ALE Conference Proceedings

2006 – Bozeman, MT

Personal Growth as an Indicator of Community Change Through the Involvement of Community Leadership Training: A Phenomenological Study
Anita Hall, University of Nebraska

Accommodating Traditional Leadership Training Exercises for Diverse Populations
Bob Heinemann and Penny Pennington, Oklahoma State University

Leadership Studies at a Historically Black, Liberal Arts College: The Intersection of Leadership Theory, History, and the African American Cultural Experience
Belinda Johnson White, Morehouse College

Rural Leadership Development: A Synthesis of Research
Eric Kaufman and Rick Rudd, University of Florida

Combining Leadership Theory and Practice with Community Service Learning
Lynn Hertrick Leavitt, George Mason University and Kris Binard, Front Range Community College – Larimer Campus

Creating Effective Boards and Committees 101
Mike Liepold and Katie Rasmussen, University of Minnesota Extension Service

Developing Leaders: A Needs Assessment of New Faculty Mentoring at a Canadian University
Gilian H. MacPherson and James P. Mahone, University of Guelph

Assessing Student Leadership in a College Learning-Living Community
Ashley Marquart, Jennifer Williams, and Bill Weeks, Oklahoma State University

A Missed Opportunity: Leadership Education Through Student Group Advisement
Carol A. McBryde, Oklahoma State University

Creativity as a Pedagogical Tool for Teaching Leadership
Anthony Middlebrooks and Audrey Helfman, University of Delaware

Exploring the Rugged Terrains of Leadership to Build Learning Communities
Jeffrey P. Miller, Innovative Leadership Solutions & University of Indianapolis and Teresa Hogue, Cascade Center for Community Governance & Oregon State University

Leadership Curriculum used by High School Agricultural Science Instructors: A National Study
A. Christian Morgan, Oklahoma State University and Rick D. Rudd, University of Florida

Guiding Leaders of Tomorrow: Examining FFA Leadership with Member Focus Groups
Martha A. Nall and Robin Peiter Horstmeier, University of Kentucky

Fostering student-athlete leadership through the Student Athlete Advisory Committee SAAC Leadership Retreat
Bryan Patterson, University of Florida Athletic Association

1. Presenter 1st Author: **Michele Abington-Cooper**, Assistant Professor
LSU Agricultural Center
175 Knapp Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803-5477
mcooper@agcenter.lsu.edu
(225) 578-3687

2nd Author: **Joe W. Kotrlik**, Professor
School of Human Resource Education and Workforce Development
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, LA 70803-5477
kotrlik@lsu.edu
225-578-5753 (Office)
225-578-5755 (Fax)

2. Title: An Evaluation of the LSU Agricultural Center's Agricultural Leadership Development Program, 1988-2004

3. Presentation Track: Research

4. Description: This study addressed the role of the Agricultural Leadership Development Program in developing leadership competencies, positive self-concept, and positive relationships with others. The program had a positive impact on participants' self-esteem, development of selected leadership competencies, and relationships with business associates, elected officials, community leaders, family, friends, and peers.

5. Authors' Profile: **Dr. Michele Abington-Cooper** is an Assistant Professor in the Department of 4-H and Youth Development in the LSU AgCenter Cooperative Extension Service. Her responsibilities include coordinating natural resource education and outdoor skills program. She also worked with the Agricultural Leadership Program for six years.

   Dr. Joe W. Kotrlik is a Professor of Agricultural and Extension Education in the LSU School of Human Resource Education and Workforce Development. His research focuses on program and personal evaluation and improvement.

6. Paper: Paper is attached and has been prepared for double-blind peer review.

An Evaluation of the Agricultural Leadership Development Program, 1988-2004

ABSTRACT

The purpose was to determine if participants in the Agricultural Leadership Development Program developed leadership competencies, a positive self-concept, and a positive relationship with others. The target population for this study was the 252 graduates of Classes I - VIII. The participants indicated the program had a positive impact on their self-esteem. It also had a positive impact on their development of selected leadership competencies. In addition, participation in the program had a positive impact on respondents' relationships with business associates, elected officials, community leaders, family, friends, and peers. Based on the conclusions and findings in this study, the researcher found no reason to recommend major program changes. The participants perceive the program is effective and meets their needs. However, additional research is recommended using alternative methods to determine if other impacts may exist.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Agriculture and Rural Leadership Development Programs in the U.S. began in 1965 when Michigan State University received a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to begin the "Kellogg Farmer's Study Program." Michigan's program was followed by 18 additional projects in 23 states. Currently, there are 30 active programs in the U.S., 3 emerging programs, and 6 international programs (Leon Pope, 2005, personal communication). Of the original Kellogg programs, only California and Pennsylvania exist today in the same form. Over half of the programs in place at present were initiated without Kellogg support. The average age of current programs is 15 years and 9% of them have operated continuously since their beginning. By 2001 there were more than 7,500 alumnae in the U.S. The majority are male (72%) and minority participation was estimated as less than 5%. Almost half (48%) were from production agriculture, with agribusiness making up 19%. Government agencies made up 8%, people who were rural, but not directly involved in agriculture made up 7% and agricultural organizations made up 6%. The final 12% came from universities, food–related businesses, etc. (Foster, 2001).

The Agricultural Center's Agriculture Leadership Development Program

The Agricultural Leadership Development Program (Ag Leadership Program) began in 1988 to address four issues facing agriculture on the national and international scene, namely, 1) the aging farmer (average age 52), 2) the decline of the farm population (1.9% of the total U.S. population), 3) the growing urban majority's isolation from farm problems, and 4) the shift to a global economy. The Agriculture Leadership Development Program is designed for the men and women who will provide leadership for the state's food, fiber, fisheries, and agriculture-related industries. The program was established with the following three guidelines (This study only addresses the second guideline):

* Develop leaders who understand and prepare for global influences and opportunities.
* Develop leadership skills and awareness in participants so they become confident, effective communicators.
* Develop participant understanding and involvement in the social, economic, and political systems in which people strive to improve their enterprises and communities ([UNIVERSITY], 2001).

Curriculum. The Ag Leadership Program seeks to address these problems and meet its goals through 10 seminars over a two-year period. Seven three-day seminars are held on the university campus. Three are travel seminars held in Washington, D.C., Chicago, and a foreign country. Seminars address agricultural issues relating to emerging technology and its impact on U.S. agriculture, the relationship between population trends and production and consumption, agriculture in the U.S. and throughout the world, farm policy, state public policy issues relating to agriculture, foreign policy, immigration, and the global economy and markets. Leadership competencies such as leadership development; communication, public speaking, team-building skills, negotiation, and conflict resolution skills; and interpersonal relationships are an integral part of the seminars. Issues specific to this state such as natural resources, the environment, education, crime, family, and welfare reform are also addressed. Other issues covered in the seminars are state, national, and global perspectives of government and political issues; parliamentary procedure; business dress; and etiquette for business and social occasions.

Leadership: A Definition

Leadership is as difficult to define as it is to understand. Although Bass (1990, p.11), notes the word "leader" was used in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word "leadership" did not appear in the English language until the first half of the nineteenth century in writings about the political influence and control of British Parliament. And the word did not appear in most of the other modern languages until recent times. There are still languages, Ukrainian for instance, which have no word for leadership.

In the book, *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*, Bennis and Nanus (1985) acknowledge there are over 350 definitions of leadership which have evolved from decades of analysis. Bennis (1989) believes that, because leadership is an art, its full meaning is hard to grasp. To him, however, leadership is a matter of doing the right things, rather than just doing things right. He believes leadership is using the power of both the right and left brain—intuition and logic, and like beauty, leadership may be difficult to describe, but you know it when you see it.

Bass states that "…there are as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (1990, p.11). He refers to Pfeffer, in his article, The Ambiguity of Leadership, published in the Academy of Management Review in 1977, who notes that many of these definitions are ambiguous. Furthermore, according to Bavelas and Hollander & Julian (as cited in Bass, 1990, p.11), the distinction between leadership and other social-influence processes is often blurred. Bass adds that the many dimensions into which leadership has been cast and their overlapping meanings have added to the confusion. Bass also cites Spitzberg from his 1986 unpublished manuscript, Questioning Leadership, that "…the meaning of leadership may depend on the kind of institution in which it is found" (p. 11). Bass adds, however, that there is sufficient similarity among the definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification.

In The Handbook of Leadership, leadership is defined as "…an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members" (Bass, 1990, p.19). Bass believes leaders are considered agents of change, whose actions affect other people more than other people's actions affect them (1990, p.20).

Many believe leadership is influenced by whatever might be happening in society at the time. Some studies, early on, tried to define certain personality traits that would distinguish a leader from a non-leader (Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1979). Others later examined certain situations as variables related to leadership (Stogdill, as cited in Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1979) which is where the situational leadership paradigm began. This idea is also supported by Bass (1981) who believes we cannot understand leadership wholly in a vacuum. Some of the variance in leadership is due to the person/leader, some due to the situation, and some due to the assertiveness and initiative of the person/leader in a situation. He believes that there are times when the situation may be the primary determinant and others when the personal traits of the person are more important. Leadership is frequently confused with management. In his book *Getting Things Done When You Are Not in Charge*, Bellman (1992) describes leadership as having more to do with vision, intuition, and taking risks in our jobs than managing.

For the purposes of this study, this researcher chose the definition given by Raoch & Behling, "The process of influencing an organized group toward accomplishing its goals" (1984, as cited in Wren, 1995). This definition implies that leadership is shared among all members of a group which includes followers as well, a concept with which this researcher concurs.

America was founded on the concept that a nation should have a government of, by, and for the people. A democracy depends not on just a select few who are designated "leaders," but on its entire citizenry, to make it work. The same can be said of organizations, programs, and communities. Rural communities are facing complex challenges. There is a critical need for men and women who can serve as a visible resource in helping communities face social, environmental, and economic change.

Leadership and Personality

According to Fiedler & Garcia (1987), leaders need to be viewed as competent if the group is to be effective. According to their research, there is a positive correlation between the intelligence of the leader and the intelligence of the other members of a group. When intelligence was measured on standardized tests, there was a correlation of .28, which although positive, was neither high nor significant. The research of Taylor (1962) shows that people who have thought that a leader should be vastly superior to their group have been disappointed with the actuality. Those leaders frequently get ahead of their followers which can lead to misunderstandings and frustration for both the leader and the followers. When Taylor compared leaders and followers with psychological tests, the leaders were found to be consistently more self-sufficient, dominant, adjusted, and self- assured. They showed a willingness to decide upon courses of action, lead the way to action, and live with the consequences.

In his Handbook of Leadership, Bass (1990) cites 52 studies of the factors attributed to leadership. These studies showed that the most frequently occurring factors were descriptive of various skills of the leader. They included social and interpersonal skills, technical skills, administrative skills, intellectual skills, leadership effectiveness and achievement, social nearness, friendliness, supportive of the group task, and task motivation and application. Bass suggests that these factors indicate leaders differ from each other in the effective use they make of interpersonal, administrative, technical, and intellectual skills. While some leaders might be described as more task-motivated, others were more motivated to maintaining personal relationships.

The second most frequent set of factors listed in the study concerned how leaders relate to their groups. These behaviors included maintaining the cohesiveness of the group, coordination, task motivation, task performance, and high quality output. This strong concern for the group's performance, according to the study, was softened by the use of informal controls and "nurturant" behavior. Leaders were effective through maintaining a cohesive work group, maintaining coordination and teamwork, maintaining standards of performance, maintaining group freedom, and nurturant behavior (Bass, 1990, p. 85).

Factors concerned strictly with the personal characteristics of leaders were next in frequency. Leaders were described in terms of how emotionally well balanced they were; their willingness to assume responsibility; whether their conduct was ethical; their ability to communicate, readily; and whether they were dominant, energetic, experienced, courageous, and mature (Bass, 1990).

Transactional vs. Transformational Leadership

It has been said that there can be no leader if there are no followers. It can also be said that, unless a leader can effect change in his followers, he has not led them. Change is defined by Webster's New Encyclopedia of Dictionaries as, "to alter or make different" (p. 66). Transaction is defined as, "to carry through; to negotiate" (Webster, 1993, p.394). By contrast, the word transform is defined as, "to change form, nature, character, or disposition of" (Webster, 1993, p. 395). With these definitions in mind, a leader must "change" the nature, character, or disposition of his followers to be a true leader.

James MacGregor Burns first introduced a comprehensive theory to explain the differences between transactional and transformational leadership in his seminal work, Leadership, in 1978. His distinction was between political leaders. According to Burns, transactional leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsides for campaign contributions. Such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups, legislatures, and parties (Burns, 1978, p.3).

Burns noted that, while the transformational leader also recognizes the need for a political follower, he or she seeks to go further in satisfying the follower's needs, in terms of Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy. The transformational leader seeks to engage the full person or follower, resulting in mutual stimulation and elevation that "…converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents…" (Burns,1978, p.3). DuBrin (1995) contended that, although transformational leaders may have charismatic attributes, charisma is not a necessary element for transformation. Transformational leaders manage by inspiration while transactional leaders use contingent rewards and administrative actions to reinforce positive and reform negative behaviors (Bass, 1985; 1990). Burns defined transformational leadership as "…a process in which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (1978, p.3). He maintains that a chief element of transformation centers on the ability of the leader to grow the needs of the follower, making the leadership more accountable to the follower, the source of leadership. At the core of transformational leadership is the concept of transformation, or change. Burns attributes certain characteristics to transformational leadership.

Perhaps a better definition of transformational comes from Tichy and Devanna (1986) who state, "Transformation is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship…" (p. viii). They assume that transformational leaders begin with a social fabric, disrupt that environment, and then recreate the social fabric to better reflect the overall business climate (Tichy & Devanna, 1986). In the book Leadership in Organizations, Yukl (1989) describes transformational leadership as a process of micro-level and macro-level influence. He states that at the macro-level, the transformational leader takes charge of the social systems and reforms the organization by creating an appropriate power situation, while at the micro-level, the leader attends to the personalities in the organization to facilitate change at an interpersonal level.

Historical Overview of Leadership and Leadership Development Research

The study of leadership is complex, and although many authors have tried to define the term and its components, they are still not sure they have conveyed the full meaning. Stogdill (1974) compiled a Handbook of Leadership which contains the research of 3,000 studies on leadership. This was his effort to promote understanding and application of leadership research. Stogdill's original handbook was expanded and revised by Bass (1981, 1990) to include 7,500 research studies on leadership. According to Bass, the quest to understand leadership dates back to Egyptian hieroglyphics.

The research on leadership is influenced by what is happening in society as a whole. In early leadership studies researchers tried to define a personality trait or group of traits which would distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1979). Bass (1981) contends that leadership cannot be understood in a vacuum and may vary with the situation. Some leadership may occur because of the personality of the person and some due to the assertiveness and initiative of the person in a particular situation. The situation may be the primary determinant of the leadership at one time and personal traits more important at other times.

Research conducted by Stogdill (1974) suggests that, although several research instruments have tried to measure leadership, they have not been reliable for use in the selection of leaders. This research suggests that the traits and abilities required for a leader vary from one situation to another. A person's past success as a leader may be the best predictor of leadership potential. Even then, a leader who has previously been successful may fail when placed in a situation which is incompatible with his personality.

In an effort to better understand the range of skills taught or the amount of effort directed toward teaching leadership skills, Extension Service, USDA, commissioned the National Impact Study of Leadership Development in Extension (NISLDE) to describe and assess Extension's leadership development work. In phase one of this study NISLDE dealt with definitional and measurement issues. They found no explicit leadership development policy statement. Nor was there a clear definition of leadership development that actually communicated what Extension staff taught when conducting leadership development programs. The researchers found that more emphasis seems to be placed on "doing" than "understanding." Skills associated with behavioral change were taught more often than skills associated with increasing understanding. Extension staff reported giving less emphasis to skills dealing with change, diversity, and conflict (Paxton, Howell, Michael & Wong, 1993).

Evaluations of Agriculture/Rural Leadership Development Programs

The W.K. Kellogg Foundation conducted its own evaluation in 2001 by surveying over 7,500 alumni of the programs. They reported the overall impacts of these programs as: identifying and training effective leaders, building a strong leadership network, participation in local and statewide boards and councils, having influence on informing policy, promoting a broader perspective of agriculture and the food system, building a foundation for the future, greater recognition from major commodity groups, and greater civic and community involvement. Most (98%) indicated they had applied skills they had learned in their professional and personal lives. Three-fourths (74%) indicated that participation in the program contributed to success in their careers and 82%, thought participation in the program contributed to their involvement in public service. More than half (53%) thought the program had a positive impact on agricultural policies and practices and 81% thought the program has helped them to learn of other perspectives (Foster, 2001). In 2002, Carter conducted a qualitative study in which alumni from the Florida Leadership Program for Agriculture and Natural Resources were interviewed to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. The population consisted of a purposefully selected sample of past participants who represented different classes of the program. In addition to the interviews of program participants, interviews were conducted with spouses and a business associate of the participants (Carter, 2002). The author found that people skills, policy development skills, analytical skills, and personal skills were the four major themes, indicating that the participants, spouses, and business partners perceived the participants' skills in these areas had been enhanced. Similar evaluations have been conducted of agricultural leadership development programs in other states and the findings of those studies were similar to those reported here (e.g., Dhanakumar, 1993; Olson, 1992; Whent, Leising, & Tibbits, 1990).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The substantial time and financial commitment of the AgCenter, sponsors, and participants make it important that the Agricultural Leadership Development Program be of the highest quality and make the expected impact, not only upon the graduates, but also on communities and agriculture in this state. To date, except for a "Participant's Evaluation Form," completed at the end of each on-campus seminar, no formal evaluation of the program has been conducted. The program is now 16 years old and Class IX began in January 2004. There is a need for the university, the program director, the board of directors, and sponsors to evaluate whether the program is meeting its objectives.

PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose was to determine if participants in the Agricultural Leadership Development Program have become more involved in agricultural issues. The research questions were:

1. What are the personal and demographic characteristics of the graduates of the Ag Leadership Program, namely, gender, ethnicity, marital status, current age, occupation, and educational level?
2. To what extent do graduates of the Ag Leadership program perceive the program has had a positive impact on their self-concept?
3. To what extent do graduates of the Ag Leadership program perceive the program has had a positive impact on their development of selected leadership competencies?
4. To what extent do graduates the Ag Leadership Program perceive the program has had an impact on the quality of their relationships with business associates, family, friends, and their peers?

METHOD

Population. The target population was the 252 graduates of Classes I-VIII of the Agriculture Leadership Development Program and the accessible population of 243 was defined as graduates for whom correct addresses were available. Because this was a relatively small population, the researcher chose to conduct census study.

Instrumentation. The questionnaire for this study was developed from the review of the literature and from other research instruments identified in related research (Dhanakumar, 1993; Foster, 2001; Howell, 1979, 1985; Olson, 1992; Vantreese & Jones, 1993; Whent, Leising, & Tibbits, 1990). The questionnaire was validated by a panel of experts from the university and the AgCenter. It was field tested via e-mail by six graduates from the Arkansas Rural Leadership Development Program and six graduates of the Texas Agriculture Leadership Development Program. In addition, 18 members of the current Ag Leadership class (IX) were asked to fill out questionnaires. Factors analysis and reliability assessment was conducted on all scales to ensure that the scales were internally consistent and that each scale measured a single construct. Factor analysis is a data reduction technique allowing researchers to determine if many variables can be described by a few factors. It searches for a group of variables, all of which are related to each other (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). The factor analysis for each scale was conducted by extracting only a single factor for the items in each scale (i.e., forcing all items into a single factor) to determine whether it measured a common construct. All scales possessed exemplary internal consistency (Robinson, Shaver & Wrightsman, 1991) and were measuring the identified factors as intended. The researcher designated .35 *a priori* as the minimum factor loading acceptable for an item to be included in a scale because this was considered exploratory research.

Data Collection. A Human Resource Subject Exemption was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Human Research Subject Protection. The researcher gathered data through a questionnaire mailed to graduates of the Ag Leadership Program. A cover letter, the questionnaire, and a self-addressed stamped envelope were mailed, with a follow-up mailing after two weeks. The return rate was 53.9% (131 of 243). Five weeks after the first mailing a phone call was made to a random sample of 25 non-respondents asking them to respond to randomly selected questions from each sub-scale in the questionnaire. An independent *t* test was used to determine if the sample of phone respondents differed significantly from those who responded by mail. The test compared the variance of the returned sample (n = 131) to the variance of the telephone follow-up sample (n = 25; Ott, 1993). The telephone follow-up sample consisted of 25 randomly selected participants who answered the randomly selected questions by phone.

Date Analyses. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the variables in the study. Pearson and point bi-serial correlations were used to describe relationships between variables.

FINDINGS

Personal Characteristics: The age of respondents ranged from 29 to 66 years with an average age of 45.7. The data in Table 1 describe the participants in this study. The participants were primarily married white male college graduates.

Table 1. *Personal Characteristics of Graduates of the Agriculture Leadership Development Program*

Personal Characteristics		*N*	%
Gender			
Male		120	91.6
Female		10	7.6
Missing data		1	.8
	Total		100
Ethnicity			
White		128	97.7
Black		2	1.5
Hispanic		0	0
Asian		0	0
Other		0	0
Missing data		1	.8
	Total		100
Marital Status			
Married		122	93.1
Divorced		6	4.6
Never Married		2	1.5
Separated		0	0
Widowed		0	0
Missing data		1	.8
	Total		100
Educational Level			
College Graduate		72	55.0
Graduate Degree		20	15.3
High School Graduate		19	14.5
Some Post Graduate Work		10	7.6
Some College		9	6.9
Technical School Graduate		1	.8
Completed Some High School		0	0
	Total		100

Note. *N* =131

Impact of Program on Participant's Self-Concept: The data in Table 2 report the responses to the items in the scale, "Program's Impact on Participant's Self-Concept." The factor loadings indicate that all items loaded strongly on this factor and the Cronbach's alpha of .97 indicates that this scale possesses exemplary reliability according to the standards proposed by Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991). The respondents agreed that the Ag Leadership Program has had a positive impact on their self-concept (*M*= 4.22).

Table 2. *Responses to the Items in the Scale, "Program's Impact on Participants Self-Concept"*

Scale/Items	Factor Loading	*M*	*SD*

Scale/Items	Factor Loading	*M*	*SD*
The Ag Leadership Program has had a positive impact on the following aspects of my self-concept:		**4.22**	**.58**
38. My sense that I can make a difference	.72	4.40	.62
36. My belief and confidence in myself	.84	4.39	.66
37. My commitment to my life priorities	.81	4.24	.68
33. My awareness of my life priorities	.87	4.16	.73
35. My awareness of my values	.84	4.13	.74
34. My awareness of my beliefs	.84	4.05	.78

Note. 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. The grand means for each scale were interpreted as follows: Grand Mean = 1.00 – 1.49: Strongly Disagree; Grand Mean = 1.50-2.49: Disagree; Grand Mean = 2.50-3.49: Undecided; Grand Mean = 3.50-4.49: Agree; and Grand Mean = 4.50-5.00: Strongly Agree. *N* = 127; Eigenvalue = 4.06; % variance explained = 67.62; *a* = 90. The *M* and *SD* in bold are the Grand Mean and Standard Deviation for the scale.

Impact of Participation in the Ag Leadership Program on the Participant's Development of Leadership Competencies: The data in Table 3 report the responses to the items in the scale, "Program's Impact on Participants Development of Leadership Competencies in the Agriculture Leadership Program." The factor loadings indicate that all items loaded strongly on this factor and the Cronbach's alpha of .92 indicates that this scale possesses exemplary reliability according to the standards proposed by Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991). The respondents agreed that the Ag Leadership Program has had a positive impact on their development of selected leadership competencies (*M*= 4.26).

Impact of Participation in the Ag Leadership Program on the Quality of Their Relationships with Others: The data in Table 4 report the responses to the items in the scale, "Impact of Participation in the Ag Leadership Program on the Quality of Their Relationships with Business Associates, Family, Friends, and Peers." The factor loadings indicate that all items loaded strongly on this factor and the Cronbach's alpha of .91 indicates that this scale possesses exemplary reliability according to the standards proposed by Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightman (1991). The respondents agreed that the Ag Leadership Program had a positive affect on their relationships with business associates, family, friends, and peers (*M*= 4.33).

Table 3. *Responses to the Items in the Scale "Program's Impact on Participants Development of Leadership Competencies in the Agriculture Leadership Program*

Scale/Items	Factor Loading	*M*	*SD*
The Ag Leadership Program has had a positive impact on the development of my skills in the following leadership competencies:		**4.26**	**.48**
41. Communicating more effectively	.76	4.48	.59
47. Networking with others	.71	4.41	.58
46. Leading groups and organizations	.80	4.35	.65
48. Participating in community organizations	.78	4.33	.62
50. Speaking effectively in public	.68	4.31	.62
42. Developing effective groups or teams	.81	4.29	.63
40. Building strong organizations	.86	4.24	.66
43. Encouraging others to participate in community problem-solving	.67	4.23	.66
39. Analyzing problems and alternative solutions	.76	4.20	.61
45. Handling situations in which there are conflicting opinions	.77	4.19	.63
49. Seeking long-term solutions rather than quick-fixes to problems and issues	.79	4.14	.71
44. Fostering consensus building	.71	3.92	.67

Note. 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. The grand means for each scale were interpreted as follows: Grand Mean = 1.00 – 1.49: Strongly Disagree; Grand Mean = 1.50-2.49: Disagree; Grand Mean = 2.50-3.49: Undecided; Grand Mean = 3.50-4.49: Agree; and Grand Mean = 4.50-5.00: Strongly Agree. *N* = 127; Eigenvalue = 6.94; % variance explained = 57.80; *a* = 93.The *M* and *SD* in bold are the Grand Mean and Standard Deviation for the scale.

Table 4. *Responses to the Items in the Scale "Program's Impact on Participants Relationships with Others*

Scale/Items	Factor Loading	*M*	*SD*
The Ag Leadership Program has had a positive impact on my relationships with the following individuals:		**4.25**	**.55**
74. My peers	.86	4.33	.64
70. My community leaders	.82	4.26	.58
69. My business associates	.82	4.24	.66
71. My elected officials	.79	4.23	.61
73. My friends	.86	4.21	.71
72. My Family	.88	4.20	.71

Note. 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. The grand means for each scale were interpreted as follows: Grand Mean = 1.00 – 1.49: Strongly Disagree; Grand Mean = 1.50-2.49: Disagree; Grand Mean = 2.50-3.49: Undecided; Grand Mean = 3.50-4.49: Agree; and Grand Mean = 4.50-5.00: Strongly Agree. *N* =129; Eigenvalue = 4.20; %variance explained = 69.95; *a* = .91. The *M* and *SD* in bold are the Grand Mean and Standard Deviation for the scale.

CONCLUSIONS

The Ag Leadership Development Program has had a positive effect on participant's self-concept and has helped them develop selected leadership competencies. The Ag Leadership Program has also had a positive effect on participant's relationships with their business associates, community leaders, elected officials, peers, family, and friends. The participants appear to be satisfied with the leadership development component of the program. Therefore, it was concluded that the program is effective and should be continued.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The findings of this study indicate the Agriculture Leadership Development Program is accomplishing its objective of developing leadership skills and awareness in participants so they become confident, effective communicators as indicated in the Program's guidelines and no major changes are indicated. Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following additional studies should be conducted:

* Additional studies should be conducted in which leadership development is assessed using alternative methods. It is possible that the instrument used in this study may not have assessed all aspects of leadership development and other quantitative or qualitative methods should be considered. Additional studies to actually measure the leadership competencies of participants as implemented in real leadership situations should be conducted.

* Studies should be conducted to determine if the Ag Leadership program can actually take credit for the participants' self-confidence, leadership competencies, and relationships with others. Would these participants who had gone through an application, recommendation, and interview process have developed in these areas on their own without participation in the Ag Leadership Program? Is the Ag Leadership program responsible for the participants' increased leadership skills, or did the program simply attract good leaders?

* Beginning with Class X (January 2006), consideration should be given to using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory as a pre and post-assessment of participants.

* Beginning with Class XI (January 2008), consideration should be given to conducting a 360 degree assessment of the program, culminating in determining the long-term value of the program to the participants.

REFERENCES

Bass, B. (1981). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership* (Rev. Ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectation*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership* (Rev. Ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

Bellman, Geoffrey M. (1992). *Getting things done when you are not in charge*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Bennis, W. (1989). *On becoming a leader*. New York, NY: Addison-Wesley.

Burns, James M. (1978) *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Carter, H. S. (2002). Evaluation of the Florida leadership program agriculture and natural resources. *Journal of Agricultural Educator Research, 50* (1), 193-199.

Dhanakumar, V. G. (1993). *An evaluation of the impact of the Wisconsin rural leadership program (WRLP)*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Extension.

DuBrin, A.J. (1995). *Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Fiedler, F. & Garcia, J. (1987). *New approaches to effective leadership*. New York: Wiley & Son.

Foster, R. (2001, October). *Leadership for leaders in agriculture*. Symposium conducted at the annual meeting of the International Association of Programs for Agriculture Leaders, San Luis Obispo, CA.

Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2000). *How to design & evaluate research in education* (4^{th} ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Howell, R., Weir, I. & Cook, A. (1979). *Public affairs leadership development: An assessment of programs conducted in California, Michigan. Montana and Pennsylvania*. Pullman, WA: Washington State University, Dept. of Rural Sociology.

Olson, L. (1992). *Washington agriculture and forestry education foundation's impact on transformational and transactional leadership styles of participants*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.

Ott, R. L. (1993). *An introduction to statistical methods and data analysis* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Duxbury Press.

Paxon, C.M., Howell, R.E., Michael, J. A., & Wong, S.K. (1993). Leadership development in extension. *Journal of Extension, 31* (1).

Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991). Criteria for scale selection and evaluation. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.). *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (pp. 1-16). New York: Academic Press.

Stogdill, R. (1974). *Handbook of leadership.* New York, NY: Free Press.

Taylor, J. (1962). *How to select and develop leaders*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill. Pp. 22-24.

Tichy, N., & Devanna, M. (1986). *Transformational leadership*. New York, NY: Wiley.

[UNIVERSITY] AgCenter (2001). [UNIVERSITY] *AgCenter agricultural leadership development program. About the Program.* [CITY, STATE]: Author. Retrieved February 3, 2005, from http://www.[WEBSITE].com/subjects/agleadership/about.asp.html.

Webster (1993). *Webster's new encyclopedia of dictionaries*. Baltimore, MD: Ottenheimer Publishers, Inc.

Vantreese, V. L. & Jones, L.D. (1993). *An evaluation of the Philip Morris agricultural leadership development program.* Lexington, KY: University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Whent, L., Leising, J. & Tibbitts, N. (1990). *Evaluation of the California agricultural leadership program.* Davis, CA: University of California, Davis.

Wren, J. T.(Ed.) (1995). *The leader's companion*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Yukl, G.A. (1989). *Leadership in organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

ALE CONFERENCE PROPOSAL

1. Tony Andenoro
Senior Employee Development Specialist
Human Resources Department
Texas A&M University

1111 Research Parkway, Suite 126, 1255 TAMU
College Station, TX, 77843-1255Email – tandenoro@.tamu.edu
Office – 979.458.9703
Fax – 979.845.4188

2. Competencies of Leadership Professionals: A National Study of Premier Leadership Degree Programs

3. Research

4. This study examined leadership programs and their ability to prepare students for leadership positions. Data outlined the necessary leadership competencies and examined the curriculum of premier leadership degree programs. The study provided recommendations for leadership degree programs to better facilitate the learning of those interested in pursuing leadership positions.

5. Tony currently serves as the Senior Employee Development Specialist for the Employee Development area of the Human Resource Department at Texas A&M University. A native of Cleveland, Ohio, Tony earned his Bachelor of Science degree in Communication from the University of Toledo, his Master of Science in Educational Administration from Texas A&M University, and his PhD in Leadership Development from Texas A&M University. He holds certifications in Professional College Teaching, Instructional Leadership Development, Diversity Education, and Administrative Leadership. His research interests include the link between emotional intelligence and critical thinking, student development and

empowerment, the globalization of leadership curricula, and empowering leadership creativity and intelligence.

6. On the following page

COMPETENCIES OF LEADERSHIP PROFESSIONALS: A NATIONAL STUDY OF PREMIER LEADERSHIP DEGREE PROGRAMS

Anthony C. Andenoro, PhD
Senior Employee Development Specialist
Human Resources Department
Texas A&M University
1111 Research Parkway, Suite 126.27
College Station, Texas 77843-1255
979.845.9703 (phone)
979.845.4188 (fax)
tandenoro@tamu.edu

COMPETENCIES OF LEADERSHIP PROFESSIONALS: A NATIONAL STUDY OF PREMIER LEADERSHIP DEGREE PROGRAMS

INTRODUCTION

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Leadership education has been a focal point of many higher education programs and curricula for many years. However, who should teach leadership and leadership development and how it should be taught has been a constant topic of discussion for educators across the curriculum. Due to this discussion, leadership education has become decentralized and administered in a variety of different formal leadership degree programs within the academic arena. These programs include, but are not limited to public leadership, government service, holistic citizenship, master of business administration, and agricultural education programs.

As educators, our hope is that we are preparing leaders to be successful stewards of prosperity and productivity in the future. However with little cross curricular communication among formal leadership degree programs, educators across universities are providing similar instruction to their students adding unnecessary redundancy to the student degree plan. Furthermore, these educators may not be teaching critical material to their students that could prove to be valued additions to the current curricula. This situation is a potential problem as students may not be receiving the holistic education that they hope to attain in a leadership degree program. This dilemma calls for an assessment of leadership education including what is being taught, who is being taught, how it is being taught, and who is teaching it at the premier higher education institutions advancing leadership education through their formal academic programs in the United

States. With regards to the literature, an assessment could bring cross-curricular collaboration enhancing the education of our students and future leaders of society.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Current organizational mega-trends point to the emergence of a value shift that governs our global society (Barrett, 2004). This value shift includes a renewed focus on social responsibility, stewardship, service, and member fulfillment. This shift calls for a new type of leadership which incorporates the ability to comprehend and facilitate opportunities and successes for members through creative means while balancing the interests of the organization, members, and society as a whole. Barrett further explains that competitive organizations will make nurturing innovation and productivity their top priority by transforming their corporate culture (2004).

Due to this trend, leadership and leadership education will become increasingly complex for the future. Educators within formal leadership degree programs will be forced to assess their curriculum and how they are preparing leaders. This search will be incredibly difficult considering the vast number of educators across academia attempting to prepare leaders and the variety of competencies needed to be an effective leader.

Thus, it is important to examine a cross-curricular sample of highly ranked institutions and programs in their individual fields. It is also imperative to evaluate and determine how well the programs' curriculum is equipped with the competencies necessary to address the new generation of leaders, organizational mega-trends, and an ever-changing society.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine formal leadership degree programs and their ability to prepare professionals for leadership positions. This study provided data outlining the necessary competencies for leadership positions and examined the current activities and formal curricula included in three diverse premier formal leadership degree programs. This study also provided recommendations for the enhancement of current curriculum and methods in formal leadership degree programs to better facilitate the learning and empowerment of student populations interested in pursuing leadership positions.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research objectives have been satisfied through examination of data collected in this study. However for the purpose of this paper we will focus on Objectives 6, 7, and 8:

1. Describe the leadership programs based on contextual ideologies and curricula.
2. Illustrate the gatekeepers' perceptions of the leadership competencies taught and facilitated within his or her formal leadership degree program.
3. Discover and explain how the leadership programs developed these competencies.
4. Illustrate the graduates' perspectives of the program faculty and the leadership curricula's impact on development of competencies providing for success in leadership positions.
5. Illustrate the respondents' perceptions of the leadership competencies associated with their professional leadership positions.

