, the protégés also learn how to mentor. One CEO described, "I tend to think mentoring should be very ad hoc not consciously programmed or proactive. I tend to think that the people who mentored me were not that way either." Another CEO said, "I know the experience I had with my mentor is something I am trying to replicate with other people."

A more specific example was given:

> *My boss/mentor, gave me this problem one time, we had this huge project and he asked me to work on the complete mathematical analysis of it, so I worked hard to beat the problem and I got some elegant analysis and I brought it up to him and he says 'hey this looks great but let's make a few tests, because your analysis covers all conditions, let's see if it makes sense,' well it didn't. I was so embarrassed, I went back, I have one algebraic mistake, and from that point on, everything else was wrong, I correct it, go through these little checks, everything's right so I took it back and he says, let that be a lesson to you. And you know it was and now I always had all the engineers that work for me make these in-point analysis, there's always a simple case that you plug it in, that way you can know the answer...so that was a big mentoring.*

One final example of how one CEO's mentor taught him what not to do, "I do mentor others." He said, 'What is my cause?' I was hurt by my mentor and was screwed, being taken advantage of. I wanted to be different. I wanted to be a giver. I wanted to be fair in all situations. That is how I mentor." Contrary to Ragins, Cotton, and Miller's (2000) finding that indicated it is better to not have a mentor than be involved in a negative mentoring relationship, this CEO felt better prepared to be a mentor because of the negative experience with his mentor. The CEOs are conscious of how mentoring should be done.

Although the CEOs did not identify themselves as mentors, each CEO described their actions and how they "hoped to make a difference in others." The actions described often related back to their own experiences as protégés. Practitioners need to better understand how to utilize mentoring relationships in developing professionals, especially aspiring executives. In addition, Scholars need to focus research on how mentoring relationships work and how practitioners can use mentoring to develop individuals and improve organizations.

Conclusion

Leadership educators must realize the importance of understanding CEOs' perspectives on the development of others. This article provides a glimpse into what can be gained from the elite population of CEOs regarding their perspectives on developing others through the use of mentoring relationships. In addition, the article illustrates the transfer of lessons learned as protégé to experiences as a mentor and CEO.

CEOs have mentors who have been influential in their development. Most corporate presidents have had mentors who were vital to their success (Jennings, 1971). For these fifteen CEOs, this is true. These CEOs recognize they would not be where they are today without the influence of those that mentored them. Leadership educators must recognize the importance to do more research in order to better understand these relationships and further inform the practitioners.

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U-LEAD: PROVEN RESULTS FOR INDIVIDUALS, ORGANIZATIONS AND COMMUNITIES

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

Introduction

If communities are to compete successfully in the changing global, social, political and economic realities, they must have leaders who understand complex issues, listen to diverse beliefs and values, and make thoughtful decisions. U-Lead programs couple land-grant University resources with organizations and communities interested in leadership education. Together, they develop confident, effective leaders through enhancing their knowledge and decision-making skills.

The workshop will explore:

- What are Participant Benefits – how do emerging and existing leaders as well as their organizations and communities benefit?
- What is U-Lead – what is the program & how are impacts & outcomes measured?

Background

U-Lead programs are a priority program of the Leadership and Civic Engagement Area, Community Vitality & Development Unit, University of Minnesota Extension Service, in partnership with the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs (HHH). Research based content about effective policy development, group dynamics, management strategies, organizational and community planning is from the nationally acclaimed Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs. Issues expertise accessible through the University of Minnesota includes economics, housing, agriculture, land use and natural resources, etc.

Currently, programs are delivered by eight Extension Educators on state/federal funds in regional centers and two educators on local and/or grant funding. Their title is Leadership & Civic Engagement Educator. Other programs they deliver are U-Facilitate and Civic Connections. U-Lead programs began in 1986 with the hiring of one leadership program coordinator and a part-time contract at the Reflective Leadership Center, HHH.

How it works

U-Lead is grounded in Transformative Education theory (Mezirow, 1978, Boyd, 1988, Cranton, 1994), emphasizing the importance of reflection, critical thinking, creating a community of knowledge, a safe learning environment, and participant responsibility. In addition, U-Lead draws directly from the leadership theories of former and current University of Minnesota scholars Robert Terry (***Authentic Leadership***, 1993, and ***Seven Zones for Leadership***, 2001), and John Bryson and Barbara Crosby (***Leadership for the Common Good***, 1991 and second edition, 2004). Additional research and program delivery methods are drawn from regional and national professional networks.