6. Identify the necessary leadership competencies for leadership professionals based on the perceptions of the respondents.
7. Develop perspectives of global leadership priorities and accompanying competencies based on the respondents' perceptions.
8. Evaluate and recommend revisions for formal leadership degree programs.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The theoretical framework included three areas that assisted in the foundational understanding of leadership education, the "who," "what," and "how". However, it is also critically important to examine global leadership. A global perspective will provide leaders with a foundation for a productive future within dynamic societies. As perspectives become increasingly complex and more inclusive of people from diverse backgrounds, graduates will need a global perspective to manage diversity within teams to ensure for successful facilitation of activities, interactions, and organizations.

The "who" refers to the students within formal leadership degree programs and educators' theoretical understanding of those students' development. Understanding student development theory was broken into three areas. Linked to Erikson, *psychosocial theory* examines the individuals' personal and interpersonal lives (Evans, 1996). The second area is *cognitive-structural theory*. This area illuminates changes in the way that people think, but not what they think (Evans, 1996). These were derived from Piaget's work stressing the importance of heredity and environment in the intellectual development and reveal the various ways that individuals develop cognitively (1952). The third area of student development theory is *typology theory* which examines the individual differences in how people relate to the world (Evans, 1996). These are based on Jung's work addressing the individual differences which occur in mental processing. Understanding the generational differences of students is also critical for leadership educators as the student population's generational diversity increases within higher education. Hence it was important to consider this through the review of the literature to create a foundation for assessing leadership education as it relates to its student population.

The "what" was broken into two areas concerning the contents of the formal leadership degree programs and past competency-based learning assessments within higher education. When addressing leadership education it is also of fundamental importance to critically examine leadership education theory and previously developed leadership competencies. This examination provided a theoretical foundation for the justification of curricula development and usage in formal leadership degree programs. Leadership is broadly defined as a process involving influence occurring within a group context involving goal attainment (Northouse, 2001). The foundational elements of how to lead and what leadership entails emerge from this definition.

Considering the leadership competencies and the curricula currently taught is also critically important to the "what" as it provides educators with a deeper understanding of cross-curricular perspectives of leadership and hopefully will lead to better teaching and more holistic curricula. However educational systems have been criticized through out the years for their inability to develop leaders (Gardner, 1993). This perspective means that it is paramount for educators to carefully consider the curricula they develop in an attempt to teach learners the competencies that will allow for them to be successful leaders. This content hinges on several considerations, including the student's comfort with the concept of leadership, identification of the elements of leadership, acceptance that leadership is a process, a heightened awareness of the practice of leadership, establishment of the purpose of leadership, identification of individual strengths and weaknesses on the way to developing a personal leadership approach, enhancement of analytical skills, and sharing of new and emerging leadership theories (Wren, 1994; Lewis, 1995; Watt, 1995).

The third piece, the "how," includes research examining the learning preferences of students and the delivery strategies used in transferring skills to students which can be applied to "real world" settings. Hence, understanding learning preferences and approaches becomes critical to the understanding of leadership competencies and leadership education. The world of leadership education is changing. The meaning of knowing has shifted from being able to remember and repeat information to being able to find and use it (Simon, 1996). This understanding is highly applicable to leadership settings as leaders attempt to disseminate information and develop solutions to problems which have yet to have been addressed. Thus as leadership educators, it is important to understand not only the student, but how to most effectively deliver the knowledge so they can use it in an effective manner.

The final piece of this area of the theoretical foundation examines the emerging priority of global or international focus within leadership education. 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 education 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 there has only been a superficial examination of how educators can teach and empower global leadership within 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 ever dynamic societies.

METHODOLOGY

This study utilized the qualitative research paradigm in order to study the interrelationships holistically. The data collected in this study provided insight into what leadership competencies were valued and taught by highly ranked diverse undergraduate and graduate academic programs. The programs were selected based on their excellent national reputation, faculty, scholarship, national service, graduate success, and overall program experience. The respondent perspectives obtained through assessments of these programs were then examined from a constant comparative perspective (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993). The gatekeepers and graduates of these highly motivated academic programs identified the necessary competencies for success after graduation in the leadership work force. This examination allowed for holistic impressions to be made about curriculum revision and enhancement that added to the foundation and future of leadership education.

A purposive sample was used to maximize the range of specific information that could be attained from and about the context. The purposive sample allowed me to purposely seek typical and divergent data and insights to capture the essence of the situation.

My respondents included the program coordinators from three premier formal leadership degree programs. The program coordinators or gatekeepers provided me with perspective of what leadership competencies were prioritized at highly ranked programs and what curricula was currently being addressed to aid in the preparation of leaders through competency development. My respondents also included graduates of these highly ranked programs who were currently serving in a leadership capacity. They provided perspectives of their academic programs, including their perceptions of the program's effectiveness in preparing the graduates for leadership positions, and if they saw any gaps in the curricula relating to what they felt were the necessary leadership competencies for success as a leader.

My methods of data collection consisted of telephone and face to face interviews with the purposive sample listed above and document analysis of curricula summaries and common degree plans. I completed a triangulation process addressing the program coordinators' perspectives, graduates' perspectives, and document analysis of curriculum.

It is paramount to establish trustworthiness for this study. Hence, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were essential (Erlandson, et al. 1993). Credibility was met through persistent observation, triangulation, referential adequacy materials, peer debriefing, and member checks. I used persistent observation by constantly interpreting within the context in different ways. Triangulation assisted in establishing trustworthiness by collecting data from varying perspectives, specifically by addressing the program coordinators' perspectives, learners or graduates' perspectives, and document analysis of curriculum. Referential adequacy materials further provided my study with credibility as I was able to reference my materials through recorded interviews and field notes. Peer debriefing also established credibility as I discussed my research and findings with my committee members to provide for other perspectives within the context. Member checks with the respondents permitted me to verify data before including it in my final report. I used thick description by expressing my data with sufficient detail so others could tell if data is applicable to their own studies and data. I included a dependability audit so an external reviewer could check the sources of data using an audit trail, which provided interview notes and logistical details for data.

Data were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glasser & Struass, 1967). This method starts to generate theoretical properties of the category which provide an understanding of the data and how it relates to and affects other categories. It is incredibly useful because it provided grounding for the study, adding to trustworthiness of the research. I communicated these results through case study reporting, as it allowed the reporting of multiple realities and interactions with the site to promote transferability to other sites.

RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, & RECOMMENDATIONS

Cross-case analysis brings together the most critical pieces of multiple case study research (Yin, 2003). Thus, this form of analysis is critical to this study as it allows for impressions to be formed of the necessary components of multidisciplinary formal leadership degree programs. The cross-case analysis examined the triangulated data of the three contexts, the findings of this research suggests conclusions about leadership education, the critical competencies necessary for student development and success within formal leadership degree programs, and recommendations for the future of leadership development. Due to the nature of this research, the significant findings are presented along with the researcher's conclusions and recommendations for each of the three research objectives noted for this paper.

Research Objective Six

Identify the necessary leadership competencies for leadership professionals based on the perceptions of the respondents

Based on the perceptions of the gatekeepers and graduates, and confirmed by the summary of the literature, the following are noted as leadership competencies necessary for development within formal leadership degree programs to aid in the development of future successful leaders. These competencies have been characterized based on a two faceted approach recommended for holistic leadership development: personal development, organizational development, and civic development. *Etic competencies* refer to those competencies relating to features or items targeted for development which can be considered outside of their role within a leadership system. *Emic competencies* refer to those competencies relating to features or items targeted for development with respect to their role within a leadership system.

Etic Competencies

- Understanding for Self, Values, & Strengths
- Communication Skills (Written & Verbal)

- Ability to Address Situations & People with Respect to Individualism & Diversity
- Dynamic Viewpoint of Complex Political Issues
- Ability to Use Reflection as a Means of Understanding & Sharing Knowledge

Emic Competencies

- Foundation of Leadership Theory
- Understanding for & Ability to Manage Change
- Understanding of International Perspectives
- Understanding for, Ability to Work with, & Establish Relationships with Diverse Populations
- Ability to Vision, Strategize & Define Organizational Goals
- Understanding of Organizational Behavior Theory
- A Philosophy of Power, Empowerment, and Social Dynamics
- Fluency for Public Discourse & the Ability to Solve Problems within Groups
- Understanding of Social Entrepreneurism as it Relates to Contemporary Societal Issues
- Understanding of Engaged Citizenship
- Understanding for the Historical Leadership Issues

Development of *etic competencies* aid in the critical personal development of the individual, while *emic competencies* assist students in developing competencies which will provide a successful foundation for organizational leadership and involvement.

However, foundationally, it is important to note the third context's contention of a moral framework from which to design courses from. It is the recommendation that courses build from a foundation rooted in the idea of ethical decision making and bound by the moral fiber of good practice. Dewey (1938) wrote that education must begin with purpose with an end in mind. "Moral purpose is about both ends and means" (Fullan, 2001, p. 13). Thus, I would advocate that leadership education must do the same, and if our end is civically engaged successful leaders, then our purpose is found in a moral foundation.

Research Objective Seven

Develop perspectives of global leadership priorities and accompanying competencies based on the respondents' perceptions

Based on the respondents' perceptions and the summary of the literature, it is essential for leadership educators to develop global perspectives and skills to be successful in leadership positions. Respondents from all three contexts noted the important of global perspective in leadership situations. It was determined that with the ever increasing technological advances, the world's view is changing and becoming much smaller. Through the use of technology, information is readily accessible and communication can be facilitated asynchronously. This perspective lessens idea of local decision making and perspective. The program coordinator from context two identified that society is approaching a new age where local and state decisions will have global impact. These decisions will have social, economic, civic, and environmental conditions (Jacoby, 1996).

With the influence of globalization and technology requiring new paradigms and new leadership competencies (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004) and the expectation that global managers master an ever-expanding range of knowledge and skills (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2003), educators will have a difficult time empowering true global leadership development. The challenge existing to design and execute educational curricula to develop global leaders was noted within the first context as the program coordinator explained that globalization of curriculum and student perspectives is an ever growing priority. It was also noted by those within Context II that global perspectives are inseparable from leadership curricula as educators attempt to create holistic leaders for the future. The respondents of Context III advocated that globalization is a major concern and activities such as immersion exercises, along with multiple methods as noted will aid in the development of global leaders. This perspective was validated by DiStefano and Maznevski (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 ever dynamic societies. Along with idea Bueno and Tubbs' (2004) list six competencies for success in global leadership communication skills, motivation to learn, flexibility, open-mindedness, respect for others, and sensitivity, competencies can be extrapolated from the responses provided and emerging themes . If leaders are continually challenged to use global perspectives, then it is imperative that leadership educators provide learners with the tools to effectively develop these competencies in an increasingly global society. The following is an interpretation of the shared global competencies listed by Bueno and Tubbs (2004) and the respondents from the three contexts for success in global leadership.

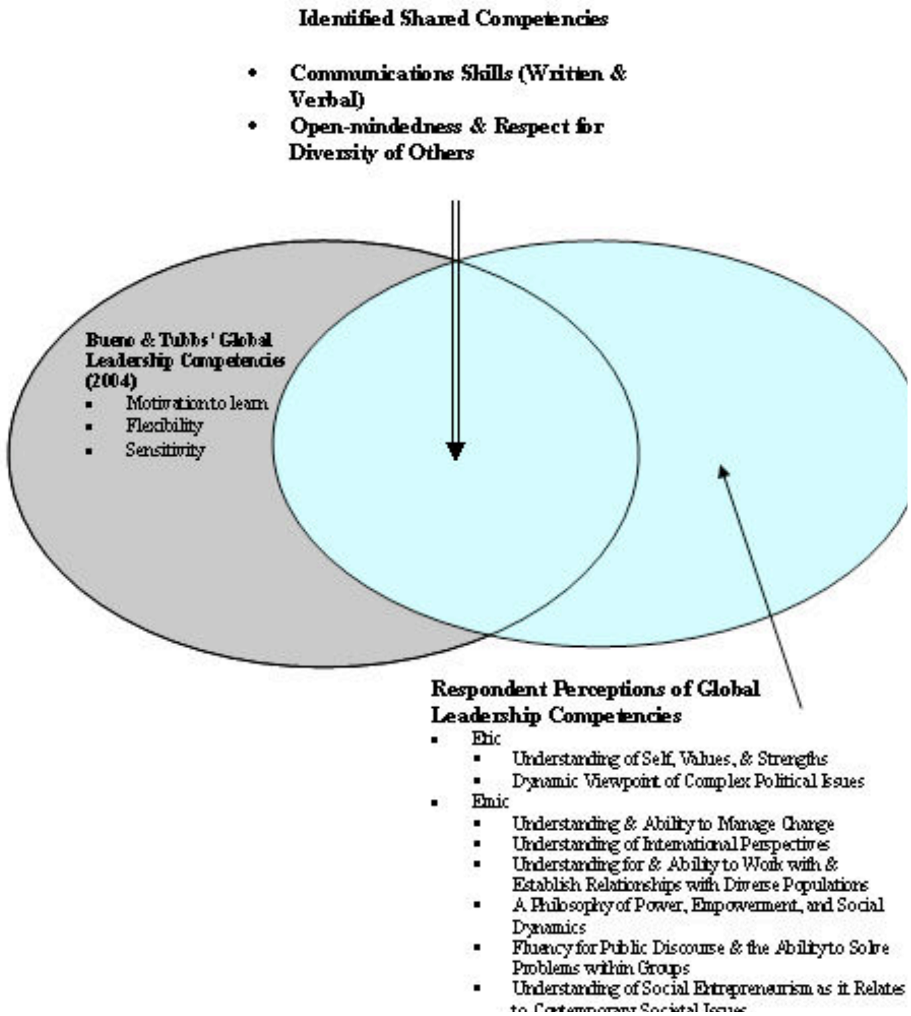


Figure 1. Identified Global Leadership Competencies as Noted for Global Leadership Success as Perceived by the Respondents and Bueno & Tubbs (2004).

Due to the emerging priority of global leadership, I would advocate that leadership education adopt a synergistic balance of leadership competencies and international perspectives built to develop global leaders for the future. I would also advocate that this balance be built from a foundation of moral purpose and developed through a series of immersion exercises and service-learning opportunities. Leadership educators are asked to provide a delicate balance of challenge and support as students embark upon an experiential adventure into learning. This delicate balance of challenge and support was first identified by Sanford (1962). Knefelkamp (1974), further defined this idea stating that an educator must challenge, however if the challenge becomes too great the student will retreat, but if the support provided is too great, it will impede the challenge and the student will stagnate.

Research Objective Eight

Evaluate and recommend revisions for formal leadership degree programs

Based on the literature and respondent perspectives four recommendations can be made for the revision of leadership education. These revisions are expansion of current curricula, renewed focus and attention to global perspective, enhanced faculty development opportunities, and grounding in moral and ethical purpose.

Expansion of Current Curricula

It was noted by respondents within all three contexts that curricula must be expanded to include certain key ingredients for the development of leadership competencies. Within the first context it was noted that the inclusion of contemporary leadership theory, such as Servant-Leadership, could enhance the current curriculum. Courses which attempt to develop critical and creative thinking skills were also identified for curricula enhancement. More defined communication courses were also identified as potential means for leadership skill development within the curricula. Within the second context it was suggested that the courses be developed including, group dynamics, political psychology, human resource management, conflict resolution, and collective bargaining. Noting that the context offers a great conflict resolution program, graduates addressed the possibility of collaborative courses which allow for the solution focused application of theory. It was also identified that a better understanding for group dynamics would add to their small group interactions which the encounter daily in their leadership positions.

Renewed Focus & Attention to Global Perspective

This area was a foundational consideration for all three contexts and noted as a critical priority for the future of leadership education. This idea was validated by the research defining that the influence of globalization and technology requires new paradigms and new leadership competencies (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004). Leadership education must address the perspectives which encompass the dynamic ideologies and perceptions of our world's societies and, as such, educators must teach and empower global leadership within learners. I would advocate that the competencies listed by Bueno and Tubbs (2004), communication skills, motivation to learn, flexibility, open-mindedness, respect for others, and sensitivity, be developed within leadership education to ensure for successful future international interactions. Immersion and service-learning opportunities should also be considered here for development of individuals both personally and professionally. These experiences can have a tremendous impact and change student perspectives, providing them with more holistic foundations of thought.

Faculty Development

With the insurgence of a need for global perspective and the dynamic student populations, educators will need to become more adept with technology, student development theory, and active learning practices. I would advocate that faculty be charged with addressing not only what to teach but how to teach it. This charge is critical with regards to our student's development and engagement.

It is also recommended that faculty develop an understanding for mentorship and the delicate balance of challenge and support as outlined by Sanford (1962). This understanding can then be developed into ability which will provide a solid foundation for student learning.

Finally, educators must collaborate. Collaboration is essential as there is no singular pot from which to distribute leadership education. Leadership education has grown with the growth of society and, as such the charge must be divided equally amongst the academic arena. Departments of Public Policy, Communication, Agriculture, Business, Sociology, Psychology, Education, and Political Science must combine forces to effectively manage the breath of leadership education.

Grounding in Moral and Ethical Purpose

Somewhere along the way the altruistic nature of leadership was lost on the idiosyncratic perspective of management. As noted by Bennis and Nanus (1985), managers do things right, but leaders do the right things. This statement is critical to consider for leadership education. Leaders need a moral foundation from which to make decisions. Thus, it is critical for leadership educators to ensure that leadership education is immersed in a pool of moral purpose. I would advocate that all courses examine practice from the question of “why do leaders act in the capacity that they do”. The examination can provide for moral and philosophical debate leading to better practice and application of leadership theory, ultimately resulting greater organizational and follower development.

The Foundational Approach to Leadership Development Model

Based on these four recommendations for development, I have created a model to demonstrate the practical application of leadership education and enhance the development of leadership competencies with students enrolled in formal leadership degree programs. The model is a vertically progressive example of how leadership development can be administered. The bottom level of this model is the *leadership educators*. Without a foundational, a building will fall. This is the idea behind placing the leadership educators at the base of the model, as they provide the structure and support for leadership development. Without leadership educators, leadership development does not take place.

The next level expresses the need for constant and intensive *faculty development and collaboration* to assist as a foundational element for success in leadership development. Faculty members are asked to assess, evaluate, and revise practice based on the newest and most innovative means of teaching and communicating, and with regards to student development theory. As noted by the literature (Fritz & Brown, 1998) and the respondents from all three contexts, it is absolutely critical for faculty to create cross curricular bonds which will enhance collaborative opportunities. Through development and collaboration, faculty will establish the most effective means for leadership development.

The next level demonstrates the *designed curriculum* that was identified by the respondents as critical to the development of leadership competencies within students. These courses then pass through the *global foundations filter*. This filter is a reminder that due to the importance of global leadership perspectives and priorities, educators must globalize or incorporate perspectives of global situations and international perspective within their curriculum.

Activities I refers to the activities which engage students in a comfortable low-risk environment. These curricular-activities provide students with challenges, but balance support to assist in the foundational development of students and their ability to lead. Following these, a line of reflection is drawn to account for real learning. Jacoby (1996) noted that learning and development do not necessarily occur as a result of experience itself but as a result of a reflective component specifically designed to foster learning and development. Thus, it is absolutely critical for leadership learning and development to encompass a component of reflection.

Next the progression moves through another filter titled, the *moral and ethical foundations filter*. This filter was chosen as a necessary part for leadership development because moral and ethical decision making is critical to the leadership process. Without this foundational filter educational materials can be delivered within a context left open for interpretation by the students and ungrounded in the moral fiber of ethical decision making.

The next set of activities, Activities II, calls for application of the information, knowledge, and skills garnered earlier in the progression of the model. These activities are characterized by a developing level of challenge exhibited by more professional, higher risk activities. These activities, although higher risk, are still highly supportive and coordinated by faculty members. This stage of activities is also followed by a line of reflection. Reflection is necessary, because regardless of the activity and risk level, it is essential to reflect to ensure for a well nurtured learning experience.

The *Capstone Experience*, as it alludes to, is a culminating experience where a student is forced to apply all the given knowledge and skills achieved within the leadership development progression. I would advocate that this experience should encompass creation of a civically minded research service learning project within their community, state, nation, or abroad. This experience should be a “real grassroots” experience, providing students with an understanding of how to empower change through assessment, creation, implementation, and evaluation of a program. The faculty member’s challenge becomes more central to the experience, as students are forced to seek out solutions and information on their own. This experience can be frustrating for students as they expect information and resources to be provided for them. However, if administered properly, the experience will provide them with the experience and confidence to succeed as *engaged civic leaders* within society, the final level of the progression.

The following has been termed the Foundational Approach to Leadership Development. The word choice for this model was intentional in its origins. “Foundational Approach” implies active engagement of students through dynamic means and “Development” was used as it implies the inescapable connection between student development and leadership education.

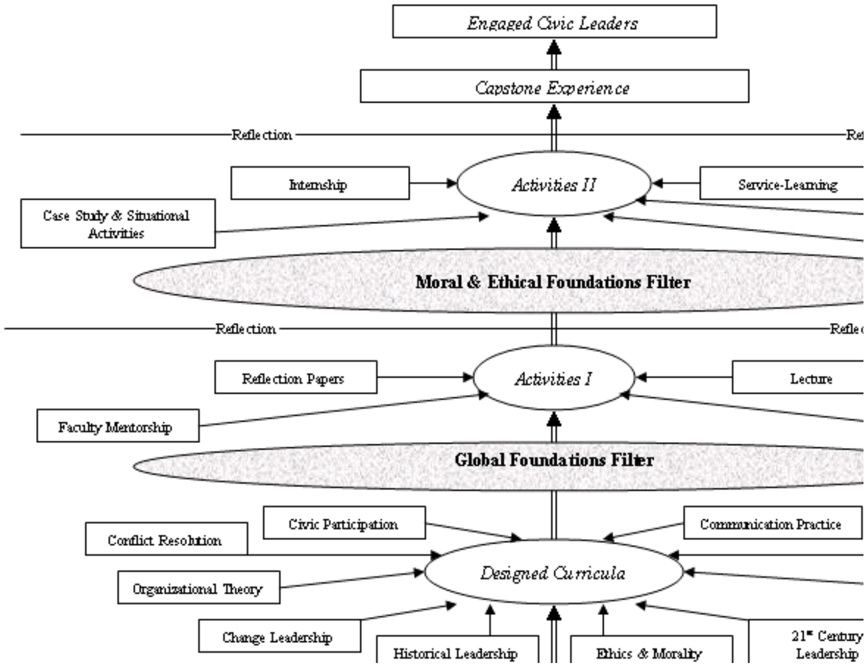


Figure 2. The Foundational Approach to Leadership Development.

REFERENCES

Barrett, R. (2004). Mega trends for the future of work: building a successful corporate climate. Retrieved September 8, 2004 from http://richardbarrett.net/download/future_of_work.pdf

Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Bueno, C. M., & Tubbs, S. L. (September, 2004). Identifying global leadership competencies: an exploratory study. *The Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge, 5*, 1/2. 80-88.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

DiStefano, J. J. & Maznevski, M. L. (2003). Developing global managers: integrating theory, behavior, data, and performance. *Advances in Global Leadership*, *3,* 341-371.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Evans, N. J. (1996). Theories of student development. In S.R. Komives, D.B. Woodward Jr., & Associates, *Student services: a handbook for the profession* (3rd ed., pp. 164-187). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Fritz, S. M. & Brown, F. W. (1998). Leadership education courses and programs in departments of agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 59*, (3). 57-62.

Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Gardner, J. W. (1993). *On leadership*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Glasser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Hawthorne, NY: Aldine.

Jacoby, B., & Associates, (1996). *Service-learning in higher education: Concepts and practices.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Knefelkamp, L. L. (1974). *Development instruction: Fostering intellectual and personal growth in college students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Lewis, C. T. (1995). The grammar of leadership education. *The Journal of Leadership Education, 2*(1), 3-12.

Northhouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership: theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. New York, NY: University International Press.

Sanford, N. (1967). *Where colleges fail: A study of the student as a person*. San Franscisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Simon, H. A. (1996). Observations on the sciences of science learning. Paper prepared for the Committee on Developments in the Science of Learning for the Sciences of Science Learning: An Interdisciplinary Discussion. Department of Psychology, Carnegie Mellon University.

Watt, W. M. (1995). Teaching essential behaviors of leadership: a rationale and syllabus. *The Journal of Leadership Studies. 2*(1), 149-161.

Wren, J. T. (1994). Teaching leadership: the art of the possible. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*. 1(2), 71

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Applications of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Association of Leadership Educators Conference
Big Sky, Montana
July 9-12, 2006

Evetta Armstrong
Doctoral Candidate, Adult Education
University of Georgia
Athens, GA

Christine A. Langone, Professor
University of Georgia
112 Four Towers
Athens, GA 30605
clangone@uga.edu
706-542-0715

Title: Reflections on Teaching Leadership: A First Time Teacher's Perspective

Presentation Track: Application

50-Word Description:

Teaching leadership for the first time can be a daunting experience with unique challenges. Learning from the experience of others can be helpful in learning the process. This paper is designed to facilitate the new teacher's experience by sharing a first-time teacher's experience and identifying personal and pedagogical concerns in teaching leadership at the college level.

Biographic Profiles:

Ms. Evetta Armstrong is a doctoral candidate in Adult Education at the University of Georgia. She currently serves as Graduate Teaching Assistant to Dr. Chris Langone teaching the Leadership and Service course. Ms. Armstrong has a B.S. degree in Computer Science and an M.A. Christian Education. During her work in these fields, she has extensive experience in volunteer and community service, coaching leaders in strategic planning and problem solving, and consulting in organizational development.

Dr. Christine Langone is Professor of Leadership at the University of Georgia. She also serves as Director of the Certificate in Leadership and Service Program (ICLS). She teaches graduate and undergraduate courses in leadership and organizational development. Dr. Langone is a charter member of ALE, has served as President and Board member, and was awarded the ALE Distinguished Service Award in 1999.

Paper

Introduction

With the increased need for leadership development courses in higher education comes the need for more faculty to teach. Increasingly, colleges and universities are training leadership educators, yet many faculty join the field from other disciplines. Whatever one's previous background and experience, teaching leadership for the first time can be a daunting experience with unique challenges. Learning from the experience of others can be helpful in learning the process. This paper is designed to facilitate the new teacher's experience by:

- Sharing a first-time teacher's experience for others to learn from;
- Identify personal and pedagogical concerns in teaching leadership at the college level;
- Identify strategies for effectively teaching leadership.

Background

The Leadership and Service program at the University of Georgia is designed to enhance the leadership development experience of students in all majors at the University. The foundation course, Leadership and Service, is open to any student and is offered every semester. Classes typically have 25-30 students who range from freshman to seniors. The course is either taken as an elective in a student's major or as the required foundation class for students in the Certificate in Leadership and Service program (See www.uga.edu/icls for complete information about this program).

Course content includes leadership theory, the leader as an individual (perception, mind and heart), ethics, communication, motivation, leading teams, diversity, and strategic planning. A key focus of the class is on strategic leadership and community needs assessment aimed at addressing community needs through team service projects. The class format allows for both knowledge and process building with time devoted to small group discussions, personal development, and personal reflection.

Being first year teacher of leadership provides a variety of decisions and challenges. In order for others to learn from one teacher's experience, we have captured the thoughts and reflections of a graduate teaching assistant who taught Leadership and Service for the first time in the fall of 2005. Ms. Armstrong has a diverse career in computers and staff development, but was new to the process of teaching leadership in a university setting.

How It Works (Reflections on Teaching for the First Time)

Teaching leadership and service for the first time last semester was a very rewarding and self-revealing experience. I learned from my challenges as well as from my successes how to become more effective in teaching leadership.

<u>Students as Adult Learners</u>

I discovered that teaching and learning is a dual process. The two processes are not mutually exclusive of each other, but they contribute to a greater awareness of the scholarship of teaching! Students are not only taught but they are peers, collaborators and co-learners. I view them as adults therefore, I do not approach the learning environment from a purely pedagogical perspective, but also from an andragogical (Knowles, 1980, 1984a, 1984b, 1990; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998) perspective. Many of them have been leaders in high school, on the college campus, at their local church or synagogue. Therefore, I value their experiences as young adults, realizing there is no experience that is insignificant and those experiences are what have made them who they are today. According to the andragogical view, there are several basic assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners as delineated by Malcolm Knowles: 1) Adults tend to be self-directing. 2) Adults have a rich reservoir of experience that can serve as a resource for learning. 3) Since adults' readiness to learn is frequently affected by their need to know or do something, they tend to have a life-, task-, or problem-centered orientation to learning as contrasted to a subject-matter orientation. 4) Adults are generally motivated to learn due to internal or intrinsic factors as opposed to external or extrinsic forces. Although over the years there has been discussion regarding pedagogy versus andragogy, the andragogical model has strongly influenced the adult education field, with one result being the assumption teaching adults should differ from teaching children and adolescents.

<u>Learning from Others</u>

Teaching a course for the first time does not have to be an individualistic endeavor. What is meant by an individualistic endeavor is that it has been most valuable and rewarding when I was able to collaborate with Dr. Langone, the professor for the course. As a graduate teaching assistant, I embraced the idea that I did not have to know it all, but I had a mentor that would guide me through many of the thoughts and concerns I had as a first time teacher of leadership. I thoroughly liked the idea of having Dr. Langone mentor me and serve as a sounding board regarding concerns and successes experienced in the course—bar none!

Also, learning from my learners has taught me about knowing when and how to change my practices by simultaneously focusing on specific outcomes for them as well as for myself. For instance, when I realized many of my students wanted to develop better skills in their leadership practices, I began to shift my focus on skill based and not just theory based learning. Not that I have mastered the art of teaching and learning, but below I share some of my experiences as a first time teacher teaching Leadership and service.

Going online looking at other syllabi was also a tremendous aid in helping me to decide what I would like to incorporate in the course that may be congruent with my own teaching style. In addition, not only did I look at syllabi, but I also looked at leadership workshop topics, programs at other colleges and institutes to determine what was consistently the most important elements others were teaching and learning about leadership and service. There is a wealth of resources available to guide the process.

<u>Challenges Faced</u>

Student Expectations

It was a rude awakening that there were a few students who thought of the course as an easy "A" and a no brain elective. Many of the students looked at the course key which indicated the percentage of "A's" received in the course, and made the assumption it was an easy course. However, what they did not take into consideration was that those "A's" were earned grades based on exams, papers, etc. Therefore, initially getting them to see the relevance as well as how it can inform many of the challenges they may encounter in their current or future employment took extra work on my part. I wanted them to take me and this course seriously, so I had to extend myself and in most cases go the extra distance to get their buy in and commitment. As a graduate teaching assistant, I came to the classroom with assumptions about what the students thought of me, in terms of my experience since I was only the "instructor" for the course rather than the "professor" for the course. When I entered the classroom I felt like I needed to extend myself more to validate being there. Not to mention, I was an African American woman and on this campus minority faculty was just that, a minority--I had my own concerns to work through. I talked about my experiences more rather than giving an abstract example of a theory or problem in leadership. Although by the end of the semester most of the students had made the commitment to the class, I had to come to the realization that there were some students who weren't and that was ok. It wasn't a reflection on me and my ability, but on them and where they were in life at the time.

Teaching Methods

In some cases it was a challenge to face my own demons of not being sure if I was approaching issues in the classroom properly. However, I realized in most cases it's a trial and error approach to most of the concerns I may have had. For example, when the students complained about having to sit through my PowerPoint presentations, I had to realize for some, it was an actual problem. However, once talked about it with Dr. Langone, I was clear in understanding that I cannot please all of the students all the time. An important realization is that different learners learn differently. But even with that understanding, I felt I needed to explain to them my methods of teaching. It was my goal to meet each of them where they were and utilize multiple methods of teaching.

Facilitation

Being a good facilitator is a great skill to have or develop. When using a more democratic learning environment, it is important to be able to guide the discussion in the direction that is foundational to good learning. The teacher's role as a facilitator of discussion and learning develops creativity and problem solving (McKeachie, 2002). According to Adams (2005), facilitation is a core leadership skill. Therefore, modeling the process in the classroom serves the dual purpose of enhancing the learning environment and encouraging this important leadership skill. Sometimes it is difficult to determine if students have a concept or rather if their leadership paradigm is consistent with what is being taught. Therefore, the only means of determining this is through guided discussion. When taking an exam, the students are only responding to what is right or wrong. Thus, there is no way of determining whether there is a personal paradigm shift in their thinking. When facilitating a discussion you must be prepared for questions you may not have answers to, the discussion going in an unexpected direction, and the ability to allow for open discussion but to be able to get back on course. Basically, in most cases it is giving up complete control of the class while making certain it is a safe environment for all of your students. The course then becomes more of a collaborative effort on both the students' and teachers' part.

Grading

The way I arranged the course was based primarily on personal reflection and writing papers. I did not administer tests or quizzes, therefore, the grading was time consuming and subjective. As an adult educator, I was concerned about the "banking" system popularized by Paolo Freire (1993). He postulates, that traditional education is an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Therefore, the banking concept of learning discourages active participation, which in turn discourages self-directedness and critical thinking, since the student would only be withdrawing for a quiz or exam. Nevertheless, in some cases I found it difficult to be objective in grading essays as a result of looking at student's attendance and participation in the course.

Personal perspectives

It wasn't just theoretical knowledge it was also personal lessons I learned as a leader that made it easier to teach the course. I came to the learning context having had leadership experiences in the field. Also, because a focus of the course was civic engagement, my own personal commitment to social and global responsibility was also a plus which I believe was transferred to the students as a legitimate need and concern.

Results to Date

The course received very high evaluations from students. We were both pleased with the results of the class, both in process and content. Below are comments from students' evaluations:

- Coming into this class I thought it would be an easy A but I did not realize that I was about to learn so much. Ms. Armstrong presented me with difficult, yet interesting assignments that helped me in more ways that I could imagine. I leave this course with a sense of knowing myself better as a person and as a leader. I feel this class has actually taught me something meaningful that i will use later in life. A GREAT course!

- Ms. Armstrong always showed up to class filled with happinness and cheer. No matter how bad her day might have been, she always showed a positive attitude and set an example for us all. She is one of the smartest ladies i have ever had the pleasure of knowing. I wish that all instructors were as caring as she is.

- This course was one of two of my favorite classes in college. I feel that I have been prepared for my future role in the leadership of whatever corporation I make a career in.

- We were allowed to discuss the material as it related to our lives. We were asked to do an evaluation of what we had learned before we came to each class. This was a wonderful way to make us really think about the material and a great way to ensure that everyone was doing their part to prepare for class. Also, the project that we did at the end of the semester really brought everything together and let us used what we learned in a practical way.

- Ms. Armstrong is very passionate about leadership and this really enhanced her teaching. Her passion flowed over into us as students and made for a great learning environment.

- The instructor was great. She handled conflict in the class with proffesilonsm. She taught us a lot more than what was in the book. She showed us how to apply the information to what we were going to in our life.