Program tools include: *U-Lead Program Management and Evaluation Guide*, *Civic Leadership Assessment* (2004), *Leadership for the Common Good* CD-Rom (2004), and *Authentic Leadership Resources* (CD-Rom to be completed in 2005). These resources include program design and development templates, evaluation templates, needs/interest assessment tools, curriculum development (handouts, Power Point presentations, exercises, reading lists, etc.)

Delivery of U-Lead programs have clustered into two categories –

Leadership Cohorts (groups of 20-40 persons, meeting together 6-12 times, over a time period of 10-18 months) and

Leadership Workshops (one-time groups of 20-30 people, meeting 4 - 8 hours in length (most frequent) or in 2-3 day workshops (less frequent).

Results to date

In 2004, 2,903 people from 389 organizations participated in **Leadership Workshops** and 275 people participated in six **Leadership Cohorts**. Evaluation measures **learning outcomes at workshops** and **behavior changes for cohorts**.

Workshops that measure learning outcomes utilize a retrospective methodology, using an end-of-event form where participants rate their knowledge changes before the program and after the program. These learning outcomes include: Effective Leadership in the 21st Century, Building Exceptional Personal Leadership, Cultivating Civic Leadership, Enhancing Ethical Leadership, Making the Most of Your Team, Navigating Conflict and Communication Challenges, Stimulating Visionary Leadership, and Understanding Trends and Realities.

Following the workshop either the educator or a data analysis center provides a data report. Results are shared with the program sponsors and internal stakeholders (supervisor, program team etc.). For state and federal reporting, annually data is compiled across site and from all educators so a collective impact can be seen.

Example of Learning Outcome of Workshop: ***Enhancing Ethical Leadership*** (n=13, 3 hour workshop)

Rate your knowledge of the concept from 1 (poor) to 4 (good) both before and after this workshop.

Concept	**Before**	**After**	**Change**
Conceptual & practical aspects of ethical leadership.	2.54	3.54	1.0
Strategies for resolving personal and organizational ethical dilemmas.	2.69	3.62	.92
Awareness of ethical leadership resources and information.	2.00	3.46	1.46

Cohorts utilize in depth evaluations of community leadership program to find behavior changes. Two studies of over 300 graduates show clusters of five measurable, significant outcomes including:

- Civic engagement – increased, effective civic participation
- Personal growth and self-efficacy – a greater sense of being able to make a difference and use leadership time wisely
- Community commitment – strengthened commitment to make their organization effective and/or their community a better place to live
- Community knowledge – greater knowledge of needs, resources and policy options
- Shared future and purpose-more work toward shared visions and purposes.

In addition, gains were demonstrated in 42 skills areas. The top ones included better understanding of how new ideas were adopted & what steps were needed to obtain broad-based support. They considered themselves well qualified to take action on public issues and had a sense of mission in their lives.

These results were similar to those found in Missouri after they evaluated leadership program graduates. We use the Community Leadership Assessment as a pre-test/ post-pre-test instrument developed by Dr. Kenneth Pigg, University of Missouri-Columbia. Phase one survey used the long research form of Dr. Pigg. Following factor analysis, a modified short form is now been used.

Outcomes (that are snapshots of 2004) include:

- Participants in leadership cohorts average 3.4 memberships each; thus, 1,190 organizations benefited from leadership training.
- One cohort group project resulted in their finalist status for National Star City.
- Two counties developed shared vision statements & framed political platforms that represented multiple jurisdictions.

- After leadership training related to public participation processes, Minnesota was 4th in the nation to secure funds for environmental programs.

Conclusions and Future Implications

U-Lead is a mature program that has proven results for individuals, organizations and communities. We intend to continue to make program improvements, including launching a web-based portal for a continuing learning system for program graduates.

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Low Resources in a High Stakes Game: Identifying Viable Rural Community Partners

Association of Leadership Educations
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Presentation Track: Practice

Cooperative Extension resources are shrinking, yet rural community leadership needs are great, and, the consequences of not addressing them are dire. This presentation links community capital theory with community survival indicators, and provides 111 signs that identify viable partners. The Viable Community Partners Guide will be shared and input sought.