- This is a very informative class for any major to take.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Every teacher of leadership will approach the topic differently. However, the process of engaging students and moving beyond rote memorization of facts to personal development requires unique teaching strategies. This paper has outlined one teacher's first attempt and provided tips for other leadership educators. Final recommendations are:

- Do not approach the process as a lone ranger. There is a wealth and breadth of knowledge and experience that can be gleaned from those who have done it before which could save time and much frustration.
- Don't be afraid to try other teaching techniques or even incorporate assignments that may be outside of a personal norm. As I previously mentioned, I was not favorable of lecturing in the class. However, there were times when I had much information that was complicated and had only a short period to explain the concept. It was during those times, I had to step out of what was comfortable for me and give a mini-lecture.
- It's important to be student centered rather than teacher centered. Considering leadership and service is not only what we know and learn, but it is also what we do. Therefore, not only focusing on what is leadership and service, but also how does the learner practically apply it to everyday occurrences according to what they know about themselves and their own skill set.
- Valuing the student and their previous leadership experiences is crucial. There is no such thing as insignificant leadership experience. When the student is able to reflect on or talk about their own experiences even while they were in high school it helps them contextualize new theoretical concepts.
- A genuine love for the students, the subject matter and the art of teaching and learning goes a very long way.
- Have fun, have fun, have fun!

References

Adams, J. R. (2005). *Facilitation skills for the community leadership practitioner.* ALE annual conference, Wilmington, NC, July 11-14. http://www.leadershipeducators.org/2005/adams.pdf

Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (New rev. 20th-Anniversary ed.). New York: Continuum.

Glynn, S. M (2001). The psychology of teaching. In Stephenson, F. J. (Ed.) *Extraordinary teachers*. Kansas City: Andrews McMeel Publishing.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education : from pedagogy to andragogy* (Rev. and updat ed.). New York: Cambridge The Adult Education Company.

Knowles, M. S. (1984a). *The adult learner : a neglected species* (3rd ed.). Houston: Gulf Pub. Co. Book Division.

Knowles, M. S. (1984b). *Andragogy in action* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Knowles, M. S. (1990). *The adult learner : a neglected species* (4th ed.). Houston: Gulf Pub. Co.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (1998). *The adult learner : the definitive classic in adult education and human resource development* (5th ed.). Houston, Tex.: Gulf Pub. Co.

Mc Keachie, W. J. (2002). *McKeachie's teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Practice Presentation Proposal

1. **Name of Presenters:** M. Balschweid, L. Vallade, C. Brady, E. Pajor, and M. Russell

Mark Balschweid, Associate Professor of Youth Development & Agricultural Education
615 W. State St., Room 214, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907-2053
markb@purdue.edu, 765-494-8423, Fax: 765-496-1152

Co-Presenter's names
Linda Vallade, Program Leader for Study Abroad in International Programs in Agriculture.
AGADM Building, Room 26, 615 West State St., West Lafayette IN 47907-2053
valladel@purdue.edu, 765-494-9690, Fax: 765-494-9347

Mark Russell – *Contact Person* because Dr. Balschweid is on sabbatical in Jamaica.
125 S. Russell St., # 112, West Lafayette, IN 47907-2042
mrussell@purdue.edu, 765-494-7677, Fax: 765-494-9347

2. **Title of Presentation:**
Assessing Leadership Development Impact of International Experiences

3. **Presentation track:** Practice

4. **Description:** The use of international travel and study abroad has been used by many universities as a method of developing multicultural skills and global leadership. Purdue University has initiated assessments to determine the impact of international experiences on multicultural and leadership skills such as open mindedness, flexibility, and understanding of culture.

5. **Professional Biographical Profile**

Dr. Mark Balschweid is an Associate Professor of Youth Development and Agricultural Education at Purdue University. He has extensive experience leading undergraduate students and agricultural education teachers on domestic and international study programs. His research expertise is in the area of learning assessment and the importance of context to the learning process. His leadership has directed an outbound program for agricultural education undergraduates to Jamaica's College of Agriculture, Science, and Education.

Linda Vallade is the Program Leader for Study Abroad in International Programs in Agriculture. Vallade became involved in the administration of study abroad programs fourteen years ago when the College of Agriculture determined more of its students needed to participate in an overseas experience. During that time the programs and courses offered through agriculture grew from two to 31 opportunities and from 20 to 170 students. Vallade provides overall leadership for the COA study abroad programs. Her extensive experience in administering and managing the programs includes budget development, assisting faculty, setting up new study abroad programs, timing, program development; administrative approvals for new programs.

6. **ALE Conference Proceeding Paper**

Assessing Leadership Development Impact of Academic International Experiences

M. Balschweid, L. Vallade, C. Brady, E. Pajor, and M. Russell
Purdue University College of Agriculture

Introduction

An important challenge to Purdue University's Colleges of Agriculture (COA) and all sister agricultural institutions is to prepare its faculty, staff, and students to function professionally in culturally diverse communities and in an increasingly global economy. All of the missions – learning, discovery, and engagement – must be informed by the global imperative. The Colleges must graduate individuals who know and appreciate other cultural histories, languages, and institutions and who can function effectively and appropriately in this new context. These educational outcomes cannot be effectively achieved within the confines of classrooms, libraries and laboratories; faculty, staff, and students must be afforded opportunities for meaningful learning in international settings. Student participants in these programs not only build their resumes, but also acquire valuable intercultural skills. The purpose of this effort and presentation is to share experiences in assessing these leadership skills and behavior changes as a result of these international experiences. We have used commercially developed and validated instruments as well as our own IRB-approved instruments. The goals of this session are that the learner 1) become aware of the variety of international academic methods used; 2) consider the expected learning outcome when planning the international experience; 3) develop assessment instruments specific enough to accurately draws the desired comparisons, and 4) develop skills in designing assessment instruments and methods that show the behavior and attitudinal changes of the participants.

Background

As the demographics of our communities change dramatically and the world of agricultural trade, global economy, and social interconnectedness increases our graduates must have global flexibility and leadership skills to work across cultures. In addition, these international experiences must be shared with colleagues, communities, and clientele in order to engage Indiana, the Midwest, and the world. Purdue is responding to the global imperative through programs in learning, discovery, and engagement, utilizing study abroad, collaborative research programs, and new initiatives in international extension. Study abroad programs are rapidly moving from the academic margins to the core of U.S. higher education. The mission of agricultural study abroad at Purdue University is to help prepare agriculture students for the global nature of our modern world by increasing opportunities for participation in study abroad, overseas internships, and international studies. Purdue College of Agriculture students can now choose from 31 study abroad and internship programs, partnering with 25 institutions in 21 countries. With 23.6% of Purdue College of Agriculture undergraduates' studying abroad, the College now has the highest percentage of its students studying abroad of any school at Purdue University. However, this is not sufficient. The goal is to have 30% of COA graduates participate in at least one significant international experience.

"On many U.S. campuses, international education consists of a series of disconnected activities that are weakly integrated into the core academic mission" … "the result is a fragmented hodgepodge of programs and activities that are rarely significantly intergraded to create maximum institutional impact or to advantage learning" are the opening lines in a 2003 article by Madeleine Green of the American Education Council. Our model is designed to address many of the strategies for internationalization highlighted in the American Council on Education project "Spotlighting Excellence in Comprehensive Internationalization" (funded by Carnegie Corporation), and the "Internationalization Collaborative" (funded by Kellogg Foundation). Previous research of leadership development processes and the employability characteristics combined with other university models we refined the program and presented this to the faculty in the fall of 2004. In a 2004 article, "Developing Intercultural Competence for the Masses," Mark Ashwill states that many education abroad experiences are more akin to an introduction to country X rather than a meaningful opportunity to become interculturally competent. He highlights growth in awareness of cultural differences, in knowledge of cultures, and in skills that are based on practice interacting across cultures. These can be set as expected learning outcomes of the international method and then measured. Ashwill shares best practices in developing these intercultural competencies for a larger number of students, faculty, and staff. Instruments developed by these investigators and others include the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), the Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), Cross-Culture Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), Cultural Orientation Indicator (COI), and others. Little has been done to allow us to compare the leadership development impact of the wide variety of programs offered. How does one determine and compare the impact of the following options available?

- Short 1-3 week study abroad partners
- Summer student study/work programs
- Semester/year-long student exchanges
- Extension staff development programs
- Graduate student/researcher opportunities
- Agribusiness/citizen international study tours
- Service learning international opportunities

This project utilizes these assessment instruments and others which we created to evaluate learning in existing international opportunity models as well as the total growth and then share these results with the participants of the ALE Conference.

How It Works

We are interested in evaluating the impact of international experiences on behaviors, attitudes, and skills in two different approaches. One was to assess the level of international experiences and attitudes of incoming freshmen and then later compare that with the outcomes as evident in graduating students at the end of their degree program. The second was to evaluate the impact of individual courses/experiences on specific learning outcomes using a pre- and post-test design. Examples of actual surveys will be shared at the conference but the incoming *"International Experience & Interest Survey"* asked about general demographics, any international travel experiences you have had prior to coming to Purdue University (and purpose of experience), outcomes of attitudes, and behavior relative to flexibility and open-mindedness, and their rank of plans for international travel program while at Purdue, and the barriers that students perceive will keep them from participating in an international study experience. Freshmen are also asked how they think an international study abroad/academic experience would benefit them. This survey is optionally offered to students in AGR 101 in the fall semester.

A similar survey is optionally completed by graduating seniors in their senior capstone courses and/or exit interviews. The *"International Experience & Outcomes Survey" asks the same basic demographic questions and then students* indicate the number of international experiences they have had in each category while at Purdue University, and if they had no international experience and reasons why not, and their feeling about that outcomes. Those with international experiences are asked to reflect and respond when the experience occurred, how they paid, how their perspective of the world changed as a result of the experiences, and many questions about attitude toward interacting with people different than you, behavior relative to flexibility and being open-minded, effect on career preparation or choice, and effect on interest in international current affairs. The responses to these surveys are averaged and compared with not attempt to match individual participants.

To assess the impact of individual courses/experiences we have used the Intercultural Development Inventory, the Cultural Orientation Inventory, and a *"Behavior, Culture, and Attitude Outcomes of International Experiences"* instrument created here. The challenge of these assessments is to align the instrument with the expected learning outcomes of each individual course. Some common goals across all international experience can be generalized, but a one-week travel course in Ireland will have very different specific learning outcomes that a three-week service project in Ecuador, a summer in Honduras, and an individual exchange experience in Spain or Australia. We have attempted to use variations of the "Behavior, Culture, and Attitude Outcomes of International Experiences" instrument as a pre- and post-test with coded surveys to match individual change. We will share copies of this instrument at the presentation but in general we ask general demographic information including state of residency of parents, growing up environment, major and gender. The survey is a five-scale response format of strongly agree to strongly disagree with a series of 20 statements about expected learning outcomes related to technical content, communications, culture, problem solving, diversity, international travel, international current affairs, and interest in working across cultures in their career.

These instruments have been used with a wide variety of courses this pilot year including a Serving Communities: Principles, Practices and Process class in Tumbabiro, Ecuador, an animal sciences industry course to Poland, Slovakia, and Czech Republic, an undergraduate research course in South Africa, a graduate student agribusiness course to Costa Rica, and an agricultural education class in Jamaica. Before and after responses to the surveys will be analyses using a paired t comparison and specific outcomes assessed.

Results to date

Initial data summarized indicates that 53% of all incoming freshmen have had some international experience and this is largely family-led on vacations or associated with a group through school or a faith-based mission effort. This is approximately double the level of international experience of students entering Purdue College of Agriculture in 1995, the last similar date of results. 86% of incoming freshman plan to have some international experience while at Purdue and they list a semester-long experience as their first choice and interestingly, a week-long spring break as their second most popular choice. Time, money, and relevance to career goals are listed as most common barriers to going. Currently we know that 24.5% of the graduating seniors have an international experience while at Purdue and most of that occurs in their fifth or sixth semester. Additional outcomes in leadership development through multiple international experiences will be shared at the conference.

Baseline results from the pre-test use of the surveys in specific class indicate that females are more likely to participate in study abroad programs than are males. As a percent out-of-state students are more likely to participate, and students from urban and suburban areas are more predominant. Specific comparisons using the "*Intercultural Development Inventory"* and the *"Behavior, Culture, and Attitude Outcomes of International Experiences"* will be shared at the conference.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Assessing changes in attitudes, behavior, and culture skills of students is always difficult even when you have many antidotal observations of huge changes in people as a result of time spent outside their comfort zone. This accounts for the dearth of research that has been reported on the leadership outcomes of international experiences. If international engagement is to be used as a learning method of higher education, we must develop both quantitative and qualitative methods of assessment. Many commercial culture assessments are excellent and validated but have not been designed to be used in pre and post type research. The study abroad and international education industry has many instruments and it is out intent to better first define the expected learning outcomes from these leadership development activities and then determine the best way to assess their impact. As more and more universities develop leadership programs and increasingly use international learning methods it is essential that we are accountable and able to present data that shows the impacts of these efforts.

1. Presenter:

John E. Barbuto, Jr.
Associate Professor of Leadership
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
300 Ag Hall
Lincoln, NE 68583-0709
(402) 472-8736
jbarbuto@unl.edu

2. Title of Presentation

Testing the Emotional Intelligence of Leaders as an Antecedent to Leader-Member Exchanges: A Field Study

3. Presentation Track: Research

4. 50-Word Description of Paper

Eighty elected leaders and 388 members were sampled to test the relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence and the quality of leader-member exchange. Results of the field study found a significant relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence (total) and leader-member exchange quality. Implications and directions for research are discussed.

(47)

5. Biographical Profile:

John E. Barbuto, Jr., Associate Professor of Leadership at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Dr. Barbuto has been teaching and research leadership and organizational behavior since 1994. He has published over 50 refereed journal articles and presented over 110 refereed conference papers since joining the leadership faculty at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1997. His research interests include antecedents of leadership, servant leadership, motivation theories, power & influence, and leadership education.

TESTING THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF LEADERS AS AN ANTECEDENT TO LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGES: A FIELD STUDY

JOHN E. BARBUTO, JR.

MARILYN J. BUGENHAGEN

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

Eighty elected leaders and 388 members were sampled to test the relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence and the quality of leader-member exchange. Results of the field study found a significant relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence (total) and leader-member exchange quality. Specific subscales of emotional intelligence were also predictive of leader-member exchange theory. Leaders' empathetic response and interpersonal skills each correlated with leader-member exchange. Implications and directions for research are discussed.

Introduction

Antecedents of leader-member exchange (LMX) behavior have been studied extensively during the past thirty years. Many variables have been analyzed with LMX including relationship among subordinates within work units (e.g. Graen and Schiemann, 1987); role of leader emotional expression (Sherony, 2004); transformational leadership behaviors (Basu, 1991); however**,** no research has addressed a direct linkage between a leader's emotional intelligence and LMX relationships. A literature search of research databases (PsychINFO, Academic Source and Business Source Elite), yielded only two published articles connecting leader-member exchange loosely with emotional intelligence and emotional expression (Ashkanasy, 2002; Sherony, 2004).

The opportunity to tie emotional intelligence (behavior-based) with leader-member exchanges provides great potential for advancing the leadership field. Like most leadership theories, the antecedents (or predictors) of LMX are largely untapped and require extensive research. This study will contribute to the LMX literature by testing emotional intelligence as an antecedent.

Literature Review

Leader-Member-Exchange

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory conceptualizes leadership as process centered around the quality of interactions and opportunities surrounding the relationships between leaders and their members (subordinates) (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975). While most leadership research focused on identifying best practices for optimizing organizational outcomes (satisfaction, motivation, goal attainment, etc…), LMX research has sought to describe the leadership dynamics that were taking place implicitly and explicitly across most organizations.

Leaders develop different exchange relationships with each employee, leading to what was described as in-groups and out-groups (Graen, 1976). Members of the in-group have preferred access to information and opportunities to expand their knowledge and experience base with increased responsibilities and autonomy. In-group members are more highly involved and more communicative than out-group members (Dansereau et al., 1975). Members of the out-group typically have functional or transactional relationships with leaders, with less autonomy or opportunities for job enrichment (Graen, Dansereau & Minami, 1972). Over time, members of the in-group have been found to have higher morale and higher job satisfaction (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982). Researchers have also found that LMX is related to less employee turnover (Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993), high frequency of promotions, greater organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990), more desirable work assignments, better job attitudes, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation, and faster career progress (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Taken together, developing a high LMX leads to many positive outcomes.

The antecedents of LMX have been tested using such variables as similarity-differences between leader and member (personality, attitude, education) and follower-based variables (education, ingratiating behavior, impression management) (Liden, et al., 1993; Gerstner & Day, 1997). The role of emotional intelligence has not been tested with LMX.

Emotional Intelligence and Leader-Member Exchange

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of "emotional intelligence" in their work which combines affect with cognition, emotion and intelligence. Their concept proposed that emotional intelligence was the ability to use emotions to assist in solving problems and live a more effective life. Emotional intelligence gained wide attention following the success of best selling books (Goleman, 1995, 1998). Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) proposed that emotional intelligence can enhance workplace performance, particularly dependent on the nature of the position and that emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) is an important ability for leaders.

Carson, Carson, and Birkenmeier (2000) developed a measure of emotional intelligence based on Goleman's five behavior-based factors (1) *empathetic response* - the ability to understand the emotional frame of other people; (2) *mood regulation* - the ability to regulate and manage one's moods and impulses; (3) *interpersonal skill* - the ability to manage relationships and build positive networks; (4) *internal motivation* – the ability to influence the environment and pursue goals for the greater good while delaying immediate gratification; and (5) *self-awareness* – the ability to self-monitor moods, emotions and drives and their effects on others.

Studies have not tested the relationships between emotional intelligence and LMX, but two tested leaders' emotional expression and LMX (Ashkanasy, 2002; Sherony, 2004). Both utilized a measure of LMX, but neither tested emotional intelligence. Since both studies found that emotionally-driven behaviors were related to LMX, we expect emotional intelligence, which involves emotionally-driven actions and attitudes, will share some variance with LMX.

Barbuto and Burbach (2006) studied the relationships between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and found several significant correlates. Since several works have equated high LMX with transformational leadership behaviors there is cause for expecting similar results in this study (see Basu, 1991; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

This project was the first in the leadership field linking emotional intelligence to LMX – which makes it exploratory by nature. However, given the results of prior studies testing similar constructs we propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis: Leaders' emotional intelligence will be positively related to their quality of Leader-Member Exchanges (LMX).

Methods

Participants

Participants were 80 elected community leaders and 388 raters working with them in the Midwest United States. Leaders attended a leadership development workshop for elected officials and were members of a statewide professional organization, which sponsored the event. The average age of subjects was 51 years. Fifty percent had earned a B.S. degree, 20% had earned an advanced degree, and 65% were women. Raters were direct employees of the leaders and reported an average age of 46 years. Forty-two percent of raters had earned a B.S. degree, less than 10% had earned an advanced degree, and 53% were women.

Measures

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence was measured with the instrument developed by Carson, et al. (2000). This instrument contains 30 self-report items rated on a five point Likert-type scale. Each of the five subscales (empathetic response, mood regulation, interpersonal skills, internal motivation, and self-awareness) consisted of six items. Because the measure is relatively new, we also calculated a single factor subscale, consisting of all 30 items, which we labeled, "emotional intelligence". It demonstrated internal consistency, as evidenced by acceptable coefficient alphas ranging from .75 to .91 (see Table 1).

Leader-Member Exchange. The dyadic relationship of LMX was measured using the LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984). The LMX-7 was recently recognized in a meta-analysis as the gold standard for measuring leader-member exchange (see Gerstner & Day, 1997). The measure consists of seven items assessed on a Likert-type scale. In this study the LMX-7 achieved a coefficient alpha of .89, indicating strong internal reliability.

Procedures

Data were collected from an intact group of elected officials as part of a full-day leadership-training seminar for members of an association that sponsors annual professional development programs for its members. Leaders were asked to fill out the emotional intelligence measure and return it directly to the first author in a postage paid envelope. Each leader was asked to solicit between four and six employees to complete the rater version of the LMX-7. Instruments were coded to protect the identities of raters; however, leaders' names were kept on a separate coding sheet for interpretation and feedback. All instruments were returned directly to the first author via U.S. mail. Participants and their raters were provided a letter detailing their participation and rights, which included the right to withdraw at any time during the research process. None of the participants asked to be removed from the study. Because elected officials had pre-registered for the conference, the response rate is less relevant; however, 80 of the eligible 88 elected officials participated in the study. This high participation rate indicates that participants were keenly interested in the information.

Findings

Simple statistics and correlations were calculated for all variables of interest in the study (see Table 1). There was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence (total) and follower LMX ($r = .15$; $p < .01$). A significant positive relationship also was found between follower LMX and emotional intelligence behavior-based factors empathetic response ($r = .16$; $p < .01$) and interpersonal skills ($r = .13$; $p < .05$). These relationships were small, but achieved the recommended power level ($p<.05$, two tailed test, $n=388$) (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The relationship therefore is deemed significant, albeit with a small effect.

Insert Table 1 Here

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. Using a field study of 80 elected officials and 388 their colleagues we found several significant relationships. A significant relationship between leader's emotional intelligence and LMX in-group ranking from the follower's perspective indicates that a leader's empathetic response qualities achieve greater depth of self-exploration in followers (Long & Schultz, 1973). A leader's supportive interpersonal orientations increase member positive perceptions, feelings and job satisfaction (Haddad & Samarneh, 1999). This indicates that leaders high in emotional intelligence believe that they are able to influence their environment.

A significant relationship was found between emotional intelligence and the leader-member exchange for followers. This indicates that leaders with high emotional intelligence will also be strong in developing relationships that promote greater flow of information, sharing of influence, increased confidence and concern for followers, and achieve more highly involved and more communicative followers (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In turn, leaders with high emotional intelligence and high levels of LMX will produce work units with less employee turnover, more positive performance evaluations, high frequency of promotions, greater organizational commitment, better job assignments, better attitude towards job, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation, and faster career progress

Research Implications

This study has focused on the relationships between emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. While the impacts of leader-member exchange are frequently reported, empirical investigations of the relationship between leaders emotional intelligence and LMX requires additional study. As emotional intelligence continues to evolve as a viable construct in the field, the empirical testing of its impact on individuals, groups, organizations, and communities will offer direction for discovery of its determinants. Testing the impacts of emotional intelligence alongside a long tested construct like LMX has led to identifying the need for more research testing other potential leadership behaviors or styles. Additionally, other antecedents of leader-member exchange need to continue to be studied. The results of this study demonstrate a significant, albeit small relationship. Other variables better correlate with LMX than emotional intelligence has in this study (See Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Practical Implications

Research indicates that the quality of leader-member exchange relates to many positive performance related outcomes for followers including lower turnover (Liden, et al., 1993), higher overall satisfaction (Graen, et al. 1982), greater satisfaction with supervisors (e.g. Duchon, Green & Taber, 1986), and strong organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990). One practical implication of this result is that recruiting and selecting activities may include emotional aptitudes, such as emotional intelligence, in the screening process. Identifying leaders high in emotional intelligence will increase the likelihood of selecting leaders more likely to develop strong LMX.

Recruiting managers are cautioned not to overestimate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. While the relationship was significant in this study, it explained less than 5% of the total variance in leader-member exchange. This means that 95% of the explanation comes from other factors. Continued efforts to study antecedents of leader-member exchange (LMX) are salient for advancing the field and informing practice for effective recruiting, selecting, and developing of effective leadership.

References

Ashkanasy, N. M. (2002). Studies of cognition and emotion in organizations: Attribution, affective events, emotional intelligence and perception of emotion. *Australian Journal of Management 27*, 11-20.

Barbuto, J. E., & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The emotional intelligence of transformational leaders: A field study. The *Journal of Social Psychology, 146*(1), 51-64.

Basu, R. (1991). An empirical examination of leader-member exchange and transformational leadership as predictors of innovation behavior. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Management, Purdue University.

Carson, K. D., Carson, P. P., & Birkenmeier, B. J. (2000). Measuring emotional intelligence: Development and validation of an instrument. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management, 2*(1), 32-44.

Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership (pp.)* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dansereau, F., G., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach within formal organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*, 46-78.

Duchon, D., Green, S. G., & Taber, T. D. (1986). Vertical dyad linkage: A longitudinal assessment of antecedents, measures, and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 56-60.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 827-844.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role-making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Graen, G. B., Dansereau, ,Jr., F., & Minami, T. (1972). Dysfunctional leadership styles. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 7, 216-236.

Graen, G. B., Novak, M. A. & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of a leader-member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 30*, 109-131.

Graen, G.B. & Schiemann. W. (1978). Leader-member agreement: A vertical dyad linkage approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63*, 206-212.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly, 9*(2), 219-247.

Haddad, Y., & Samarneh, M. (1999). Principals' interpersonal orientations and their relationships to teachers' perceptions, feelings, and job satisfaction with school-work climate. *Dirasat: Educational Sciences*, *26*(1), 202-222.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(4), 662-674.

Long, T. J., & Schultz, E. W. (1973). Empathy: A quality of an effective group leader. *Psychological Reports, 32*, 699-705.

Nystrom, P. C. (1990). Vertical exchanges and organizational commitments of American business managers. *Group and Organization Studies, 15*, 296-312.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, *9*, 185-211.

Scandura,T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*, 428-436.

Sherony, K. M. (2004). Leader emotional expression and leader-member exchange. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 64*(7-B), 3568.

Table 1.

Simple Statistics and Correlation Matrix for Emotional Intelligence and LMX

	M	S.D.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Emotional Intelligence	78.64	7.72	**.91**						
2. Empathetic Response	16.13	3.31	.54**	**.90**					
3. Mood Regulation	11.52	3.56	.52**	- .09	**.76**				
4. Interpersonal Skills	14.30	1.78	.53**	.48**	.10	**.81**			
5. Internal Motivation	25.32	4.40	.60**	.07	- .02	.08	**.86**		
6. Self Awareness	11.35	2.29	.34**	- .13**	.25**	.11*	.03	**.75**	
7. LMX	3.15	0.69	.15**	.16**	.02	.13*	.08	-.02	**.89**

**p < .05. *p < .05.

1. **Presenter:**

John E. Barbuto, Jr.
Associate Professor of Leadership
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
300 Ag Hall
Lincoln, NE 68583-0709
(402) 472-8736
jbarbuto@unl.edu

2. **Title of Presentation**

Dramaturgical Teaching in the Leadership Classroom: Taking Experiential Learning To The Next Level

3. **Presentation Track: Practice**

4. **50-Word Description of Paper**

Paper presents a pedagogical approach to leadership education that takes experiential learning to the next level of faculty-student interaction and experience. Dramaturgical teaching involves instructors displaying the leadership styles in and out of the classroom so students experience the leadership while they learn. Proposed course structures, recommendations, and preliminary assessment of the pedagogy is provided.

(55)

5. **Biographical Profile:**

John E. Barbuto, Jr., Associate Professor of Leadership at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Dr. Barbuto has been teaching and research leadership and organizational behavior since 1994. He has published over 50 refereed journal articles and presented over 110 refereed conference papers since joining the leadership faculty at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1997. His research interests include antecedents of leadership, servant leadership, motivation theories, power & influence, and leadership education.

Dramaturgical Teaching in the Leadership Classroom: Taking Experiential Learning To The Next Level

John E. Barbuto, Jr.

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

Paper presents a pedagogical approach to leadership education that takes experiential learning to the next level of faculty-student interaction and experience. Dramaturgical teaching involves the instructor displaying the leadership style(s) in and out of the classroom so that students experience the leadership style while learning about it. Proposed course structures, special instructions for faculty using this teaching method, preliminary evaluations of the method, and implications are discussed.

Background

The positive impact that experiential learning has had in the leadership education field has been well documented (see Guenthner & Moore, 2005). Leadership education programs have been experiencing trends to move away from formal learning structures such as standard lectures and discussions; moving toward more highly interactive teaching strategies that encourage the integration of learning and experience (Finan, 2004; Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

A recent approach called dramaturgy takes the basic tenets of experiential learning and extends them to a more holistic and fully encompassing faculty and student experience (Kayes, 2002; Leberman & Martin, 2005). This pedagogical method, termed dramaturgical teaching, may be perfectly suited for coursework in the leadership area.

Principles of dramaturgical teaching will be presented next, followed by a proposed course topic outline. Strategies for teaching suggested topics are explored and preliminary results of an assessment of the effectiveness of dramaturgical teaching are provided.

How Dramaturgical Teaching Works

Its Origins and Merits in Leadership Education

Dramaturgy as a pedagogical approach has its origins in theatre and the performing arts (Orr, 2003), but has also garnered attention in the broader conversation surrounding language and meaning making (Karreman, 2001; Schwandt, 2005). Applications of the pedagogical method have resulted from increased attention paid to experiential learning (Finan, 2004; Kayes, 2002). Dramaturgical teaching has grown to develop a stronger presence in the leadership and organizational behavior field (Boje & Rhodes, 2005; Leberman & Martin, 2005).

Dramaturgical teaching has been described as the most student-centered course design structure available in the leadership/management education field (Leberman & Martin, 2005). The strategy of developing and structuring a course specific to students learning and developmental needs has been an increasing trend in the leadership education field (Mundhenk, 2004). While the topic of dramaturgical teaching has received limited coverage in the leadership education field, its potential for connecting theory and practice for the creation of knowledge, meaning-making, and the development of critical thinking and wisdom are among its most attractive features (Schwandt, 2005; Tchaicha & Davis, 2005).

Applying a dramaturgical pedagogy in leadership education coursework will apply several principles (Finan, 2004; Leberman & Martin, 2005). Dramaturgical teaching features instructors modeling the leadership style being taught as their teaching style. To achieve a dramaturgical teaching pedagogy:

- Instructors should inform students that they will be adopting a dramaturgical teaching method and explain what this means.
- Topics covered should last at least 2-3 weeks in the course so that students can get a full appreciation for the nuances of the leadership style(s) being displayed by the instructor.
- Instructors adopt leadership style for the duration of the leadership style's coverage in the course.
- Instructors structure assignments and teaching methods to be consistent with the leadership style being studied.
- Content of course is consistent with teaching methods.
- Instructors will stay in character during all student interactions outside of the class (office, phone, email).
- At the completion of each "topic", instructors should process the experience with students to ascertain how modeling the leadership styles impacted learning, impressions, and experiences. Examples of processing questions include:
    - How did it feel to be led by a (style) leader?
    - What are the advantages of leading with this style?
    - What would it be like to work for this type of leader over an extended period of time?
    - What did you learn about yourself when being led in this way?

- o What aspects of this leadership style are most/least agreeable to your own leadership philosophy?
- o How did this leadership style effect your mental approach and preparation for class, your performance in the class, and your attitude towards the class?

<u>Proposed Course Structure</u>

The course that I teach using dramaturgical teaching is an advanced undergraduate leadership course titled, "Dynamics of Leadership in Organizations". Students enroll in this course after already completing a foundations/survey course that broadly covered the major leadership theories from the field. This course encompasses three leadership approaches: Political leadership (power and influence), Servant leadership (serving others), and Transformational leadership (visionary and motivating). Power and influence was chosen because it embodies the political dynamics that most organizations possess (Kotter, 1985). Servant leadership is characterized by service over self-interest, making it a dramatic shift from political leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leadership was chosen to contrast with the self-interest focus of power and influence, and to reflect the growing trend in society for less self-serving behavior and more service-oriented behavior. Transformational leadership was included because it has consistently related to most positive employee and organizational outcomes (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Instructors may select other theories from the field to include in a leadership dynamics course. This paper focuses on the teaching of the three approaches described above.

Instructors that choose to use a dramaturgical teaching method will need to be prepared to structure and teach the class in a manner that is consistent with the leadership style being taught.

This may present many challenges to instructors because it may force them to operate outside of their natural, preferred teaching styles. The object of dramaturgical teaching is to give students the experience of being led by this type (whatever style being studied) of leader. Teaching political leadership, servant leadership, and transformational leadership will therefore require different mindsets and structures both in assignments, grading, interactions with students, and teaching dynamics.

Dramaturgically Teaching Political Leadership (Power and Influence)

Teaching political leadership requires the instructor to be authoritative, planned, and structured. During this topic you will cover concepts like power, influence, tactics, authority, managing upward, social networking, naivity, cynicism, diversity, interdependence, and developing power at different career stages (Kotter, 1985). Instructors will need to create a competitive structured environment in the classroom because during this topic it is every student for them selves.

I usually prepare students with the following statement, *"Beginning next class, I will be incorporating dramaturgical teaching. This means that I will be teaching you using the leadership style that we are learning. I will continue using this style inside and outside of the classroom for the next five weeks, until we begin our second topic. Here are a few rules for next class. No newspapers, baseball caps, cell phones, or gym clothes in the classroom. You will come to class well-rested sit up straight in your seat and be ready to begin class at (class start time) sharp. At the beginning of class I will close the door. If you aren't in class before the door is closed then you may not come to class (i.e. don't open the door)."*

During the first five weeks I address students as Mr./Ms. (LAST NAME), accordingly. They address me as Dr. (NAME). Each class the top performing students (discussions and/or assignments) have reserved seats waiting for them to indicate that they are in the upper echelon of the class. Each class I introduce something unexpected (assignments, course structures, deadlines) to them to reinforce the changing political dynamics in organizations and the need to meet my expectations. For example, I enter the class early in the semester and ask, "How many of you have read the first three chapters of the text, as was assigned?" Most students raise their hand implying that they have. I then proceed to announce that I was caught up in some urgent meetings and have not had the opportunity to read them, thus, "I will need a two-page briefing from students on the first three chapters, on my desk, by 10AM tomorrow morning…class dismissed."

This causes great anxiety and time pressure and it alerts students that demands will be made of them with little notice requiring them to juggle priorities to meet my expectations. Other activities with similar unpredictability highlight the coverage of the power and influence topic. During the semester students generally have 100% attendance, come prepared for class, meet all deadlines, and they fight for opportunities to participate during discussions. They inevitably strive to get in the reserved seats during class and be among my favored group. The student morale is sometimes lower during this topic because the competitive environment can wear on some students, but the student performance usually exceeds that of any other topic.

Dramaturgically Teaching Servant Leadership (Service Over Self-Interest)

Teaching servant leadership requires instructors to act caring, open-minded, and unstructured (student-driven). Instructors will have to alter their teaching paradigm and give up control by making students' needs the sole mission. The traditional curriculum planning and syllabus construction process that instructors use is inherently incompatible with servant leadership, so instructors will need to start over at this point in the course and facilitate the construction of the syllabus for this topic. This is a challenge for both students and instructors because both are accustomed to the instructor making these types of course planning and curriculum decisions. Questions that have to be addressed with the group include:

- What do students want to learn or gain from this topic?
- How do students want to structure their (student-centered) coursework to optimize outcomes?
- What assignments will help students achieve their goals?
- How will students' learning and development be assessed for a topic grade?

Instructors may find it difficult to succumb to the communicated needs of the students, but to demonstrate servant leadership they must. In five iterations of the course using dramaturgical instruction I have seen five different syllabi. Instructors should prepare themselves for the unexpected, but also be ready to answer basic questions about servant leadership (this process often lasts two full class periods). Remember, the goal of this topic is to experience what it is like to be led by a servant leader, whose sole purpose is to help others reach their developmental and learning goals (as great or small as they may be).

Dramaturgically Teaching Transformational Leadership (Inspirational, Visionary)

Teaching transformational leadership requires the instructor to be inspirational and lead with contagious energy. Transformational leadership encompasses four dimensions, which instructors need to model throughout the topic. The four "I's" of transformational leadership include individualized consideration (treating followers as individuals and helping them develop), intellectual stimulation (challenging followers to think outside of the box and solve problems in creative ways), inspirational motivation (articulating a compelling vision for the future, framing issues consistent with the vision), and idealized influence (developing trust and emulation from followers) (Lowe, *et al.* 1996).