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Low Resources in a High Stakes Game:
Identifying Viable Rural Community Partners

Susan Fritz, Amy Boren, Dee Trudeau, and Daniel Wheeler
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Introduction

Higher education institutions are operating in an era of austerity. This austerity translates into challenges in adequately addressing institutional mission and demonstrating impacts. No place is that more of a challenge than in Cooperative Extension. The needs are great, and in some parts of the country the consequences of not addressing them are dire. Communities are disappearing as a result of the national trend of negative growth in rural counties (U.S. Census Bureau 2000).

Regardless of these shifts in population, Cooperative Extension has a statewide programming mission to serve the educational needs of all citizens at all age levels. However, limited resources require tough choices in programming. High priority programs that produce the greatest impacts, and from an accountability standpoint, standup to public scrutiny, are valued (Bogue, 1998). From a community leadership perspective, it is often difficult to respond to all the community requests that are made of Extension faculty. Further, it is even more difficult to decide which of the potential community partners will benefit the most from an infusion of leadership programming. How can theory be used by Extension faculty to help prioritize requests for community leadership development?

The **objectives** of this presentation are to: 1) relate Flora and Flora's (2004) theory on community capitals with the Heartland Center's 20 Clues to Rural Community Survival (Luther & Wall, 1988); 2) establish an objective means of analyzing community viability; and 3) solicit feedback on the utility of the Viable Community Partners Guide.

Background

Flora and Flora (2004) have synthesized the literature on intangible and tangible capitals to assemble a comprehensive list of seven capitals. The intangible capitals include human, cultural, political, and social capital, while the tangible capitals include financial, built and natural capital.

The intangible capitals are the unseen assets that community members possess, both individually and corporately. *Human capital* consists of the knowledge, skills, and abilities of individual community members and how those individual assets can be invested into the community as a whole. *Cultural capital* includes the general values and attitudes held by a community, including the way they tend to approach life in general. *Political capital* is generally thought of as the amount of power a community has to determine the availability of resources and influence the distribution of those resources. *Social capital* is comprised of the social networks and the amount of collaboration found among community members as well as between communities. A key component of social capital is mutual trust.

The tangible capitals are the visible assets that a community possesses. *Financial capital* primarily consists of money that is used for investment into the community rather than for individual consumption. An important part of financial capital is its ability to be translated into other assets such as *built capital*. Built capital is comprised of the assets that have been constructed in and around the community. Roads, bridges, public services, and buildings are all part of a community's built capital. This provides a foundation for community development and growth. *Natural capital* includes the natural resources found in and around a community: landscape, water, flora, and fauna all are part of a community's natural capital.

In 1988, Luther and Wall published a book that reported the results of their case study research throughout the Midwest. They analyzed their case studies of towns to develop a list of 20 Clues to Rural Community Survival. The clues are helpful signs of community viability and can be used in a subjective manner to profile a community.

How It Works

Fifteen leadership education graduate students volunteered to participate in a group exercise. First, they reviewed Flora and Flora's (2004) community capitals and the 20 Clues to Rural Community Survival (Luther & Wall, 1988). They were then led through a group process to categorize the 20 Clues under the seven community capitals. Because of the broad application of some of the clues, participants were permitted to categorize the clues under more than one capital. Last, through the use of brainstorming, they identified specific indicators common to most rural communities across each of the 20 Clues.

Results to Date

Table 1 reports the results of integrating the community capitals and the 20 Clues to Rural Community Survival. Several clues were listed twice, and one clue ("Inclusive culture where women are seen in leadership roles") was listed three times. Nineteen clues were listed under the intangible capitals and ten clues were listed under the tangible capitals. Table 2 reports the brainstorming results, 111 examples were listed for the 20 Clues, or more than five examples, on average, for each clue.

Conclusions/Recommendations

It would appear that the 20 Clues for Rural Survival have a heavy focus on intangible community capitals. Future research is needed to determine the relative importance of one category (intangible, tangible) to the other in predicting community survival.

Linking theory to practice is an essential part of the Land Grant mission. This presentation seeks to link theory to practice for the purpose of not only developing leadership in rural communities, but also helping identify where the greatest impact can be achieved for the greatest number.

Our efforts to move from the subjective, but helpful, 20 Clues to more objective indicators of community viability, are in the preliminary stages. However, we are looking to solicit input (and validation) from session participants in an effort to strengthen what we are now calling the Viable Community Partners Guide. Eventually, we hope to disseminate the guide to assist those who are trying to make rural community partner decisions. Additionally, we believe there is potential for sharing the guide with community leaders as a means of "auditing" their community's health and potential.

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Table 1. Integration of Community Capitals with 20 Clues for Rural Community Survival.

Social	Cultural	Human	Political	Natural	Financial	Built
4. Collaborative decision making	2. Quality in business and community is a way of life	6. Realistic appraisal of community strengths	7. Awareness of community's strengths compared to competitors	8. Awareness of strengths of community's environment	3. Invest in the future	2. Quality in business and community is a way of life
5. Cooperative community spirit, working toward a common goal	5. Cooperative community spirit, working toward a common goal	10. Deliberate transition of power to younger generations	9. Active, organized approach to economic development		17.Thoughtful use of fiscal resources with focus on the future	6. Realistic appraisal of community strengths
9. Active, organized approach to economic development	11. Inclusive culture where women are seen in leadership roles	11. Inclusive culture where women are seen in leadership roles	11. Inclusive culture where women are seen in leadership roles			8. Awareness of strengths of community's environment
13. Problem solving approach to providing health-care	14. Inclusive culture where all generations are included in activities	20. Proactive in making community a good place to be	18. Access information beyond that found in community			12. Believe strongly in good schools and support for education
18. Access information beyond that found in community	15. Strong presence of traditional institutions in community life					13. Problem solving approach to providing health-care
19. Seek outside help such as grants and development contracts						15. Strong presence of traditional institutions in community life
						16. Maintenance and improvement of infrastructure a priority

Table 2. Viable Community Partners Guide: Community Examples of 20 Clues for Rural Community Survival

Abridged Clues							
1. Community pride	Local museum shows historical pride	Community festivals celebrate their heritage	Pride shown through decoration themes in community	Committee in charge community beautification	School parades	Thoughtful use of natural resources and care is given to environment	Clean streets, yards and parks
2. Emphasis on Quality in Business and Community Life	Presence of formal business organizations	A strong Chamber of Commerce maintains a city website	Classes are offered on business development and entrepreneurship	Presence of an active economic center	Presence of an active community center		
3. Invest in the future	Actively seeking new technology and resources	Local foundation for community development	Industrial park	Programs for youth development and engagement	Jobs for youth	Up-to-date educational system	Alliances with post secondary institutions
4. Participatory Approach to Community Decision Making	Focus groups and task forces are used	Presence of active civic groups	City Council meetings are open to all				
5. Cooperative Community Spirit	Presence of an active community center	Residents cooperate in community celebrations	Development of city improvement projects	Community members work concession stands at games	Strong public attendance at school games and activities		
6. Realistic Appraisal of Future Opportunities	Continuous and effective assessment of future jobs and growth	Strategic planning to optimize community strengths	Town has developed a mission statement which is visible in public	Continuous research in economic development			
7. Awareness of Competitive Positioning	Evidence of small town merchants	Awareness of niche markets which capitalize on strengths	Innovative entrepreneurship	Assessment of economic market and declines			

8. Knowledge of the Physical Environment	Tourism is promoted	Presence of community park	Organized town layout that attracts business	Assessment and improvement of infrastructure	Pictures of attractions and resources are used to advertise		
9. Active Economic Development Program	Paid community development professional	Presence of 'business incubator'	Planning is done with the region in mind	Active Chamber of Commerce			
10. Deliberate Transition of Power to Younger Generation of Leader	Presence of mentoring programs	Presence of youth involvement in local government	Entrepreneurship class offered in the high school	Service learning programs utilized to promote civic engagement	Youth civic groups are supported		
11. Acceptance of Women in Leadership	Women involved in local government	Women involved in law enforcement	Presence of female business owners	Presence of female elected officials	Women involved in educational administration	Women accepted as church leaders	
12. Strong Believe in and Support for Education:	Community support of good teachers	Community events held at the school	Strong attendance at parent/teacher conferences	Attendance of community at School Board meetings	Support by community for school fund raisers	Support for a property levy to help pay school costs	
13. Problem-solving Approach to Providing Health Care	Community-wide board is established to focus on health care	Certification opportunities for the community (CPR, first aid, etc)	A hospital or clinic is located in the community and has expert staff	Networking with specialists and special equipment (Cardiology machine comes to the community)	Allocating money to EMT, ambulance	Assisted living facility for elderly	
14. Strong Multigenerational Family Orientation	Adopt-a-Grandparent	Community celebrations passing on the traditions between generations	Intergenerational dialogues at the schools	Youth volunteers at nursing homes, etc	Volunteer Grandparents in businesses and the school	Family fun nights-with teams	Strong 4-H programs
15. Strong Presence of Traditional Institutions that are Integral to Community Life	Active community center	Support of school, involvement in local religious institution	Historical sites are celebrated and promoted	Businesses and entrepreneurship are promoted	Well-attended community dinners and social meetings		