Instructors will need to structure the transformational leadership topic to demonstrate these dimensions. This is challenging because it requires instructors to focus on exciting students using visioning and providing compelling articulations of what is possible for students. Instructors will have to balance being inspirational with challenging students to question assumptions and thinking outside of the box. I teach this topic like a leadership development workshop, with high energy activities, dynamic multi-media lectures, frequent interaction, and creative experiential activities focused on practicing the 4 I's of transformational leadership.

Results To Date

Assessments were used to evaluate the impact of dramaturgical teaching on student learning and attitudes. Open-ended responses to the following questions were asked. Representative responses are provided next.

- **In what ways did the instructor's modeling of (political, servant, transformational) leadership styles in his/her teaching help you learn?**
    - "I like seeing each one. I've been in many classes where the instructors only talked about it, but no one understood how difficult political leadership was to deal with as few in this class experienced or how slow and aggravating the servant leadership process can be if done a lot. Plus the energy level created by a

transformational leader really impacted how I may want to lead when I have the opportunity in my career"

- "I enjoyed that the instructor got into character for each topic because it helped us conceptualize that leadership topic even more."
- "We felt things that we wouldn't have if teaching in a regular way. For example, I've never had such a competitive atmosphere in class, but I think it will prepare me for the dog eat dog world that we live in today. Plus I have never had the level of autonomy that we had during the second topic (servant leadership). The third topic was the most dynamic experience I've had in college!"
- "It helped me to discover which style I enjoy most and which ones I disliked. But it also gave me an appreciation of the emotional wear and tear that certain styles of leadership can cause…"
- "It was very effective. I don't think that without him actually demonstrating the style for the entire five weeks we wouldn't have learned as much. We would have known the words… but we wouldn't know what these styles were like (to experience them)…"
- "I realized that I am more effective a worker under certain styles of leadership and so I will have to really look at my potential bosses in the future to assess what style of leadership they use."
- "I realize how each type effects those who serve under them"
- "Long after I forget what certain styles and theories were called I will never forget the impact of taking this course and experiencing the dramatic changes in

teaching styles that (instructor) displayed. It was the most impactful experience of my college career."

- "The dramaturgical approach helped me to experience the leadership styles. The way in which the material was presented and the instructor's attitude/behavior in class really reinforced it and made it real for me."
- "The learning was more vivid using this teaching approach than it would have been otherwise"
- "It was crucial to my learning. Without experiencing the three styles as I did, I would not have learned most of what I did."

- **In what ways did modeling (political, servant, transformational) leadership styles hinder your learning?**
  - Out of 168 responses to this question, 128 responded by reinforcing the value of the teaching approach, implying that it didn't hinder learning
  - "I learned better under some styles than others so I guess I would have learned more if all three were like the last one"
  - "I was intimidated during the first topic. I'm not very competitive so I know that that one is not right for me. I was really quiet in class because I was afraid to speak up… but I guess now I know how I'd respond in a more political environment"
  - "I thought the second topic (servant leadership) was too disorganized and open. Students didn't really have to work hard unless they wanted to and the instructor seemed like he/she was taken advantage."

- “Although I like the servant leadership teaching style the best and I also liked the third style (transformational leadership), what I will never forget is how the first five weeks made me discover some of my serious weaknesses.”
- “I didn’t understand how the instructor could let us do whatever we decided during the second five weeks and didn’t hold the students accountable if they missed class or assignments”
- “I wish more courses were taught this way.”

- **What advice would you give your instructor about the approach to teaching (political, servant, transformational) leadership styles the next time he teaches this topic?**
  - “Don’t change anything” or “None” (112 out of 168 respondents)
  - “Don’t ever stop teaching the course this way. It’s the best course at the University”
  - “This was the best class I’ve ever had. Even though I didn’t like the way one of the topics was taught, I will never forget how I felt being led by the three different approaches.”
  - “Nothing. I really enjoyed the class and that out of all the courses I have taken at the University that this was by far the most interesting and that I will take more from this class then I will from any other class. Thank you!”
  - “Maybe put more structure and focus into the second topic (servant leadership)”
  - “Remind the students halfway through the first topic that you are ‘in character’… you had people convinced that that was the way you were.”

Conclusions

Dramaturgical teaching is an innovative pedagogical method for use in the leadership education classroom. This paper has described the principles of dramaturgical teaching and outlined a possible structure for implementing this style of teaching in the classroom. Student comments indicate that the teaching method contributes to student learning in positive ways and students were positively impacted from taking the course. Instructors may consider developing a course or structuring an existing course using dramaturgical teaching to accelerate student learning.

There has been an influx of experiential learning activities utilized nation-wide in leadership courses over the past twenty years. Instructors have longed for creative and interactive activities to engage students using practice-oriented teaching methods. Dramaturgical teaching offers instructors the deepest form of student experience – they live the leadership style while they are learning. Evidence suggests that this approach to teaching leadership can have a powerful impact on the student experience. It is my hope that more faculty will challenge themselves and consider adopting a dramaturgical teaching approach in the leadership classroom.

References

Barbuto, J. E., & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership. *In Press (June), Group & Organization Management*.

Boje, D. M., & Rhodes, C. (2005). The virtual leader construct: The mass mediatization and simulation of transformational leadership. *Leadership, 1*(4), 407-428.

Finan, M. C. (2004). Experience as teacher: Two techniques for incorporating student experiences into a course. *Journal of Management Education, 28*(4), 478-491.

Gardner, W. L., & Avolio, B. J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(1), 32-58.

Guenthner, J. F., & Moore, L. L. (2005). Role playing as a leadership development tool. *Journal of Leadership Education, 4*(2), 59-65.

Karreman, D. (2001). The scripted organization: Dramaturgy from Burke to Baudrillard, in R. Westwood & S. Linstead (Eds) *The Language of Organization*, pp. 89-111. London: Sage Press.

Kayes, D. C. (2002). Experiential learning and its critics: Preserving the role of experience in management learning and education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 1*(2), 137-149.

Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4*(2), 193 212.

Kotter, J. P. (1985). *Power and influence: Beyond formal authority*. New York: Free Press.

Leberman, S. I., & Martin, A. J. (2005). Applying dramaturgy to management course design. *Journal of Management Education, 29*(2), 319-332.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly, 7*, 385-425.

Mundhenk, L. G. (2004). Toward an understanding of what it means to be student centered: A new teacher's journey. *Journal of Management Education, 28*(4), 447-462.

Orr, S. (2003). Teaching play analysis: How a dramaturgical skill can foster critical approaches. *Theatre Topics, 13*(1), 153-158.

Schwandt, D. R. (2005). When managers become philosophers: Integrating learning with sensemaking. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4*(2), 176-192.

Tchaicha, J. D., & Davis, M. M. (2005). The impact of culture on technology and business: An interdisciplinary, experiential course paradigm. *Journal of Management Education, 29*(5), 738-757.

Leadership Across the Curriculum

1. Cindy Blackwell
Assistant Professor
Oklahoma State University
444 Agricultural Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078
Cindy.blackwell@okstate.edu
405-533-1509

2. Leadership Across the Curriculum

3. Practice

4. Drawing from the history and lessons learned from the writing–across-the-curriculum movement, this article proposes a basis and an example for teaching leadership-across-the-curriculum. With an intent to strengthen both leadership education as well as the course context, LAC offers faculty the opportunity to go beyond the simple transfer of knowledge.

5. Cindy Blackwell is an assistant professor at Oklahoma State University. Dr. Blackwell splits her time in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communications and 4-H Youth Development between Agricultural Communications and Agricultural Leadership. In addition, Dr. Blackwell is a co-project director for the Leadership Education Institute for Faculty in Colleges of Agriculture, and is the communications supervisor for the New Product Development Center at Oklahoma State University.

Leadership Across the Curriculum

Introduction

In the 1970s, a curriculum movement that originated from research studies at The University of London's Institute of Education in the late 1960s began to emerge in the United States. (Stock, 2001 and Ochsner & Fowler, 2004). Dubbed "writing-across-the-curriculum" by the research team, which was led by James Britton, the intent was to produce better writers and better learners. Some of the primary goals involved with writing-across-the-curriculum (WAC) are: "to promote active learning, to engage students as critical thinkers, and to elevate the status of writing throughout higher education" (Ochsner & Fowler, 2004, p. 117). Despite both accolades and criticisms, WAC is a genuine concept created with the idea to better education.

As applied to leadership education, the three decades of WAC research and practice have much to offer. While leadership concepts are being employed throughout many disciplines, these efforts most often lack the coordination, organization and formality needed to produce the results that can offer greater benefits for students before and after graduation. Learning from research on WAC, it is noted that, "without pedagogical intervention, students may simply reproduce their errors" (Ochsner & Fowler, 2004, p. 125). An understanding of leadership theory from both the student and faculty member can make a serendipitous relationship of leadership development an engaging process that works in conjunction with the coursework. Such a relationship can also assist in true leader development versus mere skill development, which is the fundamental difference in education and training. Differentiating education and skill is a distinct and important lesson also learned from WAC where, once adopted in the United States, it became "little more than a model for 'grammar across the curriculum'" (Stock, 2001, p. 99). To keep LAC an educational effort more must be done than simple and unstructured group work.

Learning Assumptions and Objectives

Leadership development happens with experiences whether intentional or not. Popper notes that "leaders' development is a process that occurs continuously in an organization. Many organizations attempt to confine it artificially to courses and supplementary training. This limits the range of developmental possibilities, since leadership experiences and vicarious learning take place all the time over a broad range throughout the organization" (2005, p. 71). As noted earlier, higher education is especially guilty of this attempt to compartmentalize learning. Breaking these boundaries and coalescing disciplinary learning with leadership education can strengthen students' learning within a discipline.

It is important to note at this time that not all leadership learning is the same. As delineated by Brungardt, leadership training is the narrowest concept and "refers to learning activities for a specific leadership role or job" (1996, p. 84). Leadership education offers a broader idea and "includes those learning activities and educational environments that are intended to enhance and foster leadership abilities" (Brungardt, 1996, p. 83). Finally Leadership development "is a continuous learning process that spans an entire lifetime; where knowledge and experience builds and allows for even more advanced learning and growth" (Brundgardt, 1996, p. 83). Given this, the basic objectives of LAC are to 1) place students in team situations to reinforce learning of a specific subject matter, 2) offer students leadership education and developmental opportunities specific to their disciplines, and 3) fill the call from employers for teamwork and leadership abilities.

One assumption being made is that all students have been exposed to some level of academic leadership education during their first year experience. Whether this exposure comes from a succeeding in college type of course or a formal academic leadership education class should not matter. What does matter is that the leadership concepts taught are communicated to non-leadership faculty so that they can integrate those concepts into their curriculum. This communication allows for a more just assessment of the leadership expectations when infused into projects. As previously discussed, communication of what is being taught also relieves non-leadership faculty from spending time on leadership related concepts. In essence, "Leadership has to be a major component in the collective mental model of the organization" (Popper, 2005, p. 71).

Another assumption made is that leadership-across-the-curriculum is applied in situations where active and experiential learning are appropriate and implemented correctly allowing for the application of prior leadership knowledge leadership. Through appropriately outlined teamwork, students can apply principles of delegation, power bases, credibility, authentic leadership, follower development and conflict management to name a few. Expectations for the leadership element in a team project should be well defined from the start of the project. For example, if students are assigned a team project part of the final grade should include and assessment of elements of teamwork such as meeting preparedness, idea generation, delegation, and conflict management. These elements can be assessed through team member evaluations and brief process reflection papers.

A final assumption is that leadership development activities do not need to be intertwined with all classroom learning. Another lesson learned from WAC is that not all students learn through writing and that "writing does not and should not serve as the sine qua non of active learning" (Ochsner & Fowler, 2004, p. 124). The LAC concept does not imply that all learning should be tied to leadership development. Some courses demand elements of the use of individualized learning and independent memorization exercises and assessments, however this should not be the sole teaching technique or focus. As Cronin notes textbooks are "a point of departure, not an end in themselves" (1991, p. 486). While LAC offers faculty an opportunity to create change agents, visionaries, and genuine future leaders within their given disciplines, significant content knowledge must of course still be conveyed.

LAC Applied

In an Agricultural Communications class at Oklahoma State University, leadership concepts are well infused into the course content. In the *Planning Campaigns for Agriculture and Natural Resources* course (Campaigns), students complete a semester long, experiential learning project working with an actual client in need of a communications campaign. At the start of the course, students are placed into groups and are taken through Tuckman's team development process (Bass, 1990) which requires the creation of a team name (forming) and a road trip to meet their client (storming). Weekly lab meetings (norming) take the students through challenges and opportunities and eventually the final presentation of the campaign (performing). Finally the team adjourns with an end of the semester team evaluation.

Other leadership concepts included in the class are conflict management, power bases and the purpose and process of delegation. During the fourth week of class, conflict management in teams is discussed and team meetings with the instructor are arranged to address any team issues. Power bases are also included at time to demonstrate how each member is functioning within the team. The purpose and process of delegation allows for students to observe how work has been delegated and how delegation can facilitate follower development. One limiting factor of this class is that not all students have had a foundational leadership class, so some class time is dedicated to the teaching of leadership concepts. (As the instructor, I hold a split appointment between agricultural communications and agricultural leadership, so the teaching of leadership concepts is not an additional burden).

One key element is that students are graded on leadership concepts and are aware of these concepts early on so they will demonstrate the appropriate leadership behaviors in their team settings. Because a dysfunctional team rarely produces a quality project, teams are taken through a development process and monitored closely. Teams are also monitored for mistakes in leadership processes, such as students "dumping" work on team members instead of delegating work, so that mistakes are corrected. Although some leadership concepts are taught in class, the primary focus of class sessions is on the elements of creating a communication campaign. The intended outcome is students who not only understand the purpose and process of creating a communications campaign, but also have an understanding of some leadership concepts that will assist in the execution of a future team endeavor.

Summary

LAC is not a solution, but rather a tool to better equip students to more highly succeed both academically and professionally. Using the ideas and issues of WAC offers LAC an opportunity to emerge with fewer critics and better preparation. Since not all colleges have an introductory leadership course that offers true leadership education, some faculty may find it necessary to use a small portion of class time to teach some basic leadership concepts upon which the students will be assessed within a team project. What is most important is that there is a purposeful connection between the course content and the leadership education concepts, and that students are aware of and assessed on their team member performances. Where there is an opportunity for experiential learning, there is an opportunity to offer the application of leadership concepts. It should although also be noted that the coalescing of two disciplines is never simple and that, without proper guidance, discovering self-efficacy the first time leadership concepts are taught might be difficult.

For leadership faculty, there exists a responsibility to assist non-leadership faculty who desire to strengthen their through the use of leadership education. If a required fundamentals of leadership education or similar class does not exist, leadership faculty (if one exists) need to work to generate support for such a class so that students get at least a basic exposure to leadership education concepts. Such a class needs to go beyond skill development into basic leadership education so that students have knowledge upon which they can build in future classes and careers.

References

Andreasen, R. J. (2004). Integrating experiential learning into college of agriculture capstone courses: Implications and applications for practitioners. *NACTA Journal*, 48(1), p. 52-57.

Basney, L. (2002). Teacher: Eleven notes. *The American Scholar*, 71(1), p. 75-88.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, & managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Beineke, J. A. & Sublett, R. H. (2001, November). *Leadership lessons and competencies: Learning from the Kellogg National Fellowship Program*. Battle Creek, Michigan: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Brungardt, C. (1996). The making of leaders: A review of the research in leadership development and education. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(3), p. 81-95.

Carnes, L. W., Jennings, M. S., Vice, J. P., & Wiedmaier, C. (2001). The role of the business educator in a writing-across-the-curriculum program. *Journal of Education for Business*, 76(4), p. 216-219.

Cress, C. M., Astin, H. S., Zimmerman-Oster, K. & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development*, 42(1), p.15-27.

Cronin, T. E. (1995). Thinking and learning about leadership. In J. T. Wren (Ed.), *Leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages* (pp. 27-32). New York: The Free Press.

Cronin, T. E. (1991). On celebrating college teaching. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 24(3), p. 482-491.

Moll, L. C. (2001). Writing as communication: Creating strategic learning environments for students. *Theory Into Practice,* 25(2), p. 102-108.

National Association of Colleges and Employers. (2005, September). *NACE Research: Job outlook 2006 fall preview*. Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

National Survey of Student Engagement (2006 January). *2005 National survey of student engagement: Oklahoma State University.* Stillwater, Oklahoma: Stevens, J. & Boling, K.

Ochsner, R. & Fowler, J. (2004). Playing devil's advocate: Evaluating the literature of the WAC/WID movement. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(2), p. 117-140.

Popper, M. (2005). Main principles and practices in leader development. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 26(1), p. 62-75.

Stock, P. L. (2001). Writing across the curriculum. *Theory Into Practice*, 25(2), p. 97-101.

Svinicki M. D. & Dixon, N. M. (1987). The Kolb model modified for classroom activities. *College Teaching*, 35(4), p. 141-146.

Wren, J. T. (1994). Teaching leadership: The art of the possible. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(2), 73-93.

Practice Presentation Proposal
2006 Annual Conference - Association of Leadership Educators, Inc.

1.

Kim Boyce
Regional Extension Educator, Leadership and Civic Engagement
University of Minnesota Extension Service
462 Coffey Hall
1420 Eckles Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55108
boyce003@umn.edu
612-624-7781

Cindy Bigger
Regional Regional Extension Educator, Leadership and Civic Engagement
University of Minnesota Extension Service
223 West Cavour Avenue
Fergus Falls, MN 56537
cbigger@umn.edu
218-998-5798

Mike Liepold
Regional Extension Educator, Leadership and Civic Engagement
University of Minnesota Extension Service
1961 Premier Drive
Mankato, MN 55108
mliepold@umn.edu
507-389-6741

2.
Exploring the Use of Leadership Frameworks

3.
Practice

4.
As educators it is often challenging to find an effective way to discuss the nature of leadership and to teach leadership in community and organizational settings given the wide array of leadership beliefs and attitudes found in a room of participants. This presentation will provide an overview of a leadership education framework currently used by the University of Minnesota Extension Service, and will engage participants in a discussion to identify other leadership frameworks that have been successful and effective in designing and delivering community-based leadership education.

5.
Kim Boyce is a Regional Extension Educator with the University of Minnesota Extension Service specialized in Leadership and Civic Engagement. His current work focuses on leadership education and community facilitation, with particular emphasis on working with elected officials and organizations in the natural resources sector. His Extension career spans 17 years and includes 11 years of work as a County Extension Director in he Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area. Prior to his employment with Extension he worked for 12 years as a Program Director and Branch Executive Director with the Metropolitan Minneapolis YMCA. He holds a M.A. in Education, as well as a Certificate in Drug and Alcohol Counseling from the University of Iowa, and a B.A. in Psychology from Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota. He has additional graduate coursework at the University of Minnesota in staff and organization development. In the 2004 general election he was elected by the citizens of Hennepin County to the Hennepin Conservation District where he currently serves as Chair.

Cindy Bigger is a Regional Extension Educator with the University of Minnesota Extension Service specialized in Leadership and Civic Engagement. She has worked for the Extension Service more than 20 years. Cindy's work focuses on leadership programs for adults, and organizations. She is a trained facilitator for the Myers Briggs Type Indicator and has been a consultant for various organizations including the YMCA of New York City, Merck Pharmaceutical, GlaxoSmithKline, the Joint Council of Extension Professionals, the American Dairy Association of Minnesota and fifteen Extension Services across the country. One of her passions is Minnesota Politics. Educating legislators about Extension programs and educating the public on how to build relationships with decision-makers is an important part of her Extension outreach. She holds an Associate of Applied Science from the University of MN – Crookston, a Bachelor of Science in Home Economics Education from North Dakota State University, and a Masters of Education from the University of Minnesota. She has also been a Public Policy Fellow at the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs at the University of Minnesota.

Mike Liepold is a Regional Extension Educator with the University of Minnesota Extension Service specialized in Leadership and Civic Engagement. Mike has specialized in leadership education for nearly 20 years. His experiences include work as an Intern with the Vice President‘s Reinventing Government Group, the National Performance Review in Washington DC where he studied performance based management for local units of government. As part of his current Extension role, Mike manages the Minnesota Agriculture and Rural Leadership Program. MARL is a two-year, statewide cohort leadership program offered through a partnership between Southwest Minnesota State University and the University of Minnesota Extension Service. He holds a Bachelor of Science in Ag Education from South Dakota State University, and a Master of Science in Education from the University of Minnesota.

6.
Introduction
As educators it is often challenging to find an effective way to discuss the nature of leadership and to teach leadership in community and organizational settings given the wide array of leadership beliefs and attitudes found in a room of participants. On a daily basis, members of communities and organizations encounter a variety of leader’s behaviors and leadership styles. Leadership looks and feels very different, depending on the situation. Sometimes leadership is

very formal, other times it is informal. Sometimes leadership is very directive and autocratic, other times it is very non-directive and open. Sometimes leadership appears to be very public, bold and obvious. Other times leadership appears to be very calm, quiet and filled with humility. Given these widely different life encounters with leadership behaviors, participants bring great diversity of opinions and beliefs regarding leadership to educational settings.

In an attempt to provide a more consistent method of respectfully engaging community members in leadership discussions, the faculty and staff of the University of Minnesota Extension Service decided to adopt the use of a comprehensive leadership framework to assist in the development and delivery of leadership education programs and materials. The informal use of the framework began over a decade ago, with a more formal adoption occurring in 2003. This session will introduce the framework, review outcomes from the use of the framework and engage session participants in a discussion to explore the Terry framework as well as other leadership frameworks that participants are using.

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

- Identify the six components of the leadership framework as noted by Terry (1993)
- Initiate a comparison of the Terry (1993) framework to other successful types of conceptual framework or models used by themselves and/or other session participants

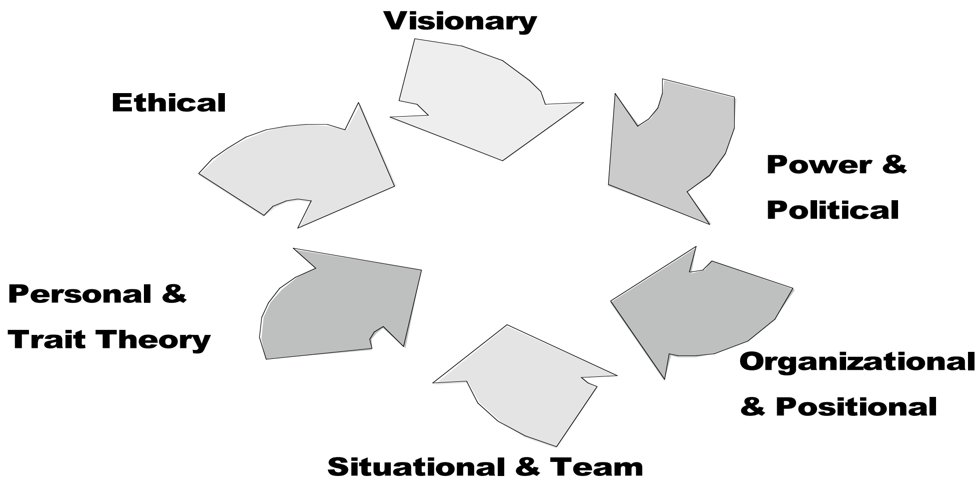
Background
Over a decade ago the faculty and staff of the University of Minnesota Extension Service began to adopt the use of a comprehensive leadership framework to assist in the development and delivery of leadership education programs and materials. We worked closely with University of Minnesota faculty and staff at the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, particularly the Dr. Robert Terry, who served as the Director of the Center for Reflective Leadership at the Humphrey Institute. In1993 Terry authored, *Authentic Leadership: Courage in Action*. The book provided a broad review of existing leadership theory and scholarship, and then grouped the variety of different perspectives into a framework consisting of six major views of leadership. That same year, the North Central Regional Center for Rural Development published, *Leadership: Sustaining Action on Community and Organizational Issues*, a leadership education resource book based on the same Terry framework. A decade later Crosby, Bryson and Anderson (2003) used a similar framework in the development of materials related to leadership and community decision-making. Terry (2001) continued the use of the framework as he further summarized and explored concepts of leadership and the relationship with the concepts of authentic behavior, as well as leadership behavior in situations that are stable or chaotic.

How it Works
Using the Terry framework, members of the University of Minnesota Extension Service - Leadership and Civic Engagement team have developed specific educational materials and activities that build upon the theory and scholarship connected with each of the six leadership views found in the Terry framework. By systematically reviewing leadership concepts using the framework, participants are able to identify where their particular leadership experiences,

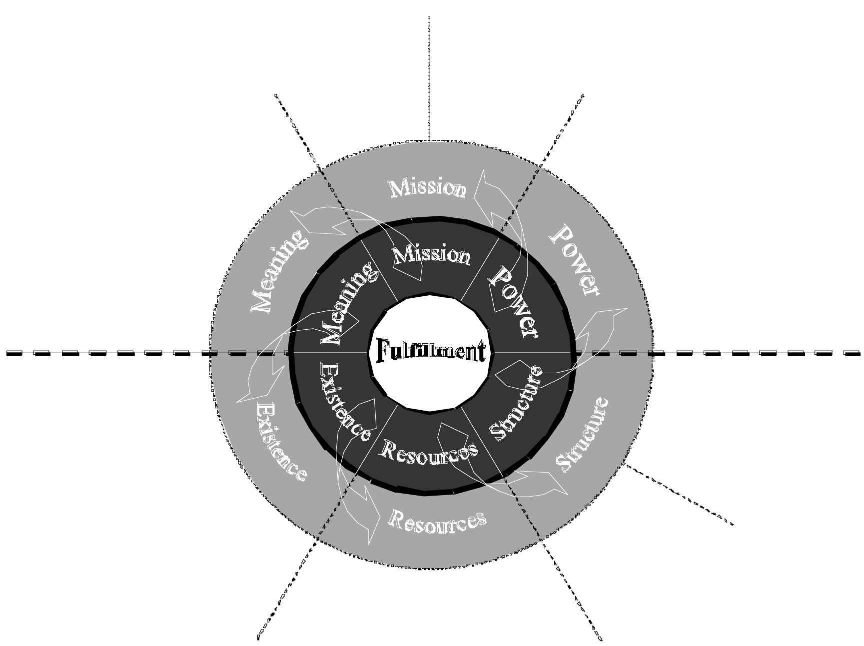
opinions and beliefs reside. The framework serves as a tool to help participants sort and examine the multiple leadership experiences they have and will encounter.

Materials and activities have been designed for each leadership view, and to support educational workshops ranging from four to twelve hours in length. Two graphic overviews and brief summary of the framework follow:

Views of Leadership



Authentic Leadership: The Human Action Wheel



Personal / Trait Theory Leadership Key concepts: Leadership is linked to biological and inborn traits - some people are born to be leaders, others are not, and/or everyone can lead, but their leadership behavior will vary depending on their personal style. Assessing personal skills, preferences, strengths and weaknesses, and understanding personal styles of leadership are part of this view. This is also the part of leadership that connects to the concept of **EXISTENCE** – addressing the question, "What is the history of the person, group/ community?"

Situational / Team Leadership Key concepts**:** Leadership is fluid, dynamic and changing – dependent on the needs of the group. Everyone has the potential to lead and to be a group member. The role of the leader is to help the group move to the desired goal by using different leadership skills/techniques at appropriate times. This is also the part of leadership that connects to the concept of **RESOURCES** – addressing the question, "What are the types of resources needed for success?"

Organizational / Positional Leadership Key concepts**:** Leadership is connected to organizational position and role. Leadership responsibilities differ among levels of the organization. Leadership can be defined by the behaviors, skills and activities exhibited by those in positions of organizational influence. This is also the part of leadership that connects to the concept of **STRUCTURE** – addressing the question, "What are the plans, processes and systems used to organize the work?"

Power / Political Leadership Key concepts: Leadership is connected to getting something done – initiating change. Leadership is viewed as (1) moving forward a personal agenda, and/or (2) the empowerment and engagement of others. Leaders must have the skills to work successfully in formal and informal systems, deal with power and conflict, build coalitions, etc. This is also the part of leadership that connects to the concept of **POWER** – answering the questions, "What is the level of commitment with those who are stakeholders?" and "What are the dynamics between those involved in this issue?"

Visionary Leadership Key concepts**:** Leaders help others to critically examine "the present" - and leaders provide a sense of direction for "the future". Thinking outside of the existing system is encouraged – doing that which has not been done before is expected. This is also the part of leadership that connects to the concept of **MISSION** – addressing the question, "What is the purpose, direction or mission of what we are trying to accomplish?"

Ethical Leadership Key concepts: Leadership is concerned about "doing the right thing" - moving toward a beneficial end or common good. Leadership assesses why something should be done, what is to be done, and how to do it. Leadership engages followers in a respectful, voluntary and community-enhancing relationship. This is also the part of leadership connected to the concept of **MEANING** – addressing questions of, "What is at stake here?" and "What are the right things to do?"

Authentic Leadership Engaging in all of the above – being true to self and true to the world; leading to **FULFILLMENT** – understanding the honoring the promises made to all stakeholders.

The Terry framework serves as the "organizing template" for current leadership programs that are designed and/or developed by the University of Minnesota Extension Service. We are intentionally transparent with the use of the framework. Frequently, during the first session of a multi-session leadership program, an overview of the entire framework is shared with participants. Then specific modules are used at subsequent sessions to more deeply explore each of the six leadership views. The theoretical model of the framework includes the concept that understanding and integrating all of the leadership views is required for effective leadership.

On some occasions modules are used independently if the content of a specific module matches the educational interests and needs of a particular group or organization. For example, an existing community-based leadership program might request that Extension conduct a half-day or full-day workshop on the topic of "ethical leadership" to expand upon or enhance a leadership education curriculum they currently use.

Results to Date
The Terry framework has proved to be a successful tool in developing and delivering leadership education to communities. The framework is broad enough to allow participants to integrate their unique leadership opinions and perspectives. It respects the life experience of the participants. As additional leadership concepts and perspectives are introduced and reviewed, the framework challenges participants to thoughtfully wrestle with their existing views of leadership. The framework is simple enough that people find it easy to understand and to remember the leadership concepts.

The framework is used as we design and develop the content for new Extension leadership programs, and also in consultations with other groups as they design leadership programs. The six core areas can be used as a systematic method to review the proposed leadership concepts and tools for a particular program and to determine if there are leadership perspectives that have been overlooked, over-emphasized or that should be added.

The framework is based on broad leadership concepts and is dynamic, easily allowing for the integration and inclusion of new scholarship and research, yet maintaining a base that builds upon previous scholarship, research and experience. Presently the University of Minnesota Extension Service is revising the core curriculum for U-Lead programs and the Terry framework continues to be the conceptual tool we are using to organize and update our leadership education materials. The revisions are anticipated to be completed by early in 2007.

Workshop evaluations, using a retrospective survey technique, find participants reporting positive changes in "their understanding of views and theories of leadership, and how those views interrelate" typically in the range of 30-50 %.

Conclusions
Using a consistent leadership framework that is scholarly-based has proven to be a valuable tool in leadership education. The breadth of the framework allows for a systematic examination of leadership perspectives, the respectful integration of participant life experience, opinions and beliefs regarding leadership, and a useful tool to clearly communicate leadership concepts. The framework is dynamic allowing for the inclusion of new and emerging scholarship while not requiring a restructuring of the framework.

References

Crosby, B. Bryson, J.M. and Anderson, S. (2003). *Leadership for the common good fieldbook: Tools for working in a shared-power world.* Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.

Fahnestock, M. and Terry, R.W. (2004). An electronic revision of the original human action wheel. St. Paul, MN : Zobius International.

Terry, R. W. and NCRCRD (1993). *Leadership: Sustaining action on community and organizational issues*. Ames, IA: North Central Regional Center for Rural Development and Iowa State University Printing Services.

Terry, R. W. (1993). *Authentic leadership: Courage in action*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Terry, R. W. (2001). *Seven zones for leadership: Acting authentically in stability and chaos*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Practice Presentation Proposal
Submitted to the Association of Leadership Educators
March 3, 2006

1) Barry Boyd
Associate Professor, Dept. of Agricultural Education
Texas A&M University
130 SCTS
MS #2116
College Station, TX 77843-2116
b-boyd@tamu.edu
(979) 862-3693

Summer Felton
Assistant Lecturer, Dept. of Agricultural Education
Texas A&M University
119A SCTS
MS #2116
College Station, TX 77843-2116
sfelton@aged.tamu.edu
(979) 862-3005

2) Helping Students Apply Their College Experience: A New Learning Community Approach

3) Practice

4) Learning communities were implemented in a personal leadership course to foster greater participation and deeper discussion of course topics, because it is difficult to elicit discussion from students in large classes. Students reflected positively on this experience and also gave suggestions for making the learning communities more effective.

5) Barry Boyd is Associate Professor and Associate Department Head in the Department of Agricultural Education at Texas A&M University. He teaches courses in personal and professional leadership, leadership of volunteers, as well as coordinating three undergraduate majors. He believes that the greatest reward for what we do is hearing students say that what we taught them impacted their lives.

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."

6) Paper

Introduction

The concept of learning communities is not new. In fact, Alexander Meiklejohn would probably be considered the "father" of the learning community movement and his efforts were concentrated in the 1920's. Though techniques have changed, the principles and reasons why the learning community was started have not. The learning community was originally about students developing their own point of views and connecting classroom knowledge to the "real world" (Gabelnick, MacGregor, Matthews, & Smith, 1990). In the Personal Leadership Development course taught at a major land grant university, the instructors have used learning communities to help groups of students in one class to make sense of the material and apply it to "real world" contexts. In this session, participants will:

- Examine a new model of a learning community which can be applied to a personal leadership course
- Discuss best practices for assembling learning communities in your courses
- Explore the benefits of being in a learning community
- Discuss student's perspectives from being in a learning community for one semester

Background

A National Panel Report recommended that college institutions place more of an emphasis on students becoming "intentional learners" (AACU, 2002). In order for a student to be an intentional learner, they must connect their study to personal life, their formal education to their career, and the knowledge gained to their social responsibility. Learning communities are one method for students to become intentional learners.

Learning community models vary across institutions and across disciplines within institutions. Though the names vary, there are basically five major types of learning community curricular models: linked courses, learning clusters, freshman interest groups, federated learning communities, and coordinated studies. The linked courses model is simply pairing two courses in the course schedule so that the same students are in each course. The two faculty members coordinate syllabi and the two courses build on each other. The learning clusters model is an expanded model of the linked courses model that involves three or four courses scheduled and listed together so that students are actually a cohort in the cluster. The freshman interest groups model links courses around pre-major topics and also contains a peer advising component. This model is most appropriate in large college or university settings. In federated learning communities, courses are centered around a theme such as Social and Ethical Issues in the Life Sciences. Students enroll in the three courses chosen that fit this theme and also enroll in a three-credit program seminar that is a discussion about the courses and is lead by a "Master Learner." The coordinated studies model involves courses that are highly sequenced and skills-specific. In this model, larger blocks of time are allotted for courses to allow for discussion and extended learning experiences.

In the personal leadership course at this land grant university, we designed a new learning community model. This model is fairly simplistic, but still entertains the notion of a learning community establishing a "common ground of learning as development, the value of building connections, and the power of shared inquiry" (Gabelnick, et al., 1990, p. 17).

How it Works

In classrooms of more than 100 students, it is difficult to elicit discussion from more than a few students. Many students feel self-conscious expressing their opinions in front of large groups of their peers. However, Gebelnick, et al. (1990) notes that if students are in smaller groups of peers with whom that feel safe, they are more likely to share opinions and discuss topics being covered in class.

Learning communities (LC) were implemented in this personal leadership course in order to foster greater participation and deeper discussion of the course topics. Students were randomly assigned to a five to six-member learning community within their class section. Icebreaker activities were used to help community members get acquainted. The primary interaction among members of each learning community occurred during the "lab" days where students applied the lecture concepts to "real world" situations. Students were asked to reflect on the lectures and share their thoughts with the other members of their learning community. While students were not required to sit in their learning communities during lectures, they quickly began doing so on their own.

Results to Date

During the last class period, students were asked to do a reflective writing about their experience in their learning community. The purpose of this reflection exercise was course improvement. The class instructors wanted to know what were the advantages and disadvantages to the learning communities and how could the experience be improved. Fifty students completed this voluntary assignment.

Content analysis of the students' reflection papers was conducted using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Content analysis is a "qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings" (Patton, 2002, p. 453). This study used an open coding technique whereby each paper was carefully read to identify concepts and categories. Each reflective paper was read by two independent reviewers and advantages and disadvantages concerning learning communities identified. Each advantage/disadvantage was coded and identical codes tallied at the end of the process. Every assertion made in the analysis was documented with no fewer than three examples.

Advantages

Table 1 ranks the 15 advantages as perceived by students to being in their learning community during the fall semester. These advantages will be further discussed during the presentation and in the final paper.

Table 1. Advantages of learning communities as perceived by students. N = 50

Advantage	**Frequency**
Created friendships/force me to meet people I would have never met.	38
Created greater depth of understanding of class materials/concepts	31
LCs were a positive experience	31
I was comfortable enough with members to share openly (Easier to participate in small groups)	24
Provided me with study buddies/help with the class	19
Made me want to go to class/class more interesting	14
Provided different viewpoints/opinions to class discussion	13
LCs overall helpful and beneficial	12
Created opportunity for self-reflection and feedback (I learned a great deal about myself)	12
Learned to appreciate/understand other's strengths and opinions	10
Created team relationship	6
LCs were set up in a good way (random assignment)	5
Evoked interesting/in-depth conversations	5
Discovered new ways to solve problems	2

Disadvantages

Table 2. Disadvantages of learning communities as perceived by students. N = 50

Disadvantage	**Frequency**
Didn't get to meet/interact with rest of the class	17
It hurt group interaction when members were absent (consistently)	7
Some projects were not challenging	6
Lack of Diversity in some groups (all males/all females)	2

Suggestions for Improving the Learning Communities

- Rotate group membership to be able to meet the entire class
- Have LCs do a group project to make them work together outside of class
- Use round tables, not long ones to improve conversation
- Group LCs either by Strengths or by personality type
- Grade members on group participation

Conclusions & Recommendations

The goal of instituting learning communities within this large classroom setting was to increase student engagement and dialog. Based on the students' self-reports, this goal was accomplished. Of the 50 respondents, 31 cited that they achieved a greater understanding of the course materials through discussions with their learning community. These close-knit communities not only expanded the students' social circles, but became a place where they felt comfortable sharing opinions and ideas regarding their personal values, strengths, and vision for the future. In-depth conversations happened that probably would have never happened in the larger classroom setting. Participants felt safe.

Areas that need improving included expanding the communities to include other groups so that students can benefit from the opinions and ideas of a broader set of students. Instructors should also examine some of the lab activities that were identified to be "less challenging." The instructors will also look at ways to make students more accountable for their absences since absences affect the value of the learning community.

References

Association of American Colleges and Universities. (2002). Greater expectations: A new vision for learning as nation goes to college. Washington, DC: AACU.

Gabelnick, F., McaGregor, J., Matthews, R.S., and Smith, L. (1990). *Learning communities: Creating connections among students, faculty, and disciplines*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Glaser, B.G. and Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory.* Chicago: Aldine.

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. London: Sage Publications.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. London: Sage Publications.

An Introduction to the Team Leadership Development Practice of Crew Resource Management in the Airline Industry and the Findings of a Qualitative Study to Develop a Practitioners' Model

Christin M. Capriglione, Scott R. Homan Ph.D., and Michael W. Suckow

Purdue University

Scott Robert Homan Ph.D.
Purdue University
151 S. Grant Street Office 440
West Lafayette, IN 47906-3572
(765) 494 – 5613
srhoman@purdue.edu

Christin Capriglione
13844 Jefferson Park Dr. Apt. 12303
Herndon, VA 20171
703-793-0670
christin_c@alumni.purdue.edu

Michael W. Suckow
Purdue University
1413 Aviation Technology
West Lafayette, IN 47906-3572
(765) 496-6375
msuckow@purdue.edu

Abstract

The team leadership development practice known as Crew Resource Management (CRM) has been in existence for twenty-five years, however, one piece still seems to be missing in spite of the past twenty-five years of research, changes, innovations, and improvements —a practical model for how CRM is developed and implemented and what issues are important to professional CRM practitioners for this implementation. For the purposes of this study, the researcher conducted interviews with professionals in the field of CRM in order to obtain their inputs and viewpoints. The result is a practitioners' model of Crew Resource Management practice which displays the ideas and concepts that are seen as necessary to CRM by the experts who regularly apply it. The model indicates communication as the central idea in Crew Resource Management and relates it to other related themes including situation awareness, understanding individual personality traits and characteristics, the capabilities of the group above those of the individual, CRM for all workgroups involved in flight operations, and error reporting without fear of retribution.

Introduction

The concept of Crew Resource Management (CRM) was first introduced in 1979 through a workshop sponsored by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) entitled *Resource Management on the Flightdeck* (Helmreich, Merritt, & Wilhelm, 1999). In response to a number of accidents caused by human failures and pilot error rather than mechanical malfunctions, the aviation industry sought a way to increase the leadership ability of pilots to increase safety and avoid accidents. NASA's then termed Cockpit Resource Management seemed to be the mechanism to accomplish this goal.

Since its inception, Crew Resource Management has developed through several generations of changes and refinements. Current CRM is the fifth generation, which not only focuses on using resources to avert accidents after errors occur, but also to manage and prevent errors from occurring at all. Research also continues to be performed in this area, specifically in the areas of program evaluation and new program implementation. Program evaluation efforts attempt to develop tools to determine the level of success of Crew Resource Management training programs. New program implementation involves adapting and applying CRM concepts to other organizational environments, particularly other high-risk industries.

According to The Royal Aeronautical Society of Great Britain (2003), "Crew Resource Management (CRM) has now been in existence for over two decades but confusion still exists within the aviation industry and elsewhere as to precisely what the term implies" (p. 1). In spite of the past twenty-five years of research, changes, innovations, and improvements, however, one piece still seems to be missing—a practical model for how CRM is developed and implemented by the industry and what issues are important to professional CRM practitioners for this implementation. Furthermore, the guidelines provided by the Federal Aviation Administration which has mandated CRM practice are rather vague and subjective, so each participating organization may use a different definition and model for developing its CRM training programs. Therefore, the problem of this study was that Crew Resource Management is a poorly defined training program for which no standard model exists. The purpose of this study was to discern the commonalities in Crew Resource Management training among aviation organizations and industry professionals in order to document the practitioners' viewpoints and develop a standardized, practical model for executing CRM training based on current industry priorities and practices which incorporates the desired knowledge, skills, and abilities and the central conceptual training ideas.

Literature Review

Crew Resource Management (CRM) is defined by the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) as "the effective use of all available resources: human resources, hardware, and information" (FAA, 2004, p. 2) for safe flight operation.

History of CRM

In 1979, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) introduced the concept of Crew Resource Management—then called Cockpit Resource Management—through a workshop entitled *Resource Management on the Flightdeck* (Helmreich et al, 1999). This development was the result of an increased awareness of leadership failures of humans teams in the causes underlying airline accidents. Specifically, a series of catastrophic accidents in the 1970's, including the 1977 runway collision of two Boeing 747's in Tenerife, implicated flight crew errors rather than mechanical failures as causal factors (Flin et al, 2002). "Many of the air carriers represented at this meeting left it committed to developing new training programs to enhance the interpersonal aspects of flight operations" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 19).

Since its introduction, CRM has evolved through five generations of application. The first generation was begun following the NASA workshop; the first comprehensive program was initiated in 1981 by United Airlines (Helmreich et al, 1999). The first generation of CRM focused on interpersonal skills. Programs employed general management training techniques, utilizing a seminar style with tools such as managerial style assessments, including Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid model, and psychological testing (Helmreich et al, 1999). "They advocated general strategies of interpersonal behavior without providing clear definitions of appropriate behavior in the cockpit" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 2).

The second generation emerged in the mid-to-late 1980's. NASA held a second CRM workshop in 1986 (Helmreich et al, 1999) where various aviation organizations gathered to report their progress and insights into the practice of CRM. The emphasis shifted from a mere focus on interpersonal skills training in generation one to highlight group dynamics and team orientation in the cockpit in generation two. Topics addressed in the second generation included team building, briefing strategies, situational awareness, stress management, decision-making, and breaking the error chain. In this generation, practitioners also suggested that Crew Resource Management would cease to be a separate training module and become integrated with all aspects of flight training. Of particular note is that with this shift in focus, a name change from Cockpit to Crew Resource Management also occurred (Helmreich et al, 1999). Still, many training exercises used to illustrate concepts continued to be unrelated to aviation, and pilots criticized CRM as a lot of "psycho-babble" (Helmreich, 1999, p. 3). Generation two CRM programs also continued to define the flight crew as only the pilots in the cockpit.

The third generation, which started in the early 1990's, broadened the scope of CRM. Third generation CRM extended the definition of flight crew to include flight attendants, dispatchers, and maintenance personnel for the purposes of CRM training. Specific training programs for the trainers who taught and evaluated CRM skills also emerged here (Helmreich et al, 1999).

Training programs began to consider the big picture ideas in the aviation industry, and topics for instruction included consideration of organizational culture and its effects, recognition and assessment of human factors issues, the issues and hazards of flightdeck automation, and leadership particularly for new captains. "At the same time, efforts began to integrate CRM with technical training and to focus on specific skills and behaviors that pilots could use to function more effectively" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 3). The criticism of generation three CRM was that the variety of new ideas was diluting the originally intended focus of CRM, which was to reduce human error (Helmreich et al, 1999).

Fourth generation CRM developed as a means to instill adaptability and allow individual organizations to tailor training programs to their specific cultures and needs. Tailored CRM training programs also corresponded with the introduction of the Advanced Qualification Program (AQP) by the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), which was developed for the same purpose—to allow individual carriers to develop tailored training programs to address all training areas in an organization. CRM behaviors were added to checklists in an effort to ensure that the basics of CRM are practiced, particularly in "non-standard situations" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 3). The fourth generation of CRM posed the idea that CRM had finally ceased to be a separate training module and that the industry had finally succeeded in completely integrating CRM into all aspects of flight training as was suggested in generation two (Helmreich et al, 1999).

CRM is currently considered to be in its fifth generation of practice. Broadly, generation five CRM is considered to be a combination of ideas from the previous four generations. The fifth generation of CRM makes a marked return to the original focus of CRM, which was to reduce human error, and extends it one more step to the management of human error. Within fifth generation CRM, current research suggests a variety of initiatives to improve the practice of CRM and facilitate a proactive approach to error management.

A major theme emerging out of CRM research is the need for evaluation of the effectiveness of CRM as a training program. Salas et al suggest that, “Although systematic training evaluation is not an easy task, it is the only way to ensure that training programs are having the desired effect and are a worthwhile investment for the organization” (Salas et al, 2001, p. 643). A second major pursuit is the application and implementation of CRM training in alternate industry environments including air traffic control (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2001), the Merchant Navy (Flin et al., 2002), the nuclear power industry (Flin et al., 2002), aviation maintenance (Robertson, 2001), the offshore oil industry (Flin & O’Connor, 2001), medicine including anesthesiology (Davies, 2001), and Naval aviation (Oser et al., 2001).

Current Issues in CRM

Through the past twenty-five years of research and application in Crew Resource Management, however, authors continue to discuss problematic issues that exist in its practice. According to The Royal Aeronautical Society of Great Britain (2003), “Crew Resource Management (CRM) has now been in existence for over two decades but confusion still exists within the aviation industry and elsewhere as to precisely what the term implies” (p. 1). Furthermore, “CRM training would be considerably enhanced if a satisfactory and universally agreed set of behavioral standards could be developed" (The Royal Aeronautical Society, 2003, p. 7).

Despite CRM's long history, there remains a lack of consistency within the aviation industry with regard to its definitions, training content, and method of delivery. [Federal Aviation Regulation] FAR Part 121 states the general operating requirements for domestic, flag, and supplemental operations and contains the general requirements for CRM training. However, it leaves the methods for CRM curriculum design and development, as well as for evaluation, ambiguous. Aviation leaders hoped that the diverse, complex, and systemic nature of CRM errors could be reduced with simple solutions. The appeal of personality/small group dynamics approaches to solving CRM problems caused many government officials and industry executives to be receptive to major investments in CRM training. They wanted to be able to *re-engineer the flight crews* without having to *re-engineer major elements* of the systems.

In the absence of "a clear definition and goal of CRM training" (Komich, 1996, p. 541), and in light of the aforementioned lack of consistency and consensus in the industry regarding CRM and its practice, it was the intent of this study to develop a model for Crew Resource Management training based on current practice and industry input which incorporates the desired knowledge, skills, and abilities with the most effective conceptual training tools in order to provide the standard and clarity that is lacking. One other researcher is currently creating a model of common industry practices in CRM that identifies specific topic areas and instructional methods (Beneigh et al, 2003). This study, however, attempted to move beyond the instructional surface to discern commonalities in the practitioners' viewpoints in order to develop a practical, conceptual model of CRM.

Methodology of the Study

The study was qualitative in nature, using interviewing as the primary means of data gathering. The researcher chose to use a qualitative methodology in order to obtain specific opinions from the participants, which could not be as easily obtained through a quantitative tool such as a survey. The qualitative approach allowed the researcher to obtain complete thoughts from the participants in order to compose a clearer picture of the practitioners' viewpoints of Crew Resource Management.

Sample Selection and Data Collection

Five subject matter experts (SME's) in Crew Resource Management were purposefully selected to participate in the interview process. The reason for choosing such a small number of participants is justified by the qualitative research method itself. "What would be a 'bias' in statistical sampling, and therefore a weakness, becomes intended focus in qualitative sampling, and therefore a strength. The logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry, thus the term purposeful sampling. Studying information-rich cases yields insights and in-depth understanding rather than empirical generalizations" (Patton, 2002, p. 230). The criteria for selection as a subject matter expert was multiple years of experience teaching and/or developing Crew Resource Management training as well as multiple years of experience as a professional in the commercial aviation industry.

Each subject matter expert participated in a one-hour interview during which the interviewer asked a series of standardized primary questions and a variety of unformalized secondary questions. After conducting each interview, the researcher transcribed each interview in preparation for qualitative analysis. Using the interview transcripts, the researcher then categorized the information using two pieces of software—Microsoft Excel® and ATLAS.ti® 5.0 Demo. The researcher then discerned those concepts that were common results from multiple interviews. Those common results were used to develop an initial practical model suitable for future validation by a larger population. The primary deliverable of this study is a CRM model that emphasizes the primary elements of Crew Resource Management according to the practitioners' viewpoints. These elements may be actual or ideal depending on the particular participant, but there is consensus regarding the necessity of these elements.

Credibility of the Study

One means of adding credibility to a qualitative study is to collect and analyze data concurrently (Morse et al., 2002). In this study, the researcher initially analyzed and categorized the responses from each separate interview directly after it was conducted and transcribed.

A second way to lend credibility is to obtain an appropriate sample. According to Morse et al. (2002), an appropriate sample consists of "participants who best represent or have knowledge of the research topic" (p. 12). In this study, the researcher applied this concept by gathering information from five established experts in the field of Crew Resource Management and its instruction and development.

A third way to ensure credibility is "to create an account of method and data which can stand independently so that another trained researcher could analyse the same data in the same way and come to essentially the same conclusions" (Mays & Pope, 1995, p. 110). Along these lines, the researcher created a written transcript of each interview conducted in order to provide a record of the data that was collected.

Findings

After completion of the interviews, the researcher categorized the responses into six categories; topics for instruction, instructional methods, sources of program development and update information, CRM improvements, value of CRM, and overall common themes among participants.

Topics for Instruction

Within each interview the researcher inquired about the topics that are taught within CRM training programs. Documentation of those topics included by the practitioners in CRM programs allows the researcher to compare industry CRM practice with the topics suggested in the FAA Advisory Circular. Topics indicated by a majority of the participants were teams/teamwork, communication, leadership, situational awareness, command/authority, workload distribution/management, and the power of the group greater than that of the individuals. Of these topics, all are consistent with those outlined by the FAA Advisory Circular except two—command/authority and the power of the group.

Instructional Methods

The second area of categorization is instructional methods employed to instruct the selected topics of a CRM program. The participants did not identify specific methods to instruct specific topics, however, there was a degree of consensus regarding the most frequently used methods. Methods indicated by a majority of the participants included examples including scenarios, cases, accidents, and incidents; participation including discussion, exercises, games, and role-playing; lecture; briefings and debriefings; and video.

Sources of Program Development and Update Information

The third category of information collected through the interviews was the sources of information used by the practitioners to develop new CRM programs and update existing programs. Sources for new developments and updated information identified by a majority of the participants included industry seminars and conferences, industry organizations, crew feedback about training and accidents, and incidents.

CRM Improvements

Various questions were asked of the participants to determine the improvements they would make to traditional CRM to make it more valuable for their operations The main improvement suggested by the participants for improvement of CRM programs involved time devoted to CRM training, specifically longer courses and more frequent conducting of courses.

Value of CRM

Although Crew Resource Management is mandated by the FAA for use in many aviation operations, the researcher desired to ascertain whether there is value in CRM training beyond the mandate. Some of the participants agreed that quantifying the value of CRM is a difficult task. Participant five inquired, "If you don't have any accidents for a period of time, does that mean your CRM was great or does that mean you were lucky? It's a very hard thing to measure directly so you have to measure empirically by…what's not happening." Personal experiences, however, dictated to them that there is value in using CRM even if it is difficult to measure. Participant five further stated that "I have seen it work in my cockpit and work positively. And I have flown in cockpits where it wasn't working and things were getting ugly. And so I can see a direct benefit to that." Participant two also supports that position: "I really found the value of it, have used it myself, and it certainly helped me get through some situations that I, most probably, would not have gotten through as well as I did. And the results were more favorable by using the skills that I learned with CRM."

Common Themes Among Participants

Though important, on a broad scale, the interview responses show that the environment in which the training occurs is more pertinent to good CRM practice in the aviation industry than the specific topics and methods of instruction used in the programs. This idea is supported by the common themes that emerged from the combined interview transcripts.

Communication surfaced as the central idea in Crew Resource Management. The FAA Advisory Circular emphasizes a number of different ideas for consideration in CRM, but the information from this study indicates that communication is the primary focus of the professionals that employ CRM on a regular basis. Participant five stated this idea as follows: “The core of that would be the communications process, the breakdown of communications, the tools to repair the communications process. And that’s probably the core part of the [CRM] curriculum—the actual process of communication, what breaks down, and then how to attempt to fix that.” Furthermore, communication is referenced not merely as a topic for instruction, but also as a central theme and necessary consideration when using CRM in the cockpit. Participant four stated, “Crew Resource Management is really developing good communication skills with people.” Participant three gave further support to this idea: “It’s all about interpersonal communication…you can’t fly a cockpit anymore without good communication.” Additionally, participant five stated that, “Communication has to be essential in the cockpit—good communication flow between the crewmembers.”

Connected to communication is the idea of situational awareness. Participant responses indicated that awareness is also a necessary component of successful flight operations. Participant three indicated this in the following manner, “Situational awareness is really the important piece there. Not sitting there thinking about what’s going to hurt you all the time, but you're just trying to be proactive in reducing and preventing accidents and incidents. Just being more aware all the time of your surroundings and what's out there."

Not only is awareness necessary in itself, but using good communication to convey one's awareness to the other crewmembers is also vital. Participant one supports this idea in saying that, "Where the CRM aids that leader [of the cockpit] is through the communication to keep his or her situational awareness at its highest level." Furthermore, participant four relates awareness to communication by stating that, "It all revolves around communication, knowing what's in your surroundings and being able to convey that to others." Participant one agrees: "If everybody communicates well, and they're at the same [awareness] level, then you've reduced the potential for surprises in and out of the cockpit around the airplane."

A third common theme that is connected to awareness and communication is the theme of understanding the people aspects of flight operations. Understanding personality traits and characteristics and being able to communicate in light of those traits was indicated to be an important concept. Interviewee responses supported the idea that good leadership practice involves being aware of crewmembers' personality types, characteristics, and moods. Participant one said that, "Knowing that a person fell into one of those [personality type] categories technically should allow another person who's not in that category to understand what those character traits are and to be able to work with them better." Participant four also lent support to this idea of understanding the traits of one's fellow crewmembers: "It's…important that they're aware. You've got your Hitler style or your 'everybody likes the guy', too nice of a guy—the captain that really doesn't exercise his authority at all to the one that's my way or the highway. A person needs to be aware of where they fall in that broad category and how to deal with it." Furthermore, according to participant five, "we can also teach the other crewmembers the warning signs to recognize when somebody's breaking down in that process—they're not communicating effectively."

The leadership potential of CRM to influence behavioral change is connected to the necessity of understanding people. Participant one stated, "Unless someone's in long-term counseling it's pretty tough to change anybody, especially as they get older. But, if you can make them recognize who they are and they can probably better recognize who they work with, it could also have a contributing increase to safety." The response of participant five supports this idea further: "That type of thing's built in your early years and it's hard to be trainable, but recognition of the weaknesses is a benefit."

The aforementioned ideas—communication, situational awareness, and understanding individual characteristics and personality traits combine to provide the crew with the ability to function better as a group than any one individual could operate by himself/herself. The importance of the power of group leadership being greater than any one individual's is specifically emphasized by the respondents as well. Participant one indicated that, "The brainpower in the cockpit, if you add it both together, could be far greater than the sum of one and one. You actually gain more by having two people working there together than you do by having two individuals working as individuals." Furthermore, Participant five suggested that the problems occur when "the communications stopped, where the interpersonal relationship broke down and there was no longer an effective crew on board that airplane but two or three individuals doing their own things."

The ideas mentioned above are not only important for the pilots in the cockpit as a group, but responses indicated that CRM training should be implemented for all groups involved with the flight process.

Understanding the CRM Practitioners' Model

On a broad scale, the interview responses show that the environment in which the training occurs is more pertinent to good CRM practice in the aviation industry than the specific topics and methods of instruction used in the programs. The original expectation of the researcher was to develop a model that indicated topics for instruction and related them to specific instructional methods; however, the participants' responses conveyed a model of greater depth of concepts than simply instructional topics and methods. In light of this idea, the following model is a representation of the previous common themes in Crew Resource Management that portrays the researcher's interpretation of the practitioners' viewpoints and values.

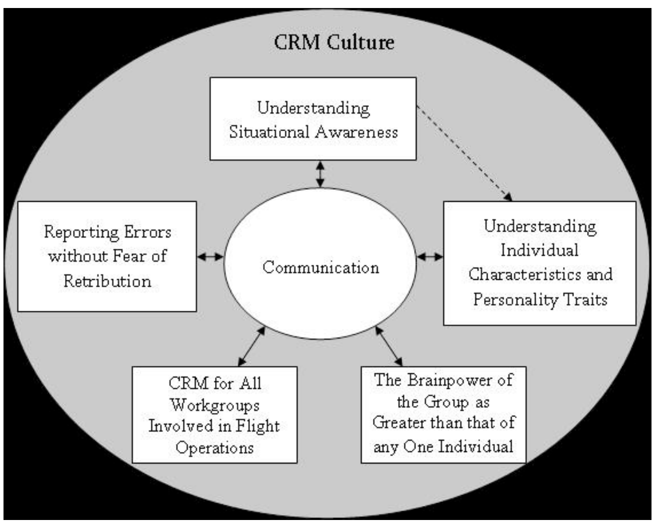


Figure 1. The CRM Practitioners' Model.

Communication

As was previously mentioned, communication on various levels is the central idea of the practitioners' model for Crew Resource Management. Communication is a theme unto itself according to the professionals; however, it is also an element in several other themes. The connection between communication and five other themes is represented by the central location of communication in the model and delineated further in the following sections related to the five surrounding concepts.

Situational Awareness

The first connection indicated by this model is that of communication to situational awareness. Situational awareness is an important concept in itself as indicated by interview responses, but it is also important in relation to effective crew communication. Crew members must be able to communicate their individual awareness levels to the other individuals with whom they are operating. A third relationship between communication and situational awareness is crewmembers' ability to become aware of breakdowns in the communication process as they occur in order to respond accordingly. In sum, individual situational awareness is important to increasing safety in flight operations, but using effective communication to convey one's own awareness to other members of the crew further increases this safety level by allowing all crewmembers to be at the highest possible awareness level.

Understanding Individual Characteristics and Personality Traits

The next connection indicated by this model is that of communication and situational awareness to understanding individual characteristics and personality traits of other crewmembers in order to facilitate more effective operations. The results indicated that an understanding of individuals' personality traits and characteristics and being able to communicate in light of those traits is an important concept. Understanding the personality traits and characteristics of fellow crewmembers assists pilots in determining approaches to communication and operational practices in the cockpit to facilitate better crew coordination and more effective operations.

Group Brainpower Greater than Individual Brainpower

The third connection indicated by this model is that of communication and the idea that crewmembers are more effective as a group than as individuals. Good communication facilitates the entire crew's ability to act cohesively and gain greater effectiveness than would result from each crewmember acting on his/her own individual brainpower. For this idea to be effective, however, all individuals must contribute to the whole body of crew knowledge through communication and contribution of ideas and information to aid the operational process. Communication heightens the synergy of the crew as a whole and allows the group to display capabilities greater than the sum of the individual parts separate abilities.

CRM for all Flight Operations Workgroups

The fourth connection portrayed by this model brings the remaining workgroups in the flight environment into the CRM picture and emphasizes their role in the communication process. The pilots in the cockpit are not operating in isolation. Multiple other groups within an organization, including flight attendants, dispatchers, mechanics, and crew schedulers, also work to make the pilots' portion of flight operations possible. All these groups are part of the communication process that allows for safe and successful flight operations.

CRM training for all workgroups also aids communication by assisting them in understanding the others' characteristics and perspectives. As pilots need to understand the characteristics and personality traits of other pilots, multiple workgroups need to understand these things in each other as well. Also, improving communication among workgroups decreases the opportunities for misunderstanding and unnecessary action. In sum, all the workgroups related to flight operations are important links in the communication chain. Even if communication among the pilots is effective, if communication to the other groups involved fails, the complete effectiveness of flight operations remains uncertain.

Error Reporting Without Fear of Retribution

The fifth and final connection demonstrated by this model is between communication and the idea that it is necessary for pilots to be able to communicate their errors, mistakes, and failures without fear or retribution or punitive action. Participant one stated that, “What is a problem is, presenting information, realizing that we all want to learn from mistakes and to get people to admit to those mistakes without fear or retribution, knowing that their contribution may keep somebody else from being as uncomfortable as they were when they made the mistake.” The bottom line is that open communication by those making the errors could provide great improvement to the safety of the aviation industry as a whole. New methods to prevent errors cannot be developed nor sources of errors found if those persons making the errors are hiding them. As has been indicated by Helmreich et al (1999), “Underlying the fifth generation of CRM is the premise that human error is ubiquitous and inevitable—and a valuable source of information. If error is inevitable, CRM can be seen as a set of error countermeasures with three lines of defense. The first, naturally, is the avoidance of error. The second is trapping incipient errors before they are committed. The third and last is mitigating the consequences of those errors which occur and are not trapped” (p. 7). If error is “a valuable source of information” (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 7), then the industry must find a way to gain access to this information. As the practitioners suggest, it is desirable to have a system that allows pilots to report their errors without fear of punishment in the interest of benefiting the entire aviation industry.

Culture

Communication and the elements connected to it are ultimately encompassed within the concept of CRM as an organizational and industry culture. CRM should not be merely a training module, but a way of operating—a way of doing things on an organizational and industry level. The challenge that still exists for some practitioners, though, is to develop this culture, because, as Participant four states, “they’re getting the structure of ‘hey be aware of this,’ ‘listen to yourself,’ ‘learn how to relax.’ They’re getting the bullet points, on all the factors that build around CRM but once they got it, it’s taking that out of the class, into the practice.”

Conclusions

As the interview responses indicated, communication on its various levels is the central important idea in the practice of Crew Resource Management from the practitioners’ viewpoints. Communication is important in conveying individual awareness levels to the entire crew in order to assist all crewmembers in maintaining the maximum awareness level. When communicating, it is important to understand the character and personality traits of those with whom one is working in order to communicate most effectively. Good communication facilitates the entire crew’s ability to act cohesively and gain greater effectiveness than would result from each crewmember acting on his/her own individual brainpower. Furthermore, the chain of communication exceeds the boundaries of the cockpit to include all workgroups involved in flight operations including flight attendants, maintenance personnel, dispatchers, and crew schedulers. Finally, in order to gain meaningful information to prevent errors and improve CRM programs to further increase safety, pilots need a system by which they can report errors without fear of retribution. The question that emerges from this idea of communication as the central idea is whether this conception of CRM by the practitioners accomplishes the goals of CRM that have been asserted by the researchers—to avoid error, to trap "incipient errors before they are committed" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 7), and to mitigate "the consequences of those errors which occur and are not trapped" (Helmreich et al, 1999, p. 7).

The second question that arises is whether CRM is currently a culture in the aviation industry. While Participant three said that CRM is a culture in his organization, Participant two indicated that CRM will eventually become a culture at some time in the future as it ceases to be a program separate from other training. His statement indicates that CRM has not become a culture yet, and is supported by the claim from Participant four that the challenge is getting people to take CRM knowledge out of the classroom and into everyday practice.

In relation to the FAA Advisory Circular (AC), the results of this study were consistent with information provided in that document. Suggested topics for CRM instruction and methods to provide that instruction are consistent with the topics and methods that were indicated by the study participants. Common topics included teams/teamwork, communication, leadership, situational awareness, workload distribution/management, conflict resolution/management, planning, stress/stress management, decision-making, briefing/debriefing, vigilance, automation, self-evaluation, crew climate, inquiry, advocacy, and interrelationships in the cockpit. Common instructional methods included examples including scenarios, cases, accidents, and incidents; participation including discussion, exercises, games, and role-playing; lecture; briefings and debriefings; and video.

The AC also emphasizes the idea that pilots must work as a team rather than as individuals to be most effective. According to the AC, "CRM is training that requires the active participation of all crewmembers. It provides an opportunity for individuals and crews to examine their own behavior, and to make decisions on how to improve cockpit teamwork" (FAA, 2004, p. 6). This idea is supported by this study by the aforementioned idea that "the brainpower in the cockpit, if you add it both together, could be far greater than the sum of one and one. You actually gain more by having two people working there together than you do by having two individuals working as individuals." Finally, the results of this study are consistent with the AC in their indication of the importance of CRM for all workgroups involved in flight operations.

References

Beneigh, T.N., Cook, W.S., Clark, R.E. (2003). Tools to Teach Effective Human Factors Concepts to Airline Flight Crews. *Proceedings of the Twelfth International Symposium on Aviation Psychology.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University.

Besco, R. O. (1997). The Need for Operational Validation of Human Relations-centered CRM Training Assumptions. In R.S. Jensen (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Ninth International Symposium on Aviation Psychology.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University.

Boehm-Davis, D., Holt, R., Ikomi, P., Hansberger, J., Beaubien, J., Incalcatera, K., et al. (1998). *CRM Procedures and Crew Performance: Executive Summary of Advanced Crew Resource Management (ACRM).* Washington, DC: Federal Aviation Administration, AAR-100.

Davies, J.M. (2001). Medical Application of Crew Resource Management. In E. Salas, C.A. Bowers & E. Edens (Eds.), *Improving Teamwork in Organizations: Applications of Resource Management Training* (pp. 265-281). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Federal Aviation Administration. (2003). *Advisory Circular – Subject: Standard Operating Procedures for Flight Deck Crewmembers.* Retrieved October 26, 2004 from http://www.airweb.faa.gov/Regulatory_and_Guidance_Library/rgAdvisoryCircular.nsf/0/b173ba8a295764f086256cde006a44ad/$FILE/AC120-71A.pdf.

Federal Aviation Administration. (2004). *Advisory Circular – Subject: Crew Resource Management Training*. Retrieved October 26, 2004 from http://www.airweb.faa.gov/Regulatory_and_Guidance_Library/rgAdvisoryCircular.nsf/0/80038cf51aace53686256e24005cbb23/$FILE/AC120-51e.pdf.

Federal Aviation Administration (2005). *Federal Aviation Regulations.* Retrieved April 1, 2005 from http://www.airweb.faa.gov/Regulatory_and_Guidance_Library/rgFAR.nsf/MainFrame?OpenFrameSet

Flin, R., & O'Connor, P. (2001). Applying Crew Resource Management on Offshore Oil Platforms. In E. Salas, C.A. Bowers & E. Edens (Eds.), *Improving Teamwork in Organizations: Applications of Resource Management Training* (pp. 217-233). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Flin, R., O'Connor, P., & Mearns, K. (2002). Crew Resource Management: Improving Team Work in High Reliability Industries. *Team Performance Management, 8(3/4),* 68-78.

Helmreich, R.L., & Merritt, A.C. (2000). Safety and Error Management: The Role of Crew Resource Management. In B.J. Hayward & A.R. Lowe (Eds.), *Aviation Resource Management* (pp. 107-119). Aldershot, UK: Ashgate.

Helmreich, R.L., Merritt, A.C., & Wilhelm, J.A. (1999). The Evolution of Crew Resource Management Training in Commercial Aviation. *International Journal of Aviation Psychology, 9(1),* 19-32.

Ikomi, P.A., Boehm-Davis, D.A., Holt, R.W., & Incalcaterra, K.A. (1999). Jump Seat Observations of Advanced Crew Resource Management (ACRM) Effectiveness. *Proceedings of the Tenth International Symposium on Aviation Psychology.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University

Komich, J.N. (1997). CRM Training: Which Crossroads to Take Now???? In R.S. Jensen (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Ninth International Symposium on Aviation Psychology.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University.

Mays, N., & Pope, C. (1995). Qualitative Research: Rigour and qualitative research. *BMJ, 311,* 109-112.

McKenna, J.T. (1996). Carriers Hone CRM Programs. *Aviation Week and Space Technology, 145(10),* 146-147.

Morse, J.M., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K, & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification Strategies for Establishing Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 1(2)*: Article 2.

Oser, R.L., Salas, E., Merket, D.C., & Bowers, C.A. (2001). Applying Resource Management Training in Naval Aviation: A Methodology and Lessons Learned. In E. Salas, C.A. Bowers, & E. Edens (Eds.), *Improving Teamwork in Organizations: Applications of Resource Management Training* (pp. 283-301). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Robertson, M.M. (2001). Resource Management for Aviation Maintenance Teams. In E. Salas, C.A. Bowers, & E. Edens (Eds.), *Improving Teamwork in Organizations: Applications of Resource Management Training* (pp. 283-301). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Royal Aeronautical Society. (1999). *Crew Resource Management*. Retrieved September 30, 2003, from http://www.raes-hfg.com/reports/crm-now.htm.

Salas, E., Burke, C.S., Bowers, C.A., & Wilson, K.A. (2001). Team Training in the Skies: Does Crew Resource Management (CRM) Training Work? *Human Factors, 43(4),* 641-674.