16. Sound and Well-maintained infrastructure	Streets are improved regularly	Community budget allocates money to re-construction and town maintenance	Sidewalks and handicap accessible curbs	Continual upkeep of vacant buildings	Community wide clean-up and landscaping committees	Buildings are regularly repaired and kept up-to-date	
17. Careful Use of Fiscal Resources	Capable council treasurer	Budget planning sessions	Community fund is supported by residents	Public attendance at meetings on the budget	Strategic plans-five years	Balanced budget	
18. Sophisticated use of Information Resources	Internet service in households and schools	New computers in the schools	Community training on resource gathering and the internet	Networking with outside communities	International exchanges with similar communities		
19. Willingness to Seek Help from the Outside	Partnership with a university	Networking with outside health services	Exchange program with another state	4-H international exchange	International Sister Cities Program		
20. Convention that in the long run you have to do it yourself	Thriving grassroots networks	Presence of multigenerational businesses	Applications for grants are actively sought	Inclusive leadership style is adopted by community leaders			

MENTORING PEDAGOGY IN A LEADERSHIP CURRICULUM DESIGNED FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
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Presentation Track: Practice

Mentor relationships are significant life experiences for individual leadership development. This mentoring pedagogy emphasizes the theory and practice of successful protégé-mentor experiences to improve psycho-social and early career relationships. Through leadership class instruction and assignments Generation-Y college students learn to distinguish and analyze the leadership characteristics of mentors.

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Christopher M. Sieverdes. Dr. Chris Sieverdes is a Professor and Community Development Extension Specialist in the Department of Applied Economics and Statistics at Clemson University. Chris teaches full-time courses in leadership and community development. He is the Community and Economic Development major advisor. In addition to teaching, he serves as Director of Palmetto Leadership, conducting leadership training seminars with Extension personnel statewide. He also serves as the Clemson chapter advisor and the National Executive Director of Blue Key Honor Society.

Mentoring Pedagogy in a Leadership Curriculum Designed for College Students

Introduction

Mentor relationships impart significant life experiences. The pedagogy of mentoring has deep roots influenced by our culture and society. Success in life, and specifically success in college as part of career preparation, draws on past experiences and relationships. Self discovery and reflection are critical components of decision making for career preparation. The importance of mentoring in self-discovery and career preparation is the focus of this mentoring pedagogy.

Learner Objectives:

- Understand the role of protégé-mentor relationships in leadership development.
- Acquire knowledge about the dimensions of mentoring and the protégé-mentor relationship.
- Analyze, reflect, and report on a current or past mentor relationship and its phases.
- Aspire to seek additional mentor relationships.

Background

Akin to a historic architectural landmark, success in life depends upon building a solid foundation. To determine who you want to become, it is imperative to already know who you are. Effective leaders seek thorough self understanding and honest self evaluation prior to reaching that same level of understanding of others who they consider leading. A protégé-mentor relationship fosters self-understanding and evaluation by the protégé. The protégé over time is encouraged to engage in a series of relationships with others first as a protégé and eventually as a mentor to others. The protégé-mentor relationship can be seen as a segment of a journey during which different growth opportunities emerge and develop. Mentoring, a term with its origins in Greek mythology, has been attached to the process of education and care by an older, experienced person. This person helps the protégé overcome challenges, increase confidence, and grow personally as a part of life's journey.

In very early adulthood, on the cusp of late adolescence, traditional college students can learn by reflection. Learning is most effective when it involves both action and reflection. Early adulthood focuses on "role identity vs. role confusion" and "intimacy vs. isolation" as identified by Erickson (1963, 1968). During these early adulthood years, individuals form their occupational identity as well as their personal dreams, and are capable of forming a mentor relationship (Levinson et al., 1978).