Smith-Jentsch, K.A., Baker, D.P., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J.A. (2001). Uncovering the Differences in Team Competency Requirements: The Case of Air Traffic Control Teams. In E. Salas, C.A. Bowers, & E. Edens (Eds.), *Improving Teamwork in Organizations: Applications of Resource Management Training* (pp. 283-301). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

1. Dr. Hannah S. Carter
   Director
   Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources
   PO Box 110126
   Gainesville, FL 32611-0126
   hscarter@ufl.edu
   (352) 392-1038

   Dr. Rick D. Rudd
   Associate Professor
   Department of Agricultural Education and Communication
   University of Florida
   PO Box 110540
   Gainesville, FL 32611-0540
   (352) 392-0502 ext. 239
   rrudd@ifas.ufl.edu.

2. Leadership Expectations of County Farm Bureau Board Members

3. Research

4. The objective of this study was to measure the extent to which county Farm Bureau members practice the leadership expectations held by state Farm Bureau leaders and the level of importance they assign to those skills. With this data, the Florida Farm Bureau Federation can develop a leadership program to meet the needs of Farm Bureau and Farm Bureau members.

5. Dr. Hannah Carter graduated with a B.S. degree in biology from the University of Maine at Presque Isle in 1995. After working for several years for the University of Maine Cooperative Extension, she went to Florida to begin her graduate work. In 1999, she graduated with her M.S. in agricultural education and communication from the University of Florida and in 2004 earned her Ph.D. from UF in agricultural leadership. 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. He received his Ph.D. from Virginia Tech in 1994 where he majored in Vocational and Technical Education. 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.

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 rural community to the forefront at the community, state, national and international level. A reasonable choice to provide this voice for rural communities and provide individuals to participate in the leadership process are members of Farm Bureau. Farm Bureau reflects the future of agriculture and rural communities in its membership, especially the younger members who are embarking in their careers and looking towards leadership positions in the future (P. Cockrell, personal communication, September 10, 2002).

For those that do accept leadership positions within the Farm Bureau organization, will they be able to become effective and provide strong leadership? Florida Farm Bureau realizes the need to provide leadership training for their members, but what training should be offered? McCaslin (1993) theorized that sustainable rural development has been and will be realized only through programs, which focus on active involvement of human resources rather than a passive approach. Florida Farm Bureau is taking this proactive approach, realizing the need for leadership development and wanting to take the next step in designing a leadership-training program for its county board members.

A focus group consisting of county Farm Bureau presidents agreed that training for county board members should be improved, with one participant going on to state that it is “the very weakest link” in his county Farm Bureau’s program (Florida Farm Bureau Public Relations Division [FFBPRD], 1998). Findings from a study of those who went through a leadership development program found that those who participated felt more confident about promoting causes, were able to motivate others better, made more informed decisions on public issues, were better able to work with people and lead a group, and deal with local leaders better (Rohs & Langone, 1993). If the Florida Farm Bureau Federation (FFBF) were to offer such a leadership-training program to it’s county Farm Bureau board members, it would be expected that participants would have similar experiences and results.

Organizations can play a significant role by nurturing future leaders. They can provide the education and training necessary for the advancement of leadership among its members (Foster, 2000). Pernick (2001) states there are two advantages of building leadership talent within an organization. First, the next generation of leaders is groomed by the organization and can instill the culture and agenda of the organization. Secondly, the organization has greater control over the supply of leaders with the necessary skills, which makes implementation of the organization’s agenda easier and quicker. (p. 429)

Leadership development resides in the context of a community or organization and must answer the question, “leadership for what?” (Foster, 2000). This study will attempt to provide a basis for the “what” for the FFBF. It will provide research that will allow the state organization to customize a leadership development program for its membership with the expectations that after members go through this training they will have the leadership background necessary to become effective leaders not only in the Farm Bureau organization, but in their homes, businesses, and communities. The effects of a leadership development program for Farm Bureau members could be far reaching, but before those effects can be felt, desired leadership practices must be identified, existing behavior in current leaders must be determined, and "gaps" between desired practices and existing behavior must be identified

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.

A lack of leadership in grassroots organizations may have dire consequences on the success of the group and the attempt to achieve change. To reduce chances of failure, grassroots organizations need to foster the leadership skills of their members (Bettencourt, 1996). Maxwell (1995) states "grow a leader—grow the organization" (p.4). An organization's strength is a direct result of the strength of the leaders of the organization. Organizational leaders must be active in their organization, generate productive activity and must encourage and command changes in the organization (Maxwell, 1995). The survival of institutions depends on the capacity of "leaders to develop and maintain organizational cultures that foster and sustain autonomy and independence while strengthening the ability of individuals to care for and commit to the organization and the larger community" (Scott, 2000, p. 13).

One of the fastest ways to build leaders in an organization is to train them. Leadership development programs that aid in the assurance of an adequate supply of effective leaders are a vital and continuing need in communities and organizations across the United States (Rohs & Langone, 1993). Leadership development builds the capacity of local leaders and citizens. This means enhancing the potential of individuals to solve problems. It is done by engaging citizens and organizations to identify needs, resources, and opportunities (Hustedde & Woodward, 1996).

A major responsibility of an organization is to cultivate leadership skills and pass on that knowledge to the next generation of leaders. Eisinger (2002) states, "once associations identify future volunteer leaders, they must offer specific training programs" (p.14). Much of this training needs to be directed towards those volunteers who are serving on organizational boards as they sometimes lack the necessary skills to be effective board members.

Many non-profits have a functioning board. The choice to sit on an organization's board is an important decision (Scott, 2000). Those that serve on the boards have a personal commitment to the organization's cause. Most board members should have a deep knowledge and understanding about the organization. The key to making the board effective is organizing the work of the board (Drucker, 2001).

In the past, some boards with weak board members may have been able to operate inefficiently and still get by, but this will not be possible as organizations face the transformation process that is inevitable if they are to be successful. Boards can no longer afford to be dysfunctional. There is a dangerous tendency for some boards to be so attached to their past that they overvalue their history and are reluctant to embrace the necessary change that will make them effective (Tweeten, 2002).

"If we assume that leaders are made, not born, and that most people have within them the basic skills and abilities to assume leadership positions, then one strategy for local capacity building is to promote the emergence of such individuals" (Garkovich, 1984, p. 209). This can be done through organized leadership development programs.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVE

Organizations can play a significant role by nurturing future leaders. They can provide the education and training necessary for the advancement of leadership among its members (Foster, 2000). Pernick (2001) states there are two advantages of building leadership talent within an organization. "First, the next generation of leaders is groomed by the organization and can instill the culture and agenda of the organization. Secondly, the organization has greater control over the supply of leaders with the necessary skills, which makes implementation of the organization's agenda easier and quicker" (p. 429).

The effects of a leadership development program for Farm Bureau members could be far reaching, but before those effects can be felt, desired leadership practices needed to be identified, existing behavior in current leaders needed to be determined, and "gaps" between desired practices and existing behavior needed to be identified.

The objective of this study was to measure the extent to which county Farm Bureau members practice the leadership expectations held by state Farm Bureau leaders and the level of importance they assign to those skills. This study examined these expectations that the FFBF has of its' local leaders who are members of county board and the level of importance and proficiency that board members place on these skills. With the data this study provided, the FFBF can tailor a leadership development program to meet the needs of Farm Bureau and Farm Bureau members.

METHODS/PROCEDURES

The research design of this study was a two-part assessment of the Florida Farm Bureau and its membership using qualitative research methods. The two parts of this study included: (1) a qualitative long interview with seven members of the state leadership of the FFBF. This interview was the first part of the study and provided the foundation for the leadership competency instrument given to county farm bureau board members. Interview questions included their expectations of desired leadership practices and behaviors of local board members and their expectations of what county farm bureau boards should accomplish and (2) a qualitative survey instrument was developed by the researcher, based upon findings from the qualitative interviews and given to a random sample of members of local Farm Bureau boards. This instrument had a list of 66 leadership practices divided into four competency areas, each respondent rated their perceived importance and proficiency of each. Both instruments were evaluated by a panel of experts for content and validity and pilot tested with comparable groups.

This instrument was pilot tested with a group of county board members who were not included in the final sample. Participants were asked to rate the importance of each competency to the success of a county board using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (low importance) to 7 (high importance). In addition, how proficient they felt they were, was also rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (low importance) to 7 (high importance). A conceptual model for this part of the study depicting the relationship between the competencies found in the first part of the study and what makes a successful board member is presented in Figure 1. This model represents that being a successful board member is a function of competencies in the four theme areas.

<u>Figure 1</u>. *Competencies Necessary for Successful Board Members.*

SBM Successful Board Member	=	Competencies In: f (L_c	+ P_c	+ E_c	+ K_c)
		Leadership	Political Process	Effective Boards	Knowledge of Farm Bureau

This instrument was comprised of four competency sections: (1) 15 leadership questions, (2) 20 political process questions, (3) 15 effective board questions, and (4) 16 knowledge of Farm Bureau questions. The mean and standard deviation was calculated for the importance and proficiency of each competency section.

The responses from the long interviews underwent content analysis and four major theme areas emerged from the analysis of the interview transcripts and audiotapes. These areas were: leadership, political process, effective boards, and knowledge of Farm Bureau. These were all areas that the state leadership determined county Farm Bureau board members should possess skills in. Questions on the interview questionnaire were not separated into these four areas, but the responses given by interview participants were easily categorized into these four theme areas.

The population for this study was composed of members of local county Farm Bureau boards. A random sample of 280 county board members out of a total of 666 county Farm Bureau board members of the Florida Farm Bureau was sent a researcher-designed questionnaire. Using a table provided by Salant and Dillman (1994), the researcher chose a 50/50 split with a ±5% sampling error, thus a sample of 280 individuals was chosen (p. 55). 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 46%. In a study by Green and Hutchinson (1997) on the *Effects of Population Type on Mail Survey Response Rates and on the Efficacy of Response Enhancers*, the authors found that the response rate for those involved in agriculture was 30%, while the general public had a return rate of 35%.

Early and late respondents of the qualitative survey instrument were compared to determine if there were differences between those who responded early and late to the surveys as late responders are often similar to nonrespondents (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1996). There were no significant differences found between the early and the late respondents in this study.

This instrument was developed using the Borich needs assessment model, which assessed the respondents' perceptions about the importance of each item or competency and their proficiency (or ability) to apply this skill or knowledge. By analyzing the perceived importance and proficiency about a particular topic, individuals will learn the actual need for further education or programming efforts (Waters & Haskell, 1989).

A Likert-type scale from one to seven was located on the side of each competency, on the left survey participants were asked to rank how important they believed it was for an ideal county Farm Bureau board member to possess the following abilities or competencies with 1=low and 7=high. On the right side, respondents were asked how proficient they believed they were at each ability or competency with 1=low and 7=high.

RESULTS/FINDINGS

The importance and proficiency mean scores for each competency were compared. The comparisons for the leadership section can be found in Table 1. As would be expected the proficiency scores are less then the importance scores, which would indicate that respondents feel the competencies are important for ideal county board members to posses, but do not feel as proficient as the importance scores in these competencies. The greatest gap (0.8) is found in the competency "use effective communication skills in media interviews", which would indicate that respondents feel it is important but they do not feel proficient in this skill area.

Table 1. *Leadership Competencies – Comparisons of Importance and Proficiencies*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Use effective communication skills in media interviews	5.6	4.8	0.8
Use effective communication skills in writing letters	5.5	4.8	0.7
Demonstrate ability to conduct an orderly meeting	5.9	5.4	0.5
Use effective communication skills in working with groups	5.7	5.2	0.5
Choose individuals to serve the organization who are respected in their communities	5.9	5.5	0.4
Demonstrate knowledge of the use of goals and objectives in an organization	5.5	5.1	0.4
Demonstrate success in leadership capacities	5.4	5.0	0.4
Identify how committees are utilized in the Farm Bureau organization	5.3	4.9	0.4
Practice progressiveness (not do things the way they have always been done)	5.7	5.4	0.3
Choose individuals to serve who are recognized as leaders by their peers	5.6	5.3	0.3
Recognize different types of leadership	5.3	5.0	0.3
Demonstrate ability to use email and the internet	4.8	4.5	0.3
Identify potential leaders	5.4	5.2	0.2
Demonstrate ability to use conflict resolution practices	5.2	5.0	0.2
Recognize personality differences (as indicated by personality tests such as the Myers Briggs)	4.7	4.7	0
Total Mean	**5.4**	**5.0**	**0.4**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.97**		

Several competencies in the political process section had large gaps between the importance and proficiency scores. As with the previous section, all the mean proficiency scores in this section were less than the mean importance scores. Four competencies had a gap greater (>1.00) than 1.00, these were: "identify the political structure in Washington, D.C." (MI=5.1, MP=4.1), "develop relationships with elected officials on the state level" (MI=5.7, MP=4.7), "develop relationships with elected officials on the national level" (MI=5.2, MP=3.9), and "participate in county government meetings impacting agriculture" (MI=5.5, MP=4.3). Table 2 shows the results of this data.

Table 2. *Political Process Competencies – Comparisons of Importance and Proficiencies*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Develop relationships with elected officials on the national level	5.2	3.9	1.3
Participate in state government meetings impacting agriculture	5.5	4.3	1.2

Table 2. *Continued*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Develop relationships with elected officials on the state level	5.7	4.7	1.0
Identify the political structure in Washington, D.C.	5.1	4.1	1.0
Participate in county government meetings impacting agriculture	5.8	4.9	0.9
Analyze agricultural issues on the state level	5.5	4.6	0.9
Analyze policy development on issues that affect Farm Bureau on the state level	5.5	4.6	0.9
Analyze agricultural issues on the national level	5.2	4.3	0.9
Determine how policy decisions made in Washington, D.C. impact Farm Bureau	5.2	4.3	0.9
Choose ways to be more politically active	5.5	4.7	0.8
Identify the political structure in Tallahassee	5.4	4.6	0.8
Develop relationships with elected officials on the county level	5.9	5.2	0.7
Explain agricultural issues on the county level	5.8	5.1	0.7
Analyze policy development on issues that affect Farm Bureau on the county level	5.7	5.0	0.7
Demonstrate ability to be involved in local government	5.5	4.8	0.7
Determine how policy decisions are made in Tallahassee impact Farm Bureau	5.5	4.8	0.7
Demonstrate ability to formulate policy	5.2	4.5	0.7
Support Farm Bureau legislative activities	5.8	5.2	0.6
Identify the importance of regulatory agencies	5.5	4.9	0.6
Demonstrate knowledge of the political process	5.5	5.0	0.5
Total Mean	**5.5**	**4.7**	**0.8**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.98**		

The scores in the effective board section had a narrower range between the two means (MI=6.1, MP=5.9), which indicated that the mean scores of the importance competencies were only slightly higher than the mean scores of the proficiency competencies. Only two, "participate in Farm Bureau sponsored programs" (MI=5.7, MP=5.3) and "represent Farm Bureau to others in the community" (MI=6.1, MP=5.7) had a gap of .4, which would indicate that respondents feel it is important, but feel they are not as proficient in this area. The results of the comparison of the means for importance and proficiency are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Effective Board Competencies – Comparisons of Importance and Proficiencies*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Participate in Farm Bureau sponsored programs	5.7	5.3	0.4
Represent Farm Bureau to others in the community	6.1	5.7	0.4

Table 3. *Continued*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Attend board meetings	6.3	6.1	0.3
Demonstrate ability to work together for the benefit of the whole Farm Bureau organization	6.2	5.9	0.3
Demonstrate ability to work together to solve problems	6.2	6.0	0.2
Support the organization	6.2	6.0	0.2
Demonstrate ability to work together to develop the goals necessary to achieve the vision of the organization	6.1	5.9	0.2
Identify with the business structure in the community	5.8	5.6	0.2
Pay attention to proceedings at meetings	6.3	6.2	0.1
Employ mutual respect for all board members	6.2	6.1	0.1
Support board decisions	6.2	6.1	0.1
Up-hold the bylaws of the organization	6.2	6.1	0.1
Support the county president	6.1	6.0	0.1
Evaluate materials involving issues	5.9	5.8	0.1
Demonstrate interest in serving on the county Farm Bureau board	5.9	5.9	0
Total Mean	**6.1**	**5.9**	**0.2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.895**		

As with the three previous sections, the overall mean scores of importance were greater than the overall mean scores of proficiency in the knowledge of Farm Bureau section, found in Table 4. One competency had a wider gap than the other fourteen competencies in this section. "Demonstrate a knowledge of the AFBF" (MI=5.2, MP=4.2), which would indicate that respondents felt it important and also felt they were not as proficient in this skill area.

Table 4. *Knowledge of Farm Bureau Competencies – Comparisons of Importance and Proficiencies*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Demonstrate a knowledge of the American Farm Bureau Federation	5.2	4.2	1.0
Participate in media and farm tours	5.7	4.8	0.9
Demonstrate a knowledge of the Florida Farm Bureau Federation	5.5	4.7	0.8
Demonstrate ability to look at future needs of the Farm Bureau organization	5.7	5.0	0.7
Identify the role of county Farm Bureaus to advise the state organization on policy issues	5.7	5.0	0.7
Encourage Farm Bureau members to take on additional responsibilities	5.6	4.9	0.7

Table 4. *Continued*

	Mean Importance	Mean Proficiency	Gaps
Differentiate between the structure and organization of Farm Bureau to other organizations who develop policy	5.4	4.7	0.7
Participate in events that promote agricultural education	6.0	5.4	0.6
Identify how powerful grassroots organizations can be	5.7	5.1	0.6
Determine how to be a progressive member of the organization	5.6	5.0	0.6
Identify the role of county Farm Bureaus to serve as a spring board for ideas	5.6	5.0	0.6
Identify the organizational structure of Farm Bureau	5.5	5.0	0.5
Identify the history of Farm Bureau	4.9	4.4	0.5
Participate in events that promote Farm Bureau	5.9	6.3	0.4
Identify your role within the Farm Bureau organization	5.6	5.2	0.4
Define grassroots organizations	5.5	5.1	0.4
Total Mean	**5.6**	**4.9**	**0.7**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.98**		

CONCLUSIONS/RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS

This study provides valuable information to the FFBF on the leadership expectations of county Farm Bureau board members. The generalizability of the conclusions and recommendations proposed in this study extends to the FFBF and the county Farm Bureaus in Florida. The information provided in this study could be useful to other Farm Bureau organizations in the United States as they are organizations who are composed of the same types of individuals and are organizationally structured the same. Information may also be useful for other grassroots agricultural organizations.

Findings from this study can be applied to the Florida Farm Bureau population, even with response rates that could be perceived low in some research communities. To defend this return rate, Hager, Wilson, Pollak, and Rooney (2003) 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 the population who participated in this study, the response rate was 46% for county board members.

It could be theorized that county board members returned a greater percentage of surveys because they had more of a vested interest in the organization and believed that results from this study would benefit their county organizations. As one county board member stated on their returned survey, "I appreciate the progressive attitude of Florida Farm Bureau and the realization that we must seek input from all stake holders if we are to serve the industry and maintain a resource for industry leaders."

Conclusions from this section are based on the differences between the level of importance assigned to competencies and the level of proficiency (or if they are practicing these skills). For the first section on leadership competencies, the mean of the importance scores is only slightly more then the mean of the proficiency scores ($M_{Importance}$=5.4, $M_{Proficiency}$=5.0), which indicates that board members feel they are as proficient in the competency as they deem it important. A proficiency level of 5.0 would still indicate that there is a learning curve and members would benefit from additional training in these competency areas, especially those with the lowest proficiency scores. Proficiency scores were also low in communication skills (working with the media, writing letters, working with groups) which also indicates that additional training would be beneficial in these areas as county Farm Bureau members are suppose to be the spokespeople for Farm Bureau on the county level.

The proficiency scores for the political process section were the lowest for the four theme areas ($M_{Proficiency}$=4.7). None of the competencies was higher then 5.1 and one ranked 3.9, a score that would reflect a very low proficiency level. This area is crucial for Farm Bureau as it is a policy development organization and its members need to be comfortable and knowledgeable about the policy development process. Farm Bureau needs to do more work in this area and educate county Farm Bureau board members in policy development and the political process.

The mean scores for the effective boards section were extremely close ($M_{Importance}$=6.1, $M_{Proficiency}$=6.0) and relatively high, an indication that county board members felt the competencies were important and that they were proficient in each. Results of this section are questionable as several state officials noted that members of county boards were not working together effectively, which cause the board to not be as successful as it could be. Even one county board member stated that meetings "were more poorly run and poorly lead committees or board meetings I have served on." One reason for the high scores in this area could be that those board members who completed the survey belonged to the more effective county Farm Bureau organizations, an indication of this would be that members are willing to take the time to complete the survey which means that they have a vested interest in the board and a desire to make it even better.

The final section of competencies, those that dealt with knowledge of Farm Bureau ranked fairly low in the proficiency area as well ($M_{Proficiency}$=4.9). Results from this section showed a low proficiency in identifying the history of Farm Bureau, knowledge of the FFBF and the AFBF, and the ability to distinguish how the policy development process differs in Farm Bureau from other organizations (top down versus grassroots).

The survival of institutions depends on the capacity of "leaders to develop and maintain organizational cultures that foster and sustain autonomy and independence while strengthening the ability of individuals to care for and commit to the organization and the larger community" (Scott, 2000, p. 13). In order to care for and commit to the organization, Farm Bureau members need to understand why Farm Bureau was formed, how it is organized and how they, as county board members fit into the organization. Basic knowledge of the history of Farm Bureau, the structure of Farm Bureau on the local, state, and national level, and grassroots organizations is needed for county board members.

This study identified the needs of Florida Farm bureau members in regards to potential leadership training that could be provided by the Florida Farm Bureau Federation. From the four theme areas, there were many competencies that had gaps between importance and knowledge and should be included in leadership programming. This training should be provided to current and incoming county Farm Bureau board members.

This study could be the starting point for additional leadership research within the FFBF. Results from the qualitative questionnaire given to state leaders of the FFBF indicated that county board members needed specific leadership skills and abilities to be effective board members. If leadership programming was developed and made available to county board members, an experimental research design could be implemented to determine board members' leadership skills before they participated in such a program and after program completion.

County Farm Bureau board members ranked themselves fairly high in proficiency for all the competencies in the "Effective Board" theme area. The state leadership would probably disagree with their high perceived proficiencies in this area as the lack of proficiencies were determined in the interviews. Additional research is necessary to assess the proficiencies of board members in regards to items listed in this theme area.

The leadership styles of county board members could be another area of research as this study did not attempt to discover what types of leaders county Farm Bureau members were and it would be an interesting an insightful study due to the age ranges of board members.

Another deficit in the literature is current research on agricultural organizations. With the number of agricultural organizations in the United States, it would seem that there would be studies on these organizations such as: organizational composition, leadership, changes in agriculture, changes in membership (diversity), policy development, etc. A study could be conducted comparing the FFBF with other state agricultural organizations in regards to their membership characteristics, their perceived power and influence in policy making, the policy development process, and the leadership styles of the individual leaders of both organizations, just to identify a few.

REFERENCES

American Farm Bureau Federation. (2003). Retrieved from http://www.fb.org/about/thisis/wearefarmbureau.pdf

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Razavieh, A. (1996). *Introduction to research in education* (5th ed.). Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Bettencourt, B. A. (1996). Grassroots organizations: Recurrent themes and research applications. *Journal of Social Issues, 52*(1), 207-220.

Drucker, P. F. (2001). *The essential Drucker.* New York: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.

Duffy, M., & Nanhou, V. (2002, September). *Factors of success of small farms and the relationship between financial success and perceived success.* Paper presented at the 3rd Annual Small Farms Conference, Albuquerque, NM.

Eisinger, J. (2002, June). Leadership gets a new look: to identify and develop volunteers, you need to know something about who they are. Find out what tomorrow's leaders want and what trends are shaping the volunteer experience. *Association Management, 54*(6). Retrieved April 28, 2004, from http://infotrac.galegroup.com/itw/infomark/ 134/382/50713000w2/purl=rc1_ITOF_0_A874.

Florida Farm Bureau Public Relations Division. (1998). *Observations from PR/Communications focus group*. Gainesville: Florida Farm Bureau Federation.

Foster, R. (2000). Leadership in the twenty-first century: working to build a civil society. *National Civic Review, 89*(1), 87-93.

Garkovich, L. E. (1984). Local organizations and leadership in community development. In J. A. Christenson and J. W. Robinson, Jr. (Eds.), *Community development in perspective*. Ames: Iowa State University Press.

Green, K. E., Boser, J. A., & Hutchinson, S. R. (1997, March). *Effects of populations type on mail survey response rates and on the efficacy of response enhancers.* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Hager, M. A., Wilson, S., Pollak, T. H., Rooney, P. M. (2003). Response rates for mail surveys of nonprofit organizations: A review and empirical test. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 32*(2), 252-267.

Hustedde, R. J., & Woodward, A. (1996). *Designing a rural leadership program and curriculum* (IP-54). Lexington: University of Kentucky Cooperative Extension Service.

Maxwell, J. C. (1995). *Developing the leaders around you.* Nashville: Thomas Nelson Publishers.

McCaslin, M. L. (1993). *The nature of leadership within rural communities: A grounded theory*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Pernick, R. (2001). Creating a leadership development program: Nine essential tasks. *Public Personnel Management, 30*(4), 429-444.

Rohs, F. R., & Langone, C. A. (1993). Assessing leadership and problem-solving skills and their impacts in the community. *Evaluation Review, 17*(1), 109-115.

Salant, P., & Dillman, D. A. (1994). *How to conduct your own survey*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Scott, K. T. (2000). *Creating caring and capable boards*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Tweeten, B. L. (2002). *Transformational boards*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Waters, R. G., & Haskell, L. J. (1989). Identifying staff development needs of cooperative extension faculty using a modified Borich needs assessment model. *Journal of Agricultural Education. 30*(2), 26-32.

1. Anita Hall, Extension Educator
University of Nebraska

113 Mussehl Hall
Lincoln, NE 68583
ahall1@unl.edu
402-472-3878

2. Title: Personal Growth as an Indicator of Community Change Through the Involvement of Community Leadership Training: A Phenomenological Study

3. Presentation Track: Research

4. Description of the session:

Teaching multi-session leadership programs has been documented as creating community change. Little research has been done on what types of personal change evolve as a result of participating in this type of experience. This session will highlight research that was conducted in rural western Nebraska, which presents the connection between personal change and community economic impact.

5. Biographical profile of presenter:

Anita Hall is an Extension Educator with the University of Nebraska and has worked in grassroots extension for 27 years. She is currently working on her doctoral program from UNL in leadership studies and is targeting leadership within organizations as her area of focus.

6. Paper:

Introduction

The change of human behavior and thought, as well as the change of a culture, is a slow process. Funding sources demand as quick of a proven change as is possible. And predominately, proven change is measured via economic means. The purpose of this study was to investigate what participation in leadership education has meant to the grassroots population and then to further study how these highly personal behaviors and emotions have evolved into economic survival on the plains.

Literature Review

The need to develop leadership in local communities is a relatively recent recognition (Pigg, Peterson, & Rolfe, 1990). Previously, community leaders tended to come from either the dominant businesses in the community or high-status families (Moore, 1988). Today this influence and power is more dispersed or diffused through the social structure of most communities. Community leadership patterns now take numerous forms, and it is not unusual to find the community social structure changing considerably in just a few years. As migrational patterns shift, people periodically leave and reenter community leadership roles as time, interests, and motivation dictate (Schultz & Galbraith, 1993).

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) suggest that adult education has a tradition of being concerned with informal adult education. They indicate "one segment of the field has been long concerned with informal adult education in community settings, and with adult education for social action and community development." (p. 230). Galbraith (1990b) noted that the community is a natural setting for the adult education process, particularly as it relates to the development of thoughtful and autonomous learners. Elsewhere, Galbraith (1990c) suggests that a “learning community calls for discriminating consumers of educational services and learning opportunities” (p. 89)

Four important elements associated with community leadership training are suggested: motivation, confidence building, relevance, and awareness (Schultz, 1991b). Gaining the motivation to engage in community leadership roles is one of the most valuable parts of the program. Encouragement of the awareness of personal ability and community need, coupled with confidence, helps feed motivation. The motivation seems to become a reality when the need is made clear and confidence and ability are applied. Program participants must also have confidence in themselves before they begin to feel comfortable with learning new things. This confidence-building was achieved by involving participants and helping them recognize which of their skills and abilities were relevant to community leadership roles. The encouragement and support of the other group members were also noted as essential to this process (Schultz & Galbraith, 1993).

There remains a void in the literature bridging the gap between the meaning of leadership education and the proof of actual community change. This study attempts to bring the two ends together – the subjective internal attributes and the objective external changes – into one journey. It will bridge the understanding that both the subjective and the objective must work together for true life long learning. Future policy makers and community change agents will benefit from this research.

Methods

Purpose Statement: The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand what it means to an individual to be selected as a potential leader in a community and participate in an indepth leadership education program.

Central Research Question: How have the personal attributes of participants in an indepth leadership program been strengthened so as to contribute to their desire to be leaders in their communities?

Subquestions:

1. How have participants grown personally since being involved in a community leadership series?
2. What processes have participants used to internalize this personal growth?
3. What do participants see as their responsibility to their community now as compared to before their involvement in the leadership series?
4. How have participants been engaged in the future of their communities?

Phenomenology was selected as the research methodology for this study. Specifically, it was the appropriate method, as this study dealt with the meaning of an experience for an individual– participating in a specific leadership program. As a researcher, I wanted to understand what the involvement of being in a long term educational program meant to the adult student and how this meaning reflected to significant behavior change in their role as a leader.

Leadership education consists of a series of workshops that have been held in numerous locations in the state. It was necessary to engage local university faculty in securing participants for this study. These participants had each completed this particular leadership series in their local site and were recommended by the faculty member as individuals who exemplified enthusiasm for the program as well as for the future of their community. Thus, participants in the study were chosen based on a purposeful sampling strategy. Criterion sampling, which limits participants to those meeting some criterion, was judged as the best method for selecting participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The specific criteria were as follows: the participant completed the entire leadership series (nine programs totally); the participant showed optimism towards their local community; and the participant engaged in leadership opportunities in their local community.

The participants were screened through observation and verbal comments by the local faculty member to examine if they met these criteria. If so, they were asked to participate in a research project that involved an audio taped interview lasting approximately one hour pertaining to their personal meaning of the leadership experience.

Five adults volunteered to participate in the study. An interview date and time was determined. This was coordinated by the local faculty member. Two days prior to the interviews, emails were sent to the participants reminding them of the time and location of the interviews and that I would be conducting them. This email also served as an introduction to the participants of my credibility and interest in the leadership program.

At the start of the interview, the participants were informed that their responses would be anonymous and that they could stop the interview at any time if they should feel uncomfortable. The verbal instructions for the in-depth interview were as follows:

- Think about your experience of participating in the leadership series. Tell me what it meant to you personally and how it influenced your vision of responsibility in your community.

The following specific questions were then asked of each participant:

1. How have you grown personally since being involved in the community leadership series?

2. What processes have you used to internalize this personal growth? That is, what have you done to make this a part of who you are as a person?
3. What do you see as your responsibility to your community now as compared to before your involvement in the leadership series?
4. How have you been engaged in the future of your community? How does your community look different now than before your participation in the leadership series?

Participants were only asked to elaborate on comments that were unclear to the researcher, or provided triggers of importance that the researcher felt needed to be pursued.

The audiotaped interviews were transcribed by the researcher for the purpose of analysis. The transcriptions were analyzed using a modification of the Van Kaam method of analysis of phenomenological data presented by Moustakas (1994).

Findings

Meaning Statements:

Each significant statement was evaluated as to its meaning of the leadership experience. If the statement proved that it had the necessary elements it was kept. The remaining statements were reread to determine if there was a meaning that I had not previously noticed.

Themes:

Next, meaning statements were clustered into themes that lifted themselves up through the narrative statements. These themes were validated by rereading the significant statements, as well as the transcription of the interviews to determine if these themes truly represented the original voice.

Clustering of Meaning Statements into Themes

Respect for Individuals at the Community Level

1. The participants developed an appreciation of the attributes and skills of members of their leadership class
2. The participants organized a network within the community of individuals dedicated to community change
3. The leadership group became a support group for each other when challenged with community issues

Breaking the Isolation With the Outside World

1. Participants appreciated the knowledge and helpfulness of outside resources who provided networking relationships with community members as well as positive support and encouragement
2. Participants realized that they weren't alone. They had felt like they were an island, completely isolated
3. A reciprocal relationship has been established between the participants and the outside resources that has evolved into a joint mentoring and accountability friendship

Personal Empowerment

1. Participants realized their personal strength, that they were not helpless

2. Participants gained confidence that they could achieve their goals and create community change which resulted in a sense of personal pride
3. Participants gained strength to take the initiative to express themselves and instigate change without waiting around for others

Personal Responsibility to the Community

1. Responsibility to the next generation to provide a vital community so that they will have a choice if they want to come back as an adult
2. Participants feel an intense need to give back to the community – they can't all be takers
3. All members of the community must work together to instigate change
4. Participants must influence others of the positive attributes of the community
5. Participants changed their focus to what can we do for us, to what can we do for the community

Concrete Community Action As a Result of Leadership Education

1. County lodging tax was instigated bringing in new economic growth
2. A foundation was developed for the area hospital
3. Leadership for school consolidation was developed
4. One specific business was developed
5. One participant (a woman) developed a platform, ran for mayor and won!
6. Hope has been reestablished in the community

Textual Descriptions

Ihde (1977) has stated that, "every experience has its reference or direction towards what is experienced and, contrarily, every experienced phenomenon refers to or reflects a mode of experiencing to which it is present (pp.42-43). It is this "what" that must be explicated texturally in order to arrive at the full experience. Moustakas (1994) states that in the textural description of an experience nothing is omitted; every dimension or phase is granted equal attention and is included. It is described from many sides, angles and views, until a sense of fulfillment is reached. From an extensive description of the textures of what appears and is given, one is able to describe how the phenomenon is experienced.

After identifying the themes, five textural descriptions of the meaning of participating in a leadership education program for each individual were developed. These were then combined into a composite textural description.

Composite Textural Description of what it means to an individual to be a potential community leader and participate in leadership education

Participants in community leadership education describe the experience in recognition of the networking that is involved. It was their opportunity to get to know people in new arenas. Local community members were acknowledged as new members of the team, each having specific attributes that contribute to the achievement of goals. Resource people from outside community were seen as links to goal accomplishment as well as individuals who could provide an accountability status to community leaders.

The description of action taken, as a result of the motivation and visioning received during the leadership series, is described by the participants. Information and ideas that were gained from the outside resources were used to further community change. Application of ideas, concepts and personal adrenaline was important to these leaders.

> "Well, it was good for me to be a part of the class because I met some people, even though I've lived here all my life, and even though I knew

> who they were, I guess I didn't know them. I developed a new respect for some of the people in the class and in the networking that has taken place since then has been pretty phenomenal. I guess I don't know if we accomplished a lot that you can see, but there has been a lot of groundwork that has been laid. For me personally, the speakers that came in….I mean, they were wonderful. The information they had to give – I didn't know that kind of help was out there. We started talking about what needed to be done in the county economic-wise. Are we in this by ourselves? And if we are, it is going to be unbelievable."

Structural Descriptions

Keen (1975) defines structures as "that order embedded in everyday experience which can be grasped only through reflection" (p 46). Structural description involves conscious acts of thinking and judging, imagining, and recollecting, in order to arrive at core structural meanings. Structures underlie textures and are inherent in them. The two are in a continual relationship (Moustakas, 1994).