Mentors have long been identified as a medium of learning. Reilly (1992) reflects that some students learn best in mentorship programs. Mentor relationships provide an ideal setting in which students can excel in an area of interest. Successful mentorships are not easy to establish notes Reilly. Kram (1983) identified the phases of mentorship in an occupational setting. Kram (1983) established that protégé's in early adulthood gain occupational knowledge, skills and support in both areas of psychosocial and career development from their mentor during a four stage process of 'initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition.' Phillips-Jones (1982) explored mentoring relationships and described six developmental phases in which a mentoring relationship progresses. Like

Kram, the last phase is transformational, and can become conclusive to the relationship. Development of peer-like friendships may become a primary outcome of the last stage as the protégé seeks new opportunities.

How it works

Students, mostly sophomores and juniors, enrolled in leadership classes are primarily exposed to the pedagogy of mentoring through the class lectures and self-study assignment. The class lectures on mentoring, address the value of the protégé-mentor relationship as a means to gain a richer life experience and enhance one's leadership development capacity.

The reflection essay is evaluated as partial credit for the first test grade in the course. The assignment is utilized as a study and research method to demonstrate self-discovery and reflection about the protégé-mentor relationship. It serves as a critical decision making component for students. Student feedback has indicated that this aspect of the course was very rewarding. Each student protégé states and analyzes:

- how a mentor has had an impact on his or her own leadership behavior and development.
- how the mentor "advised, taught, counseled, and influenced" the protégé "to develop leadership capabilities."
- their placement in one of Kram's Four Mentor Relationship Phases (1983).
- key decisions or successes experienced as a result of the mentor relationship.
- the contribution of a non-family mentor to stretch the protégé's capacity to achieve.

Results to date

Students have gained insights about their personal leadership development through a mentor relationship. Student illustrations confirm that mentoring by family friends, coaches, religious leaders, business operators, teachers, and community leaders play an important role during teenage and young adult years. Success in life, and specifically success in college as part of career preparation, draws on past experiences and relationships, as exemplified by student protégé Veronica Valentine:

> One of my main key decisions that I have experienced while being connected to Mrs. Carolyn Venner (teacher) is the desire to attend college. College was not the path that I wanted to choose. I had full intentions of joining the military and making that my career for the rest of my life. Mrs. Venner stepped in and proved to me that I am intelligent and I have the resources to aspire to become anything that I wish. She went above and beyond the call of duty as a mentor.

The mentoring assignment, as part of the entire mentoring pedagogy, gives students an opportunity to express themselves about new insights they have as a result of the reflection opportunity.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The protégé-mentor relationship analysis is a valuable dimension of leadership development in the classroom setting. Students need to be challenged to think about protégé-mentor relationships as they relate to leadership development capacity. They must understand the distinction between a role model and a mentor. Getting students to think beyond family role models and mentors and extend their non-family learning experiences with mentors has proven valuable to understanding the value of lifelong mentoring. The richness of leadership development and learning is the process of moving from mentor to mentor throughout life. This presentation addresses the need for a research base so that this paradigm can be shared with other professionals involved in leadership development curriculum formation at colleges and universities.

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An Undergraduate Executive Mentorship Program for Students of Color: Design, Implementation and Lessons Learned

Association of Leadership Educations
2005 Annual Conference
July 11-14, 2005
Wilmington, NC

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Presentation Track: Practice

Interactive discussion on the design, implementation and results of a mentoring program between executive mentors and undergraduate African American male protégés. The purpose of the program is preparation of students for top-level leadership positions, focusing on developing students' psychosocial identity and exposure to nuances of executive level roles and lifestyle.

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An Undergraduate Executive Mentorship Program for Students of Color: Design, Implementation and Lessons Learned

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Abstract

In 1994, the Morehouse College business department created the Executive Mentorship Program (EMP). The purpose of the EMP is to provide an opportunity for high-potential students to engage in a formal developmental relationship with top executives in business, government, and the non-profit sectors of society. The mentor/protégé relationship focuses on the psychosocial function of the mentoring experience and exposes students to the nuances of executive level organizational life. Since its inception in 1994, approximately 100 undergraduate African American male students have participated in the program. This paper will explore the design, implementation and outcomes of the EMP.

Introduction

Over the past decade, mentoring has become one of the most widely used forms of leadership development in the organizational setting (De Janasz, Dowd and Schneider, 2002; Yukl, 2002; McCauley and Van Velsor, 2004). Mentoring is defined as a unique interpersonal relationship between two individuals: a mentor and a protégé. A high-ranking, experienced and knowledgeable individual serves as the mentor. A mentor's role is to provide guidance and support to his/her protégé (De Janasz, Dowd and Schneider, 2002, pg. 268).

For African Americans, the personal benefits of mentoring as a way to achieve career advancement and success may be more intensified than for their white counterparts. This intensity is explained in Maureen Jenkins' article, "Why You Need A Mentor."

> A good deal of what's used to differentiate high-potential performers from good performers are unspoken cultural criteria like how you present yourself, work with people, and appearing to know how to behave at the next level before you get there. People of color are less likely to come out of family situations or networks where you have access to those things readily before you need them That's why mentors are especially critical for upwardly mobile African Americans (pg 82).

The purpose of the Morehouse College Executive Mentoring Program (EMP) is preparation of African American male students for top-level leadership positions, focusing on developing students' psychosocial identity and exposure to nuances of executive level roles and lifestyle.

The learning objectives of the presentation are:

- To share the design and implementation strategies of the EMP;
- To share lessons learned since the inception of the program in 1994; and
- Discuss qualitative research implications on the impact of the program on students of color.

Background

Morehouse College is the nation's only private, historically black, four-year liberal arts college for men. The mission of Morehouse College is to prepare students for leadership and success in the larger society. The mission of the College's business program is "excellence in the preparation of students for business leadership" (Morehouse College 2003-2004 catalog). As part of the business program accreditation process in 1994, new co-curricular programs were implemented to assist in the achievement of the mission of the business program. One of these programs is the EMP.

In 1994, the department chair of the Morehouse College business program saw the need to provide a leadership development experience specifically designed to accelerate the career advancement of high-potential business students. The EMP was created as a formal mentoring program with high-ranking African American executives as mentors. The primary purpose of the program was enhancing students' psychosocial functions and ability to assimilate more easily into high-level leadership positions.

How It Works

To be considered for selection as a EMP protégé, students must complete an application process. The selection criteria are GPA 3.0 or higher, sophomore level status, demonstrated leadership capabilities, and professor recommendations. A selection committee made up of business department faculty selects ten students from the application pool. The students are paired with their executive mentors at a formal dinner in April of their sophomore year. The mentoring relationship lasts throughout their junior and senior year.

EMP mentors are identified through corporate recruiting relationships, College alumni pool, and corporate supporters of the business program. Mentors are executive level professionals of color with a desire and willingness to spend time with the students. Mentors can be either male or female. Work industry and location are not used as criteria for selection, although local executives tend to be more accessible to their protégés. Mentors are not accessed a fee for participation in the EMP. However, they may be asked to sponsor a networking activity for the program, such as the April EMP dinner. Executives are asked to make a two-year commitment to the EMP. At the end of the two-year commitment, the executive can accept a new protégé or exit from the program.

Mentors and protégés are matched based on mutual interests and complimentary personality styles. The activities of the mentor and protégé pair are to be defined by the executive and student. The executive is expected to be available at least 2 hours per month. The protégé is expected to initiate contacts and follow-through on the 2 hour per month minimum contact. Average contact time is 10 to 15 hours per semester.

Typical mentor/protégé activities include dinner at the mentor’s home, attendance at professional sporting and cultural events, civic and community dinners, local and out-of-state business meetings, and outings with mentor’s family.

Results to Date

Since its inception in 1994, approximately 100 students have been selected as protégés and 60 executives have served as mentors. The gender breakdown of the mentors is 90% male and 10% female. There have been two (2) white male mentors and one (1) white female mentor.

Of the 100 students who have been selected, approximately 60% put in the time and effort to develop meaningful relationships with their mentors. Of this group, approximately half continued contact with their mentors after graduation from Morehouse.

Anecdotal data secured through discussions with mentors and protégés suggest the EMP is effective in providing mutually beneficial relationships for the mentor and protégé. Protégés say the ability to have someone at the executive level to provide words of encouragement and support, to provide opportunities for exposure, and to discuss career alternatives is invaluable. Mentors speak to the personal fulfillment and joy they receive by giving back to the next generation of African American leaders.