After identifying the themes, I constructed the five structural descriptions of the meaning of participating in a leadership education program for each individual. These were then combined into a composite structural description.

Composite Structural Description of what it means to an individual to be a potential community leader and participate in leadership education

Participants continued to describe the feelings of appreciation for the outside resources and the sense of hope that they brought. No longer did these individuals feel isolated. Feelings of isolation brought a sense of despair to the community. These leaders wrestled with how to overcome this despair, not only within themselves, but to other individuals who they needed to bring on board to create community change.

The attribute of leaving a positive legacy to future generations was described by the participants. A sense of pride and the desire to give the youth a choice was expressed as a vivid feeling of these leaders. They were not content to become stagnant – either as individuals or as members of the community. The feeling of urgency was a resounding voice – our children are leaving and we cannot wait until someone else does something.

> "So you know that if you throw out this idea to this group, it comes from the same processes that you do. I think that support is real important to us, as well. Some of the most important things that leadership gave me was the confidence that it gives you, and that everybody gives you. When you talk to the professionals, the list just goes on and on, and you have all of those resources that you actually have contact with and you can actually start to develop a plan and you can start to use them for your credibility and your resources. You start to actually have movement."

The Essential Meaning of Leadership Education

From the composite textural and structural descriptions, I then synthesized the essential meaning of participation in a community leadership program and the impact of the role of a community leader based on this experience.

The Essential Meaning of What It Means to an Individual to be Selected as a Potential Leader in a Community and Participate in Indepth Leadership Education

When an individual is selected as a potential community leader and education has been provided to enhance this role, the meaning –the essence – of this phenomenon to the participant is the feeling of personal connectedness past oneself – the social connections to the outside world and the knowledge that isolation has finally been shattered. This strong need and accomplishment of social linkages played itself through networking, mentoring, and accountability. The acknowledgement that strong social ties were providing empowerment created the need and desire for these participants to become community leaders and ultimately to create positive change.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Discussion and Implications

Social network theory recognizes the importance for leaders to accurately perceive the network relations that connect people, and to actively manage these network relations (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2005). Informal leaders who may lack formal authority can emerge to frustrate organizational functioning through the manipulation of network structures and the exercise of social influence.

It is clear that the participants in this study discovered social networks that empowered them personally and further invigorated them to instigate community action. Prior to their involvement in the leadership education program, these networks had not been discovered or utilized.

Kilduff, Tsai, & Hanke (2005) identify four interrelated principles that generate network theories and hypotheses:

1. The importance of relations between organizational actors
2. Actors' embeddedness in social fields
3. The social utility of network connections
4. The structural patterning of social life

It is suggested that an understanding of these patterns of social ties contribute to leader effectiveness. The following discussion will use these four principles to organize the essence of leadership empowerment to the participants in this study.

<u>The Importance of Relations Between Organizational Actors</u>

This is the most important distinguishing feature of the social network theory. It moves "away from individualist, essentialist and atomistic explanations toward more relational, contextual and systemic understandings" (Borgatti & Foster, 2003). "Human beings are by their very nature gregarious creatures, for whom relationships are defining elements of their identities and creativeness. The study of such relationships is therefore the study of human nature itself" (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003: 131). This theory believes that leadership is not in the personal attributes of individuals, but in the relationships connecting individuals.

Actors' embeddedness in social fields

For organizational network researchers, human behavior is seen as embedded in networks of interpersonal relationships (Granovetter, 1985; Uzzi, 1996). Embeddedness refers to a preference for interacting with those within the community rather than those outside the community. People's perceptions of others as leaders are reflected through the sets of embedded ties within which people are located (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2005). From an embeddedness perspective (Uzzi, 1996, 1997), an effective leadership network is a multi-step process. First, ego needs to build ties to individuals who represent access to and from key constituencies within and outside the organization. But, second, ego needs to monitor whether representatives of these key constituencies themselves have access to networks. And third, ego must monitor the inter-relationships between these representatives. Leadership success can crucially depend upon these secondary networks, and the interrelationships between people beyond the leader's ego network (Sherony & Green, 2002; Sparrowe & Liden, in press).

The social utility of network connections

The third principle of social network research is the belief that network connections constitute *social capital* that provides value – including economic returns. A civic spirit emerges from and contributes to the many interactions of trust and interdependence between individual actors with the system (Coleman, 1990; Portes, 2000). Leadership, from the network perspective, involves building and using social capital.

The structural patterning of social life

Social network researchers look for the patterns of “connectivity and cleavage” in social systems (Wellman, 1988:26). To understand who is a leader from a network perspective is to investigate the social-structural positions occupied by individuals in the social system. Network leadership can be measured in terms of how much social capital it creates for others, especially those members of underrepresented groups whose social network ties may be restricted because of in-group pressures toward homophily and out-group bias (Mehra et al., 1998). A particularly important concept in network leadership occurs with the discussion of isolation. G.K. Chesterton wrote, “There are no words to express the abyss between isolation and having one ally.” The extent to which isolated individuals are part of work groups may predict the extent of leader effectiveness in such groups.

Educators who teach leadership spend a considerable amount of time fine tuning the written word – developing the best curriculum, designing visuals, reading the literature. The most eye opening revelation that developed from this research as it relates to teaching was that nowhere in these interviews was the teaching material mentioned. While a seasoned teacher of leadership education understands that a combination of skill development and subject matter must form the base of application, this research firmly shows that this is only but a small component of leadership development. Leadership cannot be taught in isolation, but must be experienced in the context of a social atmosphere.

The essence of participating in a leadership education experience within the confines of a local community was that of the overwhelming dissolution of isolation. Once this isolation was shattered, courage was instilled to begin to form networks – to mentor each other – so that change could begin to happen. Some of this change created economic activity which instilled hope in a time of financial distress. But always, the change created passion for the continuity of survival on the plains and the human adrenaline needed to further this culture to the next generation.

Limitations to this study center around the context of the one locality in which the interviews were completed. This study needs to be replicated in other parts of the state in which geographic isolation is not such a massive issue to determine if this alters the results of the essence. Another factor that is worthy of studying is the amount of time from the onset of the educational series to the interview. It had been three years since these participants had been involved in formal leadership education. How much time does it require for the personal behaviors to become operational so as to conduct concrete action in the community? The answers to these questions will be useful to policy makers as they wrestle with long term funding issues.

"Probably anybody can step up to the plate, but without the education and bringing those people together and giving an opportunity to understand, even the fundamentals of what it means to be in a meeting, to understand the people that are sitting around you, anybody can attempt, but without that knowledge, even the understanding, the visioning, what its all about. Anything you can bring to the small communities that can share in the visioning is helpful."

"It has made a lot more work out of life because I can no longer keep my mouth shut and do nothing. I mean, you see so many things that need to be done and you just know. I guess another part is that now, I am the older generation of the community. I'm supposed to be the one – the mentor, the person who someone can go to. I guess that is my job now."

References

Avolio, B.J., & Bass, B. (1995). Individual consideration viewed at multiple levels of analysis: A multi-level framework for examining the diffusion of transformation leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 199-218.

Balkundi, P., & Kilduff, M. (2005). The ties that lead: A social network approach to leadership. Leadership Quarterly, 16(2005), 941-961.

Borgatti, S.P., & Foster, P. (2003). The network paradigm in organizational research: A review and typology. *Journal of Management*, 29, 518-1013.

Coleman, J.S. (1990). *Foundations of social theory*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Conger, J.A. (1998). Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9(1), 107-121.

Darkenwald, G., & Merriam, S. (1982). *Adult education: Foundations of practice*. New York: Harper & Row.

Finney, S.J. (2000). *The meaning of success for students in statistical methods courses: A phenomenological study.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Galbraith, M.W. (Ed.). (1990b). *Education through community organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Galbraith, M.W. (1990c). Building communities of learns. In M.W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Education through community organizations* (pp. 89-92). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Granovetter, M.S. (1985). Economic action, social structure and embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91, 481-510.

Ihde, D. (1977). *Experimental phenomenology*. New York: G.P. Putnam.

Kilduff, M., Tsai, W., & Hanke, R. (2005). *The dynamic stability of organizational social networks.* Working paper, Penn State.

Lantis, M. (1987). Two important roles in organizations and communities. *Human Organization,* 46(3), 189-199.

Keen, E. (1975). *Doing research phenomenologically*. Unpublished manuscript, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, PA.

Kilduff, M., & Tsai, W. (2003). *Social networks and organizations*. London: Sage.
Mehra, A., Kilduff, M., & Brass, D. (1998). At the margins: A distinctiveness approach to the social identity and social networks of underrepresented groups. *Academy of Management Journal,* 41, 441-452.

Miles, M.B., & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Moore, C. (Ed.). (1988). *A colorful quilt: The community leadership story.* Indianapolis: National Association of Community Leadership Organization.

Morgan, G., & Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. *Academy of Management Review,* 5(4), 491-500.

Moustakas, Clark. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Phillips, D.L. (1973). *Abandoning method*. San Franciso: Jossey-Bass.

Pigg, K., Peterson, M., & Rolfe, L. (1990) *Empowering community leadership in an information age: A plan for community leadership education.* Pine Bluff, AR: University of Arkansas Cooperative Extension Service.

Portes, A. (2000). The two meanings of social capital. *Sociological Forum*, 15, 1-11.

Schultz, C.M. (1991b). Community leadership training programs for the active retired. *Adult Learning*, 3(3), 11-13.

Schultz, C.M. & Galbraith, M.W. (1993). *Community leadership education for older adults: An exploratory study.* Education Gerontology, 19(6), 473-488.

Sherony, K.M., & Green, s. (2002). Coworker exchange: Relationships between coworkers, leader-member exchange, and work attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 542-548.

Sparrowe, R.T., & Liden, R.C. (in press). Two routes to influence: Integrating leader-member exchange and network perspectives. *Administrative Science Quarterly*.

Uzzi, B. (1996). The sources and consequences of embeddedness for the economic performance of organizations: The network effect. *American Sociological Review*, 61, 674-698.

Uzzi, B. (1997). Social structure and competition in inter-firm networks: The paradox of embeddedness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42, 35-67.

Wellman, B. (1988). Structural analysis: From method and metaphor to theory and substance. In B. Wellman, & S.D. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Social structures: A network approach* (pp. 19-61). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations*. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc.

1. Bob Heinemann
Graduate Student, Agricultural Education
Oklahoma State University
P. O. Box 615
Idabel, OK 74745-0615
okforest@hotmail.com
580-286-5175

Penny Pennington
Assistant Professor, Agricultural Leadership
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74075
penny.pennington@okstate.edu
405-744-4748

2. Title: A Methodology for Accommodating Traditional Leadership Training Exercises for Diverse Populations

3. Presentation Track: Practice

4. Abstract

With the increased participation of individuals with disabilities in educational and workplace settings, the need for leadership training within the disability community has been identified. Oklahoma has implemented a weeklong forum offering leadership training for youth with disabilities while at the same time offering hands on training for educational professionals in accommodation techniques. Participants in this session will have the opportunity to have hands on experience in accommodating individuals with disabilities in a traditional leadership exercises and will be provided with copies of Oklahoma's overarching leadership curriculum for their Youth Leadership Forum.

5. Biographical Information

Bob is currently working on a Ph.D. in Agricultural Education, Extension, and Communication at Oklahoma State University. Bob is a Director of an Oklahoma State University research facility and an adjunct instructor at Carl Albert State College. He serves on Oklahoma's Developmental Disabilities 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 five day leadership forum (YLF) for Oklahoma junior and senior year high school students with disabilities.

Penny is an Assistant Professor in Agricultural Leadership at Oklahoma State University. She teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in leadership and provides leadership for the University's major in Agricultural Leadership and minor in Leadership Education. She has worked with the Oklahoma Development Disabilities Council over the last two years providing training for faculty and staff involved in YLF. She has also written the leadership curriculum used during YLF and served as the opening keynote.

Title: A Methodology for Accommodating Traditional Leadership Training Exercises for Diverse Populations

Introduction

Currently, one in five individuals in the United States has a disability (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). Recent legislation guaranteeing access and the increased societal awareness of the abilities of individuals with disabilities has increased the potential and opportunity for participation in traditional educational settings and the workplace (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1990).

As a result of guaranteed access and increased societal awareness, individuals with disabilities are faced with opportunities that were previously unavailable to people with disabilities (Bush, 2006). In turn, the need and desire of individuals with disabilities for professional development, challenges educators and employers to explore and utilize methods of accommodating traditional education protocol to meet the unique needs of these *new professionals*.

Background

In 2001, the Oklahoma Developmental Disabilities Council (ODDC) embarked on a program of leadership development for promising young leaders in Oklahoma's disability community. (ODDC, 2001) Members of the council and council staff investigated and participated in hands on observation of successful youth leadership programs in an effort to develop a leadership program to meet Oklahoma's unique needs.

After assessing established youth leadership programs and Oklahoma's needs, it was decided to use a two pronged approach in developing a youth leadership program for Oklahoma. The program would place its major emphasis on developing leadership skills of high school juniors and seniors while at the same time providing hands on experience for pre-service special education teachers and graduate students in disability related fields on how to accommodate instructional skills/techniques. The result of ODDC's efforts was the development of an overarching leadership curriculum that could be overlaid on a nation wide leadership and self-advocacy training model for youth (Pennington, 2005)

How Does It Work

Using established criteria to assess leadership skills, facilitators and forum staff were recruited from Oklahoma's institutions of higher education. A combination of pre-service special education teachers, master's level and Ph.D. level graduate students were recruited as facilitators. A two day facilitators retreat was convened to beta test the leadership curriculum for accommodations (Pennington, 2005). Group facilitators were paired based on their educational and professional experience.

Prior to the retreat, council staff screened, interviewed, and selected the high school delegates that would take part in the Youth Leadership Forum (YLF). The group of delegates selected was then divided into five groups based on their abilities and disabilities. These cohort groups were maintained throughout the weeklong forum for post exercise processing.

Each pair of facilitators was assigned a cohort group and provided with the information about the individuals in that group. Over the duration of the retreat, all of the facilitators were exposed to basic leadership theory and were given the opportunity to actively participate in the leadership exercises that each of the YLF delegates would take part in during the YLF. After each exercise, the facilitators were brought back together to discuss apparent accommodations that would need to be made for each exercise.

Throughout the weeklong leadership forum, twice each day, once in the morning and once again in the evening, all YLF facilitators participated in a debriefing to assess and modify suggested accommodations for all delegates. At the close of the forum, staff, facilitators and delegates participated in a qualitative and quantitative evaluation of each exercise used in the forum.

Currently Oklahoma has successfully completed two leadership forums and each forum has been modified based on success and failures identified by feedback from participants at all levels (ODDC, 2006). Based on these successes, the overarching leadership curriculum is being made available to the 23 established YLFs and the 13 that are in the planning process (Epstein, 2006).

Results to Date

The Oklahoma Developmental Disability Council has successfully implemented a program that integrates accommodations to established leadership exercises. The methodology used in training the Oklahoma YLF staff and facilitators has been effective in maximizing the participation of the YLF delegates. The increased participation level of the YLF delegates, through accommodation, has aided in advancing the YLF delegates' leadership development.

To date, forty-three delegates have graduated from Oklahoma's YLF and returned to their home communities to utilize their enhanced leadership skills in educational, employment, and community service settings. Three graduates have made presentations at state level conferences, including the 2006 Governor's Conference on Developmental Disabilities (OUHSC, 2006). Other graduates have become active within their home communities as Junior City Council members, enrolled and are attending major universities, gone on to lobby state legislature regarding disability related issues, and have developed a networking alumni association (ODDC, 2006).

In addition to maximizing the YLF delegates leadership experience, the Oklahoma YLF overarching leadership curriculum and staff training retreat, effectively taught accommodation techniques to eight pre-service special education teachers, six doctoral level special education graduate students, one masters level special education graduate student, and two bachelors level special education teachers. Since 2005, eight of these YLF facilitators have gone to implement their accommodation and leadership skills in several high schools throughout Oklahoma.

In an effort to continually improve Oklahoma's YLF, an in-house evaluation process will be implemented by the ODDC. The ODDC, in conjunction with Dr. Pennington and Mr. Heinemann, has developed a protocol for qualitatively and quantitatively assessing the impact of the YLF on its participants' leadership abilities. The evaluation process will be implemented at the 2006 YLF, its validity will be assessed, and the process will be modified, as needed, so that it can be used evaluate the effectiveness of all future YLFs.

Conclusion and Recommendations

When educational accommodations are implemented for individuals with disabilities the educational experience is greatly enhanced (Lawson, 1998). The successful application of Oklahoma's YLF facilitators' training program and the YLF overarching leadership curriculum demonstrates that traditional methods of leadership education can be accommodated to ensure total participation by individuals in the disability community (Pennington, 2005). Programs such as the one implemented in Oklahoma, strengthen participant's abilities, while considering their disabilities, so that the learning experience is maximized.

As individuals with disabilities continue to exercise their rights under the law, they will increasingly access opportunities that were previously denied them (Bush, 2006). As opportunities for access increase, there will certainly be an ever increasing appearance of individuals with disabilities in educational and workplace settings.

The authors suggest that professional educators and trainers include formal accommodation training in their educational secessions. To do so will: Challenge educators and employers to accommodate individuals with disabilities, encourage exploration and utilization of new methodology, and, in turn, meet the unique needs of these new professionals.

Reference:

Bush, G. (2006). *President George W. Bush's New Freedom Initiative.* Retrieved 03/01/06 from http://www.whitehouse.gov/news/freedominitiative/freedominitiative.html

Census 2000 Brief**,** Disability Status: 2000 U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved October 27, 2004 from http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/disable/disabstat2k/disabstat2ktxt.html#_ftn1

Epstein, A. (2006) *U.S. Department of Labor: Youth Leadership Forum.* Retrieved on March 5, 2006 http://www.dol.gov/odep/programs/youth.htm

Oklahoma Developmental Disability Council (2006). *Oklahoma Youth Leadership Forum Brochure.* Oklahoma Developmental Disability Council, Oklahoma City, OK.

University of Oklahoma Health Science Center (2006). *You Asked for It: The 2006 Oklahoma Governors Conference on Developmental Disabilities Brochure.* University of Oklahoma Health Science Center, Oklahoma City, OK.

Lawson, K. (1998). *The Trainer's Handbook.* Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer, San Francisco, CA

Pennington, P. (2005) *Oklahoma Youth Leadership Forum 2005: Personal Leadership Curriculum.* March 2005, Unpublished.

Pennington, P. (2005) *Oklahoma Youth Leadership Forum 2005:* Staff Retreat Manual. June 2005, Unpublished.

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1990) *Titles I and V of the Americans with Disabilities Act.* Retrieved *03*/01/06 from http://eeoc.gov/policy/ada.html

Leadership Studies At a Historically Black, Liberal Arts College: The Intersection of Leadership Theory, History, and the African American Cultural Experience

1) Presenter Information

Belinda Johnson White, PhD
Assistant Professor, Leadership Studies
Morehouse College
830 Westview Dr, SW
Atlanta, GA 30314
bwhite@morehouse.edu
404-222-2564

2) Title of Presentation

"Leadership Studies At a Historically Black, Liberal Arts College: The Intersection of Leadership Theory, History, and the African American Cultural Experience"

3) Presentation Track - Practice

4) Presentation Description

This presentation shares the design, implementation, and current status of an undergraduate interdisciplinary leadership studies minor at Morehouse College. The focus of the minor is two-fold: 1) theoretical and historical foundations of leadership studies; and 2) critical ethical leadership challenges that impact civil society with special emphasis on issues as they relate to African Americans.

5) Presenter's Biographical Profile

Belinda Johnson White is an Assistant Professor, Leadership Studies, at Morehouse College, Atlanta, Georgia. She earned a PhD in Educational Policy Studies at Georgia State University, a MS, Georgia Institute of Technology, and a BS, Spelman College. She teaches leadership theory and history in the Leadership Studies Minor and courses in leadership and professional development in the Morehouse College business program. Belinda serves as program coordinator for the Leadership Studies Minor, a curriculum she co-developed during her two-year tenure as the Associate Director of the Leadership Center at Morehouse College. Other leadership development activities include being the founding director of the Morehouse College Executive Mentorship Program and a faculty mentor for the Morehouse College International Spring Tour. Outside of work, Belinda enjoys spending time with her family and lending her leadership expertise to her church and community service projects.

6) ALE Conference Proceedings Paper

Leadership Studies At a Historically Black, Liberal Arts College: The Intersection of Leadership Theory, History and the African American Cultural Experience

Belinda Johnson White, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Leadership Studies
Morehouse College, Atlanta, Georgia
bwhite@morehouse.edu

Introduction

Over the past two decades, leadership studies has become a growing interdisciplinary field in American higher education. In 1987, the University of Richmond, through a multi-million dollar gift, embarked upon the establishment of the nation's first undergraduate school of leadership studies, The Jepson School of Leadership Studies, with an interdisciplinary curriculum rooted in the liberal arts (University of Richmond website). At the turn of the 21st century, numerous other colleges and universities have formalized the study of leadership at both undergraduate and graduate levels through majors, minors, or selected course offerings. Recently Doh (2003) reported findings that state more than three fifths of the top 50 U.S. business schools offer some course-work in leadership. Clearly colleges and universities that strive to be the best of the best are leading the way in providing formalized academic course offerings in leadership studies. This trend is the impetus for a leadership studies minor at Morehouse College.

Ranked twice as the number one college in the nation for educating African American students by Black Enterprise magazine (Morehouse College website), Morehouse College is the nation’s largest, private liberal arts college for African American men. Founded in 1867, Morehouse enjoys a long standing tradition of excellence in leadership development. The College states as its primary mission the development of men with disciplined minds who will lead lives of leadership, service, and self-realization (Morehouse College 2000-2001 Catalog).

In 2002, Morehouse College saw the need to strengthen and enhance its leadership development initiatives and added the study of leadership as an academic subject matter through the implementation of a 15 hour interdisciplinary leadership studies minor. Although not the first college to offer a minor in leadership studies, Morehouse College, an HBCU (Historically Black Colleges and Universities), felt the need to distinguish its offering from those of traditional colleges in two ways: 1) by incorporating the African American heritage and experience into the design and delivery of its leadership studies program; and 2) challenging students' awareness of the critical ethical leadership issues of the 21st century as they relate to African American life and culture. In contrast to leadership programs at other HBCUs which focus on skills, (Hampton University website), the Morehouse College program focuses on issues.

This paper highlights the Morehouse College interdisciplinary leadership studies minor program and its emphasis on the African American heritage and experience and 21st century ethical leadership issues by discussing 1) the goal and objectives of the leadership studies curriculum; 2) the leadership studies curriculum design; and 3) the leadership studies minor core course descriptions. The paper concludes with program results to date and implications for the future.

Program Background, Goal and Objectives

The Leadership Studies (LS) Minor is a program of the Leadership Center at Morehouse College and the Division of Business and Economics. It was designed during the 2000-2001 academic year by an 11-member, interdisciplinary faculty committee, under the leadership of the Executive Director and Associate Director of the Leadership Center.

The goal of the Morehouse College Leadership Studies Minor Curriculum is to prepare students to explore critical ethical leadership issues that impact civil society with special emphasis on issues as they relate to African Americans, their heritage, and their cultural experience.

Accomplished through a rigorous, interdisciplinary academic course of study, the objectives of the LS Minor are to prepare students to:

- Think critically about the relationship between knowledge, values, and the practice of leadership;
- Serve effectively in formal and informal leadership roles in diverse settings;
- Apply modes of inquiry and knowledge bases from many disciplines to the study and practice of leadership with particular emphasis on science and technology, humanities and the social sciences, and business and economics;
- Retrieve, examine, and when desirable and necessary, reinterpret leadership practices that have historically marked African American life and culture;
- Understand the personal and public roles of leadership in an increasingly diverse and global world;
- Discern, deliberate, and decide on appropriate strategies for action and change directed by values of courage, justice, and compassion;
- Develop adaptive strategies that promote teamwork and cooperation;
- Imagine worthwhile visions of the future and inspire others to join in bringing about change when desirable and necessary; and
- Continue their development as leaders by self-directed, life-long learning.

Curriculum Design

In order to achieve the goal and objectives outlined above, the LS Minor was designed as a 15 hour curriculum comprised of three leadership studies courses (nine hour core), and two elective courses (six hours) to be selected by the students from a predetermined list of LS Minor electives.

The nine-hour core contains three (3) courses which must be completed sequentially. They are 1) LS 101, Foundations of Leadership; 2) LS 201, History and Theories of Leadership; and 3) the capstone course, LS 301, Ethical Leadership and African American Moral Traditions. Courses that may be selected as electives are found in each of the three College Divisions, which are Business and Economics, Science and Mathematics, and Social Sciences and Humanities. The electives may be taken at any point after the student has completed LS 101. Students are required to take one elective from each division outside of their major division. This requirement reinforces the interdisciplinary design of the LS minor.

Leadership Studies Minor Core Courses

LS 101- Foundations of Leadership - Foundations of Leadership explores the broad and diverse literature of leadership studies and emphasizes the relationship between theory and leadership practice, and the moral and civic responsibilities of leadership. The course seeks to critically examine prominent theories and practices of leadership in context and to evaluate the competencies traditionally associated with the field. The fundamental theories and concepts that are studied include trait, situationalist, transactional, transformational, adaptive, and servant-leadership models.

The course also focuses on the practical aspects of leadership which are developed by learning and observing the skills, practices, and activities of effective leadership identified by leadership scholars. For example, students become familiar with the interpersonal and technical skills that are needed for effective communication, conflict resolution, change management, decision-making, group development, motivation, and policy making/implementation. The textbook utilized in the course is *Leadership: Enhancing the Lessons of Experience* (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2006).

As a result of completing LS 101, the student should 1) become comfortable with the concept of leadership; 2) recognize the various theories of leadership; 3) have a working knowledge of the process of leadership; 4) demonstrate an increased awareness of the practice of leadership; 5) have a clear sense of the purposes of leadership; 6) have developing awareness of his strengths and weaknesses as a leader, and be able to articulate a personal approach to leadership; and 7) have an enhanced understanding of concepts and practices involved in leadership in a diverse society.

LS 201 - History and Theories of Leadership - History and Theories of Leadership broadly and inclusively explores theories of leadership in historical context and demonstrates how ideology and culture provide environments that produce different views of leadership and demand different styles of leadership. The course examines and evaluates competencies traditionally associated with leadership in varying historical and cultural contexts while reinforcing the theoretical dimensions of leadership with an emphasis on contemporary theories and models.

The course is designed as an "intellectual history" of leadership, allowing the student to come away with an enhanced understanding of the richness and diversity of the field of leadership studies. The course explores a wealth of differing sources and approaches to leadership, including ancient mythology, classic philosophy, literature, history, social, business, and scientific theories of leadership. The material is integrated in such a way that each perspective falls logically into an understandable pattern of evolving conceptions of leadership over time. The textbook utilized in the course is *The Leader's Companion: Insights on Leadership Through the Ages* (Wren, 1995).

As a result of completing LS 201 the student should 1) demonstrate a general working knowledge of the "intellectual history" of leadership; 2) recognize and understand major interpretive frameworks of leadership; 3) appreciate differing perspectives in the field of leadership studies; 4) be able to apply the major interpretive frameworks of leadership to real-life situations; and 5) devise his own conceptual approach to the subject based on his creative engagement with major thinkers and movements in leadership studies.

LS 301 - Ethical Leadership and African American Moral Traditions - Ethical Leadership and African American Moral Traditions, the capstone course in the LS Minor, examines African American leadership in historical and cultural context and the competencies traditionally associated with African American leadership practices, while evaluating the role of ethical leadership in addressing the issues and challenges facing 21st century African American leaders. Three specific areas of ethical leadership are emphasized: morally-anchored character, transformative acts of civility, and a sense of community.

Utilizing a narrative pedagogy, LS 301 acquaints students with major figures, movements, and issues in black American spiritual and ethical traditions. This intermediate seminar focuses heavily on leadership emerging from 19th and 20th century black culture, explores theoretical concerns within respective traditions, and offers a forum for practical engagement with contemporary problems associated with African American life and culture. Two textbooks are used in the class, *Uplifting the Race* (Gaines, 2002) and *The Stones that the Builders Rejected* (Fluker, 1995). Secondary source material in the form of readings from and about significant African American writers, thinkers, and leaders are also used. These prominent figures include Harold Cruse, Sojourner Truth, Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. DuBois, Anna Julia Cooper, Darlene Clark Hines, Peter Paris, Marable Manning, and Cornel West.

As a result of completing LS 301, the student should 1) demonstrate an understanding of the historical underpinnings of moral traditions that have nurtured leaders in African American life and practice; 2) demonstrate an appreciation of the interdisciplinary nature of the study of leadership within an ethical framework, i.e. utilizing disciplines of human and social sciences, philosophy, theology, ethics, and the arts; 3) demonstrate an appreciation of the place of narratives and stories that illumine historical, religious, ideological, and cultural antecedents in African American leadership; and 4) demonstrate an ability to identify key leaders and movements that have shaped the context and meaning for African American life and culture.

Results to Date

The LS Minor curriculum was approved by the College faculty in Spring 2001. The first offering of LS 101, Foundations of Leadership, occurred in Spring 2002, with 5 students. One section of LS 101 has been offered each Fall and Spring semester since Spring 2002, with an average class size of 25 students. LS 201, History and Theories of Leadership, a Fall semester course offering, saw 11 students enrolled in Fall 2004 and six in Fall 2005. LS 301, a Spring semester offering, had 5 students enrolled in Spring 2005 and eight students, Spring 2006. Three students graduated with a minor in leadership studies in May 2005 and five are scheduled to graduate in Spring 2006.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Student evaluations, both formal and informal, are very positive regarding the impact of the leadership studies minor program on their collegiate leadership development experience and growth. Student demand is higher than can be satisfied at this time due to limitations on faculty resources. The College has recognized the critical need to provide exposure to the entire student body to the material covered in the leadership studies minor, which focuses on critical ethical leadership issues that impact civil society with special emphasis on issues as they relate to African Americans, their heritage, and their cultural experience. The College is currently undergoing a revision of its general core curriculum and is investigating the feasibility of the incorporation of the leadership studies minor core courses into the general core curriculum of the College.

For the academy as a whole, including an emphasis on the cultural experiences of all minority populations into leadership studies programs would greatly enhance the leadership development experience of the entire undergraduate population. College curriculums have been responsive to the call to provide interested students with opportunity to understand minority populations, their heritage, and their issues by including separate programs such as women’s studies, African American studies, and Hispanic/Latino studies. The integration of these studies into the heart of leadership studies programs across all of higher education is the next logical step.

References

Doh, J.P. (2003). Can Leadership Be Taught? Perspective From Management Educators. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 2(1), 54-67.

Fluker, W.E. (Ed.) (1998). *The stones that the builders rejected: The development of ethical leadership from the black church tradition.* Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Trinity Press International.

Gaines, K.K. (1996). *Uplifting the race: Black leadership, politics, and culture in The twentieth century.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina.

Hampton University website (n.d.). *Hampton University William R. Harvey Leadership Institute*. Retrieved February 3, 2006 from http://www.hamptonu.edu/academics/leadershipinstitute/program.htm

Hughes, R., Ginnett, R. & Curphy, G. (2006). Leadership: Enhancing the lessons Of experience. 5th Edition. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Morehouse College 2000-2001 Catalog (2000).

Morehouse College website (n.d.). *About Morehouse College*. Retrieved January 28, 2006 from http://www.morehouse.edu/aboutmc/index.php

University of Richmond website. (n.d.). *Just What Is the Jepson School of Leadership Studies?* Retrieved January 28, 2006, from http://oncampus.richmond.edu/academics/leadership/academics/FAQ.html

Wren, J.T. (Ed.). (1995). *The leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages.* New York: The Free Press.

1. Eric K. Kaufman
Graduate Student
Department of Agricultural Education and Communication
University of Florida
PO Box 110540
Gainesville, FL 32611-0540
KaufmanE@ufl.edu
(352) 392-1663

Rick D. Rudd
Associate Professor
Department of Agricultural Education and Communication
University of Florida
PO Box 110540
Gainesville, FL 32611-0540
RRudd@ufl.edu
(352) 392-0502

2. Rural leadership development: A synthesis of research

3. Research

4. Quality research on adult rural leadership development is key as programs evolve and face new challenges. Unfortunately, an extensive review of literature yielded only 15 relevant research articles for 1994-2004. Sub-topic areas included Partnerships, Political Shifts, Safety & Health, Gender Equity, Public Discourse, Statewide Program Impact, and Continuing Education.

5. Eric K. Kaufman is a graduate student at the University of Florida, where he also serves as program coordinator for the Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources. Eric's background is in agricultural education, receiving his bachelor's degree from The Ohio State University and then teaching as a high school AgriScience instructor. In December of 2004, he received his M.S. in agricultural leadership and is continuing toward a PhD in the same program. Much of Eric's research has been with Florida Farm Bureau in local leadership program planning and development.

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.

6. Introduction

There are about 40 agricultural leadership programs in existence today that associate themselves with the model promoted by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation in the early 1970s. By the year 2000, these programs had graduated over 7,200 leaders and received over $15 million in financial support (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2001). These figures can be multiplied further when considering other adult rural leadership programs that are not associated with the Kellogg model. Although much is being invested in such programs, do we have evidence to demonstrate the return on investment?

Leadership development has been a popular topic of publications in recent years. However, those involved in grassroots leadership, such as program directors for adult rural leadership development programs, know that community leaders do not always fit the traditional leader mold (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2000).

USDA's Rural Information Center published a quick bibliography series on the topic of "leadership development" and another of "rural leadership," both for the years 1984 to 1994. However, a compilation of research on these topics since 1994 is not available. As rural leadership development programs face new challenges and new programs emerge, program planners must rely on more recent related research to ensure continued and future viability.

Critics of leadership programs argue that little thought is put into program outcomes (Hustedde & Woodward, 1996), and this thinking can leave leadership programs on the defense. One way quiet the critics is by referring them to a plethora of quality research. That is why regular literature reviews are important to the field of leadership development.

Purpose and Objectives

The major purpose of this investigation was to examine the subject matter topics researched in adult rural leadership development over a ten year period. Specific objectives of the study were to:

1. categorize subject matter topics researched in adult rural leadership development over a ten year period (1994-2004), and
2. identify areas of deficiency in research related to adult rural leadership development.

Methods

The primary source used to examine research in adult rural leadership development was Cambridge Scientific Abstracts (CSA). Within CSA, three specific databases were searched: AGRICOLA, Conference Papers Index, and Sociological Abstracts. These databases were examined to ensure that they would include articles from common rural leadership related sources, including: Journal of Agricultural Education (JAE), Journal of Extension (JOE), Journal of Southern Rural Sociological Society, Journal of the Community Development Society, and Rural Sociology. These journals were identified as essential sources for inclusion in the search due to their reference in the Rural Information Center's Quick Bibliography Series on Leadership Development (John, 1994a) and Rural Leadership Development (John, 1994b).

Search results in CSA were limited to the date range of 1994-2004. (At the time of the study, most journals published in 2005 were not yet indexed in the CSA databases.) Using the CSA advanced search feature, options were selected for "Journal Articles Only" and "English Only." After selecting the databases for AGRICOLA, Conference Papers Index, and Sociological Abstracts, the following criteria for key words were searched "Anywhere" in the CSA indexed publications:

	Rural	-or-	Agriculture	-or-	Agricultural
-and-	Leader	-or-	Leadership	-or-	Leaders
-and-	Program	-or-	Curriculum	-or-	Institute

The initial search criteria used with the CSA database yielded over 200 publications. However, upon analyzing the abstracts and descriptors for each publication, a majority of the publications were purged from the list because they had no apparent relevance to research specific to adult rural leadership development. A refined list of 47 publications resulted from this purging process, and those publications were identified for further review. After an extensive search process that referenced all of the libraries at the University of Florida and its cooperating institutions, six articles were dropped from the list because the interlibrary loan staff "exhausted all possible sources." The remaining 41 articles were fully analyzed for their connection to the topic of adult rural leadership development.