A qualitative study of five (5) mentor/protégée pairs from the first five (5) years of the program is currently underway to provide empirical research into the results of the EMP. The qualitative study will specifically address the perceived benefits of a formal mentoring program and the psychosocial impact of the program.

Conclusions and Future Implications

The EMP celebrated its 10-year anniversary in April 2004 at a formal dinner at the Atlanta Downtown Ritz Carlton Hotel. 18 mentors, 20 current protégés, 5 former protégés and business program faculty and senior College administrators attended the dinner. Six of the 18 mentors had been with the program since its inception in 1994-1995.

All in attendance had only high praises for the program. Executives and students overwhelmingly agreed that the EMP was a highly successful program that made a significant contribution to the leadership development process of students of color. Participants in the EMP spoke to the need to establish a similar program in both historically black and predominately white colleges for high-potential students of color. It is expected that the findings from the qualitative research study of five mentor/protégé pairs from the early years of the Morehouse College EMP will provide empirical evidence to support the establishment of formal undergraduate executive mentoring programs for students of color throughout academia.

References

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Polar Activities; activities to warm up the audience

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Presentation Track: Practice

As leadership educators, we are constantly on the lookout for new openers to use in our classrooms and meetings. The problem is searching though the endless stack of books and then trying them out to see if the activity actually works takes a lot of time. This presentation will allow you to participate in warm up activities that introduce leadership topics.

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Introduction

Leadership Educators are constantly on the search for new openers or warm up activities to use in their lectures, presentations, and/or organizational meetings. While there are a plethora of activities available, one may not have the time to search through the endless warm up activity books like *Encyclopedia of Icebreakers* or *101 Great Games and Activities*. If one does take that time to search, he/she is probably trying to find an activity that correlates to the topic at hand and then must then try the activity to make sure that it does work. Sharing activities and icebreakers among leadership educators is a great way to try a new activity to add to your collection.

Participants in this presentation will experience three openers/warm up activities that are geared towards leadership competencies. Learner objectives include:

1. Learn the difference between icebreakers and openers
2. Use openers effectively
3. Discuss and learn facilitation techniques for three openers

Participants will also take away a booklet with lesson plans and facilitation techniques for these openers.

Background

Openers/warm up activities are "like appetizers to the full meal, they allow participants to get a taste of what is to follow" (Siberman, 1998, p. 39). An interesting analogy but it makes a lot of sense. The goal of an opener is to pique the interest of your audience and get them ready for the leadership topic. Openers allow the presenter to set the tone of the presentation. Openers come in many different options. They can be very active physically, or very active mentally, or both.

When putting together a lesson plan or a workshop plan, most leadership educators have been told that you need a snappy icebreaker/opener to start things off on the right foot. Surprisingly, there is little to no data or research that shows openers are an integral part of leadership training. Experience seems to be the catalyst of the importance of using openers for training.

How it Works

The word icebreaker is usually used interchangeably with opening activity or warm up activity. This is incorrect. An icebreaker is not necessarily connected to the content of the presentation. The purpose of an icebreaker is "to help reduce tension and anxiety, energize the group, set a tone for the program, and involve everyone" (Lawson, 1998, p. 129). Openers or warm up activities are "subject-matter-oriented activities that accomplish everything that an icebreaker does and also introduces the participants" to the content of the presentation (Lawson, 1998, p.129).

The first opener uses the assumptions of the participants to the game to discuss what happens when there are preconceived notions in teams. The second opener uses zoo animals to discuss group member roles. Participants are asked to break into groups and then work together to create a new zoo and select an animal, person, or thing at the zoo that represents them. The third opener in this presentation is a different spin on diversity. In this activity, participants try to match self-reported information to people in their group.

Results to Date

All three openers have been used, successfully, in leadership workshops or leadership courses. Facilitating the openers and using probing questions are the hardest parts to master. With openers, it is important that the audience understand, at the conclusion of the activity, what the point of that activity was and the connection to the topic at hand. Openers fail when that connection is not strongly made.

Conclusions

Finding quality openers takes a lot of time and effort on the part of the leadership educator. A fun activity with a point and good content is a hard find. Sharing lucrative openers with each other is a great way to help increase the number of quality openers in ones' arsenal of activities.

References:

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