A second source that was searched for research articles related to the topic of adult rural leadership development was the Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE). JOLE was first published in Summer 2002. Since JOLE has not been indexed in any CSA databases, the journal was manually searched using the journal archives, published at http://www.fhsu.edu/jole/.

Once the articles were reviewed, the reference lists of the selected articles were examined to identify any related articles were missed in the initial search. During this quality assurance process, several additional articles were reviewed, but only one article was added to the findings reported in this study.

Findings

From search procedures outlined for this study, a total of 15 research articles, across 10 different publications, were identified as being related to the topic of adult rural leadership development (Table 1). These articles, published during the year 1994 through 2004, fall into seven sub-theme areas, as outlined in Table 2.

Table 1.

Adult Rural Leadership Development Articles Categorized By Publication and Year, 1994-2004

Publication	'94	'95	'96	'97	'98	'99	'00	'01	'02	'03	'04	Total
American Journal of Alternative Agriculture	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Indian Journal of Social Work	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Journal of Agromedicine	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Journal of Extension	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Journal of Leadership Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
Journal of Modern African Studies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
Journal of the Community Development Society	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	4
National Civic Review	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Rural Society	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	1	2	2	2	1	1	0	1	3	2	15

Table 2.

Adult Rural Leadership Development Articles Categorized By Sub-Theme and Year, 1994-2004

Sub-Theme	‘94	‘95	‘96	‘97	‘98	‘99	‘00	‘01	‘02	‘03	‘04	Total
Continuing Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Gender Equity	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Partnerships	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	5
Political Shifts	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	3
Public Discourse	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Safety & Health	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Statewide Program Impact	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Total	0	1	2	2	2	1	1	0	1	3	2	15

From the articles found to be related to adult rural leadership development, one was categorized in the sub-theme area of **continuing education**. The article, entitled “Continuing education needs of program alumni” (Fritz, Williams, & Barbuto Jr., 2003), was published in the *Journal of Leadership Education* and focuses on a study of three groups of leadership program alumni in Nebraska. The authors concluded that respondents were “most interested in training on: engaging others in a common vision, inspiring others, attracting the right people for the task, and influencing others” (p. 3). In addition, they found that face-to-face delivery was the format most preferred by respondents. The authors recommended that a similar study be performed with community leaders who have not yet participated in formal leadership training.

In the sub-theme area of **gender equity**, two articles were published in 2003, one in *The Indian Journal of Social Work* (Boraian, 2003) and the other in *Rural Society* (Pini, 2003). The article by Boraian, entitled “Empowerment of rural women: Towards reversal of gender relations,” focuses on the impact of self-help groups in rural South India states. The study suggests that “women’s groups have succeeded in reversing the gender relations in their favour and proved that they can effectively replace the leadership in local institutions and provide better governance to the community” (p. 521). The article by Pini, entitled “Sheep, shadows and silly saints: Constructing women in agricultural leadership,” is a review of Australian literature on the subject of “farm women’s leadership” and a discussion of its impacts. The author suggests that “the dominant representation of women in agricultural leadership in the literature is one that presents women as being interested in different spheres of leadership and as having different skills for leadership” (p. 193). She goes on to say that “a discourse of difference offers little in terms of addressing unequal power relations in the agricultural sector” (p. 193).

Safety and health was identified as a sub-theme for two articles published in the same 1998 issue of the Journal of Agromedicine. Harper and Poling's (1998) article focused on "The South Carolina Farm Leaders for Agricultural Safety and Health Educational program." The identified goal of the project was "to improve the safety and health of farmers, farm family members, and farm workers based on local community involvement and leadership" (p. 9). Petrea and Aherin (1998) approached the topic with a similar article, "Evaluation of findings of an agricultural health and safety community leadership development process." The focus of their study was on a University of Illinois Cooperative Extension Service project that sought to "increase citizen involvement and participation toward rural and agricultural safety and health issues" (p. 77).

Partnerships is the sub-theme area in which most of the articles included in this review can be categorized. A total of five articles were published in this area – three in the *Journal of the Community Development Society* (Moen, 1995; Reybold & Herren, 1999; Tabb & Montesi, 2000), one in the *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture* (Campbell, 1997), and one in the *Journal of Leadership Education* (Bolton, 2004). The article by Moen (1995), "Integrating theory and practice: Leadership and community development in the Dakotas," highlights a model to enhance community and economic development. The Dakota Model, studied from six-member teams in 32 rural communities, was found to facilitate "empowering, collaborative network development" (p. 93). Campbell (1997), in his article entitled "Community controlled economic development as a strategic vision for the sustainable agriculture movement," also focused on grassroots organizing. His evaluation of networks promoted by the California Alliance for Sustainable Agriculture (CASA) encourages a vision of "community-controlled economic development" (p. 37). Reybold and Herren (1999) looked at community development practices further in their article, "Education and action in Magnolia community: Rethinking community development." The study of Magnolia, a community in rural Georgia, looked at blending traditional and participatory models of community development in a way that meets both the needs of the funding agency and the community members. "A model for long-term leadership development among groups of diverse persons: The Delta Emerging Leaders program" was presented by Tabb and Montesi (2000). The program that they studied brought together diverse racial groups in an effort to "help build local and regional partnerships for creating and managing change in diverse communities" (p. 331). Bolton's article, entitled "Perceptions of leadership skills as an indicator of a community's social capital," highlighted the lack of cooperation among leaders Cooperative Extension Service and Workforce Development Boards. She proposed increased interaction between these two groups when working on local and regional projects and programs.

Three articles were found to be related to the sub-theme of **political shifts**, one published in *National Civic Review* (Duhl, 1997), one in *The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology* (Veltmeyer & Petras, 2002), and the third in the *Journal of Modern African Studies* (Williams, 2004). Duhl's (1997) article, entitled "Leadership in American communities," discusses a shift in American politics "from the large P politics of state and national elections, to the small p politics of local and regional communities" (p. 75). Duhl suggests that the new leaders in politics are local people responding to personal threats. In "The social dynamics of Brazil's Rural Landless Workers' Movement: Ten hypotheses on successful leadership," Veltmeyer and Petras (2002) focus on the peasant-based movements that are dominating social change in Latin America. The grassroots leaders studied were found to be well-educated, yet loyal to their rural roots. In Williams' article "Leading from behind: Democratic consolidation and the chieftaincy in South Africa," he cites the continued role of hereditary chiefs in South African communities despite the incorporation of democratic elections. The study found that many chiefs have been successful in recasting themselves as "authentic representatives" of local communities, thus allowing chieftaincy and democratic elections to coexist.

Hustedde (1996) authored the only article categorized in the **public discourse** sub-theme area. His article, "An evaluation of the National Issues Forum methodology for stimulating deliberation in rural Kentucky," was published in the *Journal of the Community Development Society* and focused on deliberation techniques used in community development and citizen capacity-building. The study looked at "lessons learned about deliberative public discourse through the Appalachian Civic Leadership Project" (p. 198).

Statewide program impact was the final sub-theme identified among the articles collected for this review of literature. Dhanakumar, Rossing, and Campbell (1996) published "An evaluation of the Wisconsin Rural Leaders Perspective Program" in the Journal of Extension. Their study investigated the key outcomes for participants involved in the Wisconsin Rural Leaders Perspective Program. The authors found that leadership development, particularly in the areas of communication skills and networking, can enhance participation in civic and community development projects. In addition, their study suggested that "rural leaders learn best by a process of action and reflection."

Eleven additional articles were identified as nearly related to the topic, but they were not included because they appeared to focus more on encouraging participation of rural citizens than developing rural leaders. Such articles typically discussed *involving* rural leaders in a project or program, but they had few comments about *developing* rural leaders. Articles excluded for this reason include those by: Akhter, 2002; Bhatanager, 2002; Bruckmeier, 2000; Datta, 2003; Feinberg, Greenberg, & Osgood, 2004; Grudens-Schuck, 2001; Hayward, Simpson, & Wood, 2004; Kalamasz, 2003; Perez, 2000; Ramos & Delgado, 2003; and Ray, 2000.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

This review of literature highlights a significant lack of publicized research on adult rural leadership development. Certainly there are organizations engaging in adult rural leadership development, but they are unable to benefit from the lessons each is learning along the way because research is not being published. In some situations, no formal research appears to be taking place, in which case the leadership development process risks going stagnant. In other situations, individual organizations and institutions are performing evaluations and other research, yet they are not taking the steps necessary to publish and share their valuable results. In either circumstance, the overall quality of adult rural leadership development is significantly inhibited by the lack of quality research. Institutions must be challenged to perform and provide the rigorous research necessary to ensure that rural leadership development programs are based on proven methods and principles.

The study's findings suggest the following recommendations:

1. More research be focused on adult rural leadership development,
2. Researchers investigating adult rural leadership development be encouraged to submit findings for publication in peer-reviewed journals, and
3. Additional reviews of literature be performed to identify other areas of research deficiency.

With millions of dollars being invested in adult rural leadership development, as has been reported by the Kellogg Foundation (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2001), it is essential that research be conducted to determine the effectiveness of this investment. Some research has been conducted, such as Rohs' (2004) report of the return on investment for the Southern Extension Leadership Development program. However, Rohs's research, and other similar research, does not target adult rural leadership development, which brings its own unique approach to leadership development. How long can we expect a continued investment of money into adult rural leadership development programs without any quality research to highlight the effectiveness of these programs?

Those who work in the area of leadership development probably recognize that a great deal more research is being conducted than is being reported in peer-reviewed journals. Many adult rural leadership programs perform internal evaluations but rarely take the steps necessary to publish their findings. In other situations, the research is published without the peer-review process associated with research journals. Examples of this include numerous research published by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation (see http://www.wkkf.org/Knowledgebase/Pubs/) and research published through individual university Extension programs, such as a highly relevant article by Hustedde & Woodward (1996) published through the University of Kentucky Cooperative Extension Service. Although such publication is helpful to some, this "private" publication presents problems with widespread distribution of the research. In addition, the general academic community is often unable to determine the overall quality of such research and its transference to other situations. How much better might the quality of the research and the quality of the programs be, if more research on adult rural leadership development was published in peer-reviewed journals?

As long as leadership development remains a discipline that cuts across so many different research communities, it is essential that comprehensive reviews of literature be performed and shared with others. A great deal has been reported in recent years about information overload (See Ruff, 2002), but what about the deficiencies that remain. Comprehensive reviews of literature allow researchers to pinpoint research deficiencies and, as a result, ensure that the research being conducted is meeting the needs of academic consumer by advancing knowledge, rather than duplicating information that is already available. Wouldn't this increased collaboration be beneficial for all involved in leadership development?

References

. References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in the meta-analysis.

*Bolton, E. B. (2004). Perceptions of leadership skills as an indicator of a community's social capital. *Journal of Leadership Education, 3*(1), 61-71.

*Boraian, M. P. (2003). Empowerment of rural women: Towards reversal of gender relations. *The Indian Journal of Social Work, 64*(4), 521-532.

*Campbell, D. (1997). Community controlled economic development as a strategic vision for the sustainable agriculture movement. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture, 12*(1), 37-44.

*Dhanakumar, V. G., Rossing, B., & Campbell, G. R. (1996). An evaluation of the Wisconsin Rural Leaders Perspective Program. *Journal of Extension, 34*(3).

*Duhl, L. J. (1997). Leadership in American communities. *National Civic Review, 86*(1), 75-80.

*Fritz, S. M., Williams, S. N., & Barbuto Jr., J. E. (2003). Continuing education needs of leadership program alumni. *Journal of Leadership Education, 2*(2), 3-12.

*Harper, J. G., & Poling, R. L. (1998). The South Carolina Farm Leaders for Agricultural Safety program. *Journal of Agromedicine, 5*(2), 9-15.

Hayward, C., Simpson, L., & Wood, L. (2004). Still left out in the cold: Problematising participatory research and development. *Sociologia Ruralis, 44*(1), 95-108.

*Hustedde, R. J. (1996). An evaluation of the National Issues Forum methodology for stimulating deliberation in rural Kentucky. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 27*(2), 197-210.

Hustedde, R. J., & Woodward, A. (1996). *Designing a rural leadership program and curriculum*. Retrieved December 16, 2005, from http://www.ca.uky.edu/agc/pubs/ip/ip54/ip54.pdf

John, P. L. C. (1994a, June). *Leadership development: January 1984 - April 1994*. Retrieved April 7, 2005, from http://www.nal.usda.gov/ric/ricpubs/qb9440.html

John, P. L. C. (1994b). *Rural Leadership: January 1984 - May 1994*. Retrieved April 7, 2005, from http://www.nal.usda.gov/ric/ricpubs/qb9445.html

Kalamasz, I. N. (2003). The creators of a concept for small regional rural development. *Eastern European Countryside*(9), 159-167.

*Moen, J. K. (1995). Integrating theory and practice: Leadership and community devleopment in the Dakotas. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 26*(1), 93-109.

*Petrea, R. E., & Aherin, R. A. (1998). Evaluation findings of an agricultural health and safety community leadership development process. *Journal of Agromedicine, 5*(2), 77-89.

*Pini, B. (2003). Sheep, shadows and silly saints: Constructing women in agricultural leadership. *Rural Society, 13*(2), 193-207.

*Reybold, L. E., & Herren, R. V. (1999). Education and action in Magnolia community: Rethinking community development. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 30*(1), 1-14.

Rohs, F., R. (2004). Return on Investment (ROI): Calculating the monetary return of a leadership development program. *Journal of Leadership Education, 3*(1), 27-39.

Ruff, J. (2002, December). *Information overload: Causes, symptoms, and solutions*. Retrieved December 16, 2005, from http://lila.pz.harvard.edu/_upload/lib/InfoOverloadBrief.pdf

*Tabb, M., & Montesi, C. R. (2000). A model for long-term leadership development among groups of diverse persons: The Delta Emerging Leadership program. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 31*(2), 331-347.

*Veltmeyer, H., & Petras, J. (2002). The social dynamics of Brazil's rural landless workers' movement: Ten hypotheses on successful leadership. *The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 39*(1), 79-96.

W.K. Kellogg Foundation. (2000). *Grassroots leadership development: A guide for grassroots leaders, support organizations, and funders*. Retrieved August 5, 2005, from http://www.wkkf.org/Pubs/GrassrtsSptFndrs2PC_2003_01_21_00439_00814.pdf

W.K. Kellogg Foundation. (2001, October). *The legacy of the ag leadership development program: Rich heritage cultivates future opportunities*. Retrieved December 4, 2005, from http://www.leadershiponlinewkkf.org/learningcenter/pubs/ag_leadership/Ag_Leadership_Booklet.pdf

*Williams, J. M. (2004). Leading from behind: Democratic consolidation and the chieftaincy in South Africa. *Journal of Modern African Studies, 42*(1), 113-136.

Combining Leadership Theory and Practice with Community Service-Learning
Practice Presentation Proposal
Association of Leadership Educators

Presenters:
Dr. Lynn Hertrick Leavitt
Director, Center for Service-Learning and Leadership
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA
703-993-2900
Email: lleavitt@gmu.edu

Kris Binard
Dean of Student Services
Front Range Community College-Larimer Campus
Fort Collins, CO
970-204-8362
Email: Kris.binard@frontrange.edu

Title: Combining Leadership Theory and Practice with Community Service-Learning

Presentation Track: Practice

Description: The purpose of this session is to provide participants with an overview of how learners can enhance their personal leadership development and increase their understanding of social justice issues through community service-learning. With guidance from the presenters, participants get a chance to practice what they learn and then brainstorm how they might incorporate a service-learning experience into new/existing leadership courses or programs.

Presenter Information:
Dr. Lynn Hertrick Leavitt provides direction to and management of the Center for Service-Learning and Leadership (CSL) at George Mason University (GMU) in Fairfax, Virginia. Lynn teaches a "Leadership Theory and Practice" course for the undergraduate Integrative Studies College (New Century College) and also is a faculty member in the Higher Education graduate degree program. Prior to becoming director of CSL, Lynn served as the Associate Director of the Center for New Students/Freshman Center and as the Training Coordinator in the former Student Leadership Center at GMU.

Kris Binard, Dean of Student Services at Front Range Community College in Fort Collins, Colorado, provides direction and leadership for the Division of Student Services. Departments include Student Life and Involvement, Advising and Retention, Recruiting and Outreach, Admissions and Records, Learning Support Center, Assessment, and Financial Aid. Previously, Kris advised clubs and organizations and provided leadership opportunities for students on campus. In addition, Kris managed the Longs Peak Student Center, provided leadership training to the students who work in the center, and has taught Leadership Development courses.

Introduction:
Service-learning is an effective way to learn leadership methods by applying knowledge and analyzing how experience relates to theory. In order to understand how service-learning and theoretical leadership concepts relate, it is important to review several leadership concepts and a contemporary model/theory. Contemporary leadership theory suggests a shift in focus from institutional to individual leadership and "bottom-up" versus traditional "top-down" methods. Community-based service-learning projects provide students a venue where they can practice leadership skills through active involvement in the community (Billingslley, 1995). In addition, the community experience encourages students to think critically about how service relates to learning, increased leadership potential, and civic responsibility.

The purpose of this paper is to provide participants with an overview of how learners from various backgrounds can enhance their personal leadership development and increase their understanding of social justice issues through community service-learning. With guidance from the authors, participants get a chance to practice what they learn by identifying social justice issues in their communities and then brainstorming how they might incorporate a service-learning experience into new/existing leadership courses or leadership development programs.

Background:
The authors incorporated service-learning in their leadership programs and courses almost ten years ago. In addition, the authors published a workbook, Discovering Leadership through Service. This workbook was published in 2000 and has been used by several colleges, universities, and leadership programs across the country. The second edition of the workbook will be available soon. The authors will provide feedback on how they have used the workbook in their own leadership programs.

How it works:
Discovering Leadership through Service provides students, faculty, and community agencies with the necessary tools to implement a meaningful service-learning experience to enhance leadership development. This workbook is written in four sections designed to assist the student in understanding service-learning and how it applies to leadership in the classroom. Each section provides information and exercises relating to the subject of service and leadership.

Section I explores leadership concepts and a theory/model that relate to service-learning. The concepts include vision, collaboration and change. The related theory is the Social Change Model of Leadership. Exercises at the end of each section assist students with developing their personal views of leadership.

Section II provides information on service-learning and answers the questions of who, what, when, and where of service-learning. This section provides lists of information and exercises to assist the student with his/her service-learning site selection. Students learn that service-learning provides an advantage over traditional classroom methods because they are able to use newly acquired academic skills and knowledge in real-life situations.

Section III explains the purpose of reflection in service-learning. Reflection fosters leadership development, cognitive learning, personal growth, and critical thinking. This section provides models, examples, and exercises on reflection to assist students with writing reflective journals.

Section IV assists the students and faculty members by providing sample forms, assessments, and other materials that relate to the service-learning experience. These forms serve as templates for faculty to adapt and use as they implement service-learning in a course or curriculum.

Results to Date:
Through end-of-semester reflective papers and course evaluation forms, there is documented evidence that students have a better understanding of leadership theories/approaches and, more importantly, their personal strengths and challenges as leaders due to the service-learning component of the leadership courses. The presenters will share some student quotes during their session.

Conclusions and Recommendations:
Service-learning is a critical component of leadership classes or programs and it has a positive impact on students. Students learn by doing and reflection. The outcomes include a more thorough understanding of leadership concepts, a deeper sense of individual strengths and challenges as leaders and increased student involvement on campus and in the surrounding communities.

Association of Leadership Educators
July 10-12, 2006
Bozeman, Montana

PRESENTATION PROPOSAL

1. Mike Liepold, Regional Extension Educator and Professor
   University of Minnesota Extension Service
   Technology Plus of Mankato, Inc.
   1961 Premier Dr
   Mankato, MN 56001-5901
   mliepold@umn.edu
   Phone 507-389-6741
   Fax 507-389-6787

   (Co-presenter)
   Katie Rasmussen, Regional Extension Educator and Associate Professor
   University of Minnesota Extension Service
   Regional Center Hutchinson
   980 Second Avenue SE
   Hutchinson, MN 55350
   Rasmu035@umn.edu
   Phone 320-234-0437
   Fax 320-234-0444

2. Title of Presentation: Creating Effective Boards and Committees 101

3. Presentation Track: Practice

4. Description:
   Public boards face unique challenges as they work in the public arena. Often, though, boards and advisory councils are unaware of what processes and group behaviors can make them the most effective. This workshop will model a "core training" to enhance leaders' capacity to work on committees and to facilitate effective public meetings. Presenters will solicit experiences from the group to reinforce understanding of what happens in committees and share their teaching materials entitled *Twenty Things Everyone Needs to Know When Serving on a Committee.*

5. Biographical Profiles
   Mike Liepold was first hired by the University of Minnesota Extension Service as a 4-H Summer Assistant during his junior year of college at South Dakota State University. Nineteen years later, Mike continues to serve Extension as Regional Educator in Leadership and Civic Engagement. Mike has specialized in leadership education since the mid-80's. He took a sabbatical to work as an Intern with the

Vice President's Reinventing Government Group, the National Performance Review in Washington DC. There he studied performance based management for local units of government. As part of his current Extension role, Mike manages the Minnesota Agriculture and Rural Leadership Program. MARL is a two-year, statewide cohort leadership program offered through a partnership between Southwest Minnesota State University and the University of Minnesota Extension

Katie Rasmussen is a Regional Extension Educator and Associate Professor with the University of Minnesota Extension Service. She has over 25 years of teaching experience from her previous work in secondary education and her current work in the area of leadership and civic engagement. She has worked with appointed and elected officials, state and federal agencies, non-profit organizations, and community groups in developing new skills for working together. Her passion in developing working relationships among communities resulted in creating a customized countywide leadership program which has received statewide recognition. Besides her work with local boards and community groups, Katie has been a presenter/trainer for state conferences and leadership development programs.

Creating Effective Boards and Committees 101

Introduction

Those who work in organizations and communities know the need for effective boards and effective forums where decisions are made and local governance is provided. In the forward to *Facilitator's Guide to Participatory Decision Making* by Sam Kaner, Michael Doyle presents two important lessons: 1) Leaders must have the ability to elicit, harness and focus the vast intellectual capital and goodwill, and 2) If people don't participate and "own" the solution to problems or agree to decisions, implementation may be half-hearted at best, and more likely than not, will fail. As leadership educators, we must enhance emerging leaders' capacity to work on committees and to facilitate effective public meetings – meetings that satisfy participants, create local ownership, and gain investment from participants.

The workshop will present a core training for members of boards, advisory councils, and committees to understand:

- The key functions of a productive committee
- Strategies for providing effective committee leadership and management
- The roles and responsibilities members play in helping committees be productive

Background

Extension regional center directors work with local extension committees to identify programming needs in their communities. Providing training for effective boards and committees was identified as a strong need in the rural counties of southern and central Minnesota as well as the metro counties. The University of Minnesota Extension Service, Leadership and Civic Engagement team developed the project design and materials for a two hour workshop that would provide a core training for anyone who serves on a board or committee. Participants have been county/city department heads, county/city/township board members, committee members of chambers, United Ways, churches, and 4-H leaders.

Delivery of the trainings have clustered into two categories –

County Sponsored Workshop – One-time groups of 20-30 people meet for a 2 hour length of time. Regional Center Directors work with local Extension Advisory Committees to fund and promote the workshop in their respective communities.

Module Component of Leadership Cohort – Groups of 20-40 people meeting together 6-12 times over a time period of 10-18 months. The 2-3 hour training is included as a session of the overall program.

How It Works

The training is designed for anyone who serves on a committee. The primary source of research for the training was the *Facilitation Resources,* an eight volume curriculum co-authored by the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs and University of Minnesota Extension Service, 1999. A resource booklet entitled *Twenty Things Everyone Needs to Know When Serving on a Committee* is provided to workshop participants. It is a practical, easy to use resource with additional information, tools, and strategies they can apply. (Research sources are listed with references)

Presenters use various learning strategies to engage participants during the workshop:

- Soliciting experiences from the group to reinforce understanding of what happens in committees
- Small group discussion to consider critical questions regarding committee work
- Exercises and individual assessments in which participants discover the characteristics of effective committee leaders
- Case study to identify effective board processes and behaviors

Key concepts taught are:
Six traps to avoid: poor facilitation, lack of direction, letting private interests influence public decisions, getting stuck in the cycle of conflict, letting challenging personalities dominate, and making decisions outside the meeting.

Four keys to committee productivity: excellent meeting management, right expertise on the team, great relationships among team members, and results that are understood and adopted.

Five skills for group leaders to succeed: set shared vision and goals, keep your group on track, get feedback on how the meetings are going for people, seek input from all group members and set up information and communication system.

Five skills for group members to make a difference: ask others for input to bring to the committee, seek and share relevant data, propose group decision making processes, solve problems creatively, and contribute ideas for an overall improved group process.

Results to Date

In 2005, the training was sponsored by eight counties in both rural and urban communities with a total of 183 people participating. Another 30 people participated in the training as a component of a leadership cohort with an additional three leadership cohorts including the training as part of their 2006 programs.

Following the workshop, learning outcomes are measured utilizing a retrospective methodology, using an end-of-event form where participants rate their knowledge changes before the program and after the program. Knowledge of the concepts is rated from 1 (poor) to 4 (good). The following example is the evaluation of learning outcomes for 19 participants from a training held on 9-12-05 in Canby, Minnesota.

	Before This Session					After This Session					
Key Concept	Poor			Good	BEFORE Total	Poor			Good	AFTER Total	Overall Change
	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4		
1. Goal #1 The key functions of a productive committee	2	8	5	4	**64.5%**	0	0	7	12	**90.8%**	**26.3%**
2. Goal #2 Strategies for providing effective committee leadership and management	1	6	9	3	**68.4%**	0	0	5	15	**94.7%**	**26.3%**
3. Goal #3 The roles and responsibilities members play in helping committees be productive	2	7	7	3	**64.5%**	0	0	7	15	**90.8%**	**26.3%**
TOTALS					**65.8%**					**92.1%**	**26.3%**

Conclusions/Recommendations

Community work happens in formal and informal organizations – often through committees - that work best when they operate with integrity, professionalism and thoughtful approaches to their mission. This training explores the fundamental committee work that makes up much of a community's efforts, what can go wrong, and how to do it right. Those who work in organizations and communities know the need for effective boards and effective forums where decisions are made and local governance is provided. Even the most experienced of committee members will benefit from reviewing the basics of effective group work. The resource *Twenty Things Everyone Needs to Know*

When Serving on a Committee provides trainers with a curriculum that can be applicable to any group. Participants also walk away with practical knowledge and a thoughtful analysis of how to make community organizations work better.

References

Angelica, M.P. (1999) *Resolving Conflict in Nonprofit Organizations: The Leader's Guide to Finding Constructive Solutions*. Amherst H. Wilder Foundation, St. Paul, MN

*Citizens Politics Framework***,** Center for Democracy and Citizenship, Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, University of Minnesota, 2000

Daryl K. Heasley, James E. Van Horn, and Dan E. Moore, Associate Professors of Rural Sociology Extension for the Health Trustees Leadership Program, established through a grant from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation to the Cooperative Extension Service of the Pennsylvania State University

Facilitation Resources, Volumes 1-8, the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs and University of Minnesota Extension Service, 1999.

Fuitak, T. (1996) *Conflict Framework: Causes and interventions*. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN

Gilbertsen, B. and Ramchandani, V.(1998) *Developing Effective Teams*. Amherst H. Wilder Foundation

International Association for Public Participation, http://www.iap2.org/

Jo J. Jones, Ed.D, and R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D., Associate Professor Agricultural Education, Ohio State University Extension as part of the presentation *Developing Leadership Through Critical Thinking Strategies*, given at the Southern Region Leadership Conference, April 10-12, 1996, San Juan, Puerto Rico

Justice, T. and Jamieson, D. (1998) *The Complete Guide to Facilitation: Enabling Groups to Succeed*

Kaner, S. (1996) *Facilitator's Guide to Participatory Decision-Making*

Moore, C. (1986) *The mediation process: Practical strategies for resolving conflict,* Jossey-Bass. San Francisco

Call for Research & Practice Presentation Proposals

2006 Annual Conference

July 10-12, 2006
Big Sky Resort, Bozeman, Montana
Submission Deadline: March 3, 2006

Presentation Proposal:

1)

Name of presenters	Gilian H. MacPherson	Dr. James P. Mahone
Title	Senior Executive Officer	Associate Professor
Organization	University of Guelph	University of Guelph
Mailing address	Office of Research, University of Guelph, 2nd level, 1 Stone Road W., Guelph, Ontario, Canada N1G 4Y1.	School of Environmental Design & Rural Development, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada, N1G 2W1.
E-mail address	gmacpher@uoguelph.ca	jmahone@uoguelph.ca
Daytime phone	519 826-3801	519 82404120, ext 56781

2) **Title of presentation:** Developing Leaders: A Needs Assessment of New Faculty Mentoring at a Canadian University

3) **Presentation track:** Research

4) **A 50-word description (to be used in conference advertising.) of the session.**

Mentoring, an important leadership function plays a critical role in establishing academic careers. Models of new faculty mentoring range from formal programs, in which mentors are assigned, to informal communities of muses. A culturally-appropriate model at one university was determined by analysing current practice and the needs of new faculty.

5) **A one-paragraph biographical profile of the presenter(s) to be used for conference promotion**

Gilian MacPherson is a professional staff member at the University of Guelph. With extensive administrative experience, her expertise in human resources and financial management recently resulted in being seconded by the President to assist with a number of special projects, ranging from financial and human resources restructuring of various units to producing an evidence-based model for mentoring new faculty, a initiative completed in conjunction with fulfilling the requirements of the Masters in Leadership program at the University of Guelph.

Jim Mahone is an Associate Professor in the School of Environmental Design and Rural Development at the University of Guelph. His teaching and research interests are in the areas of leadership development, facilitation, conflict management and capacity development.

6) **A paper to be printed in the ALE Conference Proceedings with the following attributes:** Research proposal submissions (3000 word **minimum** excluding references).

Introduction

Interest in mentoring has increased in recent decades, from a practice pertaining to youth to a leadership and management tool employed within many different organizations, as well as with underrepresented populations within specific occupations. Of particular relevance to leadership and leadership development is the body of knowledge around mentoring university faculty, a population frequently responsible for mentoring undergraduate and graduate students. However, upon completion of the doctoral degree and attaining a faculty position within a university, too frequently new faculty members are left to their own devices to establish successful career paths. This reflects a failure of leadership through demonstration of neglectful management practice and lack of protection of the most valuable investment and resource of a university.

There are many compelling reasons for organizations to foster mentoring (Capioppe, 1998). Organizational benefits of mentoring include job satisfaction, increased organizational commitment and retention or reduced turnover (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Fagenson, 1989; Kram, 1985), in addition to the development of the social and intellectual capital of an organization (Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). Those who have been mentored are more likely to provide mentoring to the next generation (Bozionelos, 2004), thereby preserving and enhancing the organizational investment in their greatest resource, human capital. Many organizations are aware of the fiscal benefits of mentoring in preparing junior employees for more senior positions (Lyons & Oppler, 2004). In times of fiscal restraint, when organizational funding for training, education and professional development may be scarce, mentoring provides inexpensive but invaluable professional and personal development to protégés and mentors alike (Billet, 2003). In these ways, mentoring contributes to the development of the future leaders of an organization.

In order to secure the future of universities, academic leaders must be more proactive in facilitating the success of new faculty. Although Hudson, Skamp, and Brooks (2005) are in the process of developing an instrument to measure the effectiveness of mentoring in teaching at the primary school level, others (Berk, Berg, Mortimer, Walton-Moss, & Yeo, 2005; de Janasz & Sullivan, 2004) condemn the lack of evidence of effective mentoring in academia, citing imprecision of instruments and lack of empirical evidence. Few research studies simultaneously examine both mentoring practices and needs from the perspectives of mentors and protégés respectively. The involvement of new faculty in determining their mentoring needs compared to the mentoring academic leaders believe they are providing needs to be examined. By comparing similarities and differences, a culturally appropriate, evidence-based model of faculty mentoring can be developed. This study provides empirical data in addressing these issues.

Literature Review

The literature has been reviewed to provide a synopsis of the concept of mentoring, including a definition. This is followed by a description of various models of faculty mentoring in universities and gender issues therein. The literature review concludes with a summary of measures necessary to ensure the success of mentoring initiatives.

It is appropriate to begin by paying homage to Homer's *The Odyssey*, in which the character of Mentor was first introduced. In this classical tale, Odysseus leaves his young son, Telemachus, in the care of his trusted friend, Mentor, while he pursues his 'odyssey'. Mentor was created to be a tutor, guide, advisor, and protector to watch over Telemachus during his father's ten-year absence (Stapleton, 1978).

Mentoring Defined

The 'construct' of mentoring is defined in the academic literature in numerous ways. Kram (1985), considered to be one of the most influential experts in this field, states that mentoring is a special type of developmental relationship, characterized by two main functions: career functions, involving sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments; and psychosocial functions, including role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Kram, 1985). Finkelstein, Allen, and Rhoton (2003) capture commonly used elements in the portrayal of a mentor as an older, more experienced, wiser individual who acts as an advisor, tutor, coach, and protector of a younger, inexperienced person. Mentoring is more than a role with a list of preconceived duties; rather it is a unique personal relationship, characterized by trust, the sharing of expertise and moral support, knowing when to provide access to this expertise and support, and when it should be withheld (Awaya, McEwan, Heyler, Linsky, Lum, & Wakukawa, 2003). Essential elements in definitions of mentoring are that it is a multi-dimensional and multi-functional developmental relationship that evolves over time. These elements distinguish mentoring from its individual components, establishing mentoring relationships as an example of the sum being greater than the parts.

Mentoring is a mutually beneficial and developmental relationship between two or more individuals that evolves over time, and includes a range career and psychosocial functions. Within a single interaction or activity, the career functions and psychosocial functions of mentoring often occur simultaneously. While many of the career functions of mentoring depend upon the organizational roles of the individuals, most of the psychosocial functions of mentoring require a personal commitment on the part of both individuals.

Faculty Mentoring in Universities

For a number of reasons, the traditional application of the classical hierarchical model of mentoring has limitations within the context of university faculty. First, the collegial peer relationship between faculty members is complicated by the tenure and promotion peer review process, which creates a potential conflict with the traditional model of mentoring. New faculty members, on one hand, are colleagues with established faculty; on the other hand they find themselves in unequal and vulnerable positions as their senior, tenured colleagues sit in judgment during tenure evaluation proceedings (Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991). This dichotomy can be unsettling, and may create barriers to establishing effective mentoring relationships.

Second, new faculty, fresh from completing their doctoral degrees may be in the final stages of a traditional mentoring relationship with their Ph.D. advisors. Common criteria for being hired into the faculty ranks are demonstrated preparedness and established expertise (de Janasz & Sullivan, 2004), yet new faculty frequently find themselves in unfamiliar territory, much the same as many new employees, having to learn to teach while preparing new course material, establishing their research program, often from the ground up, becoming oriented to a new organizational culture, often in a new geographic setting. No longer are they the protégés, but rather are now expected to be mentors to segments of the student body.

Third, becoming a member of faculty does not automatically confer the qualities of an effective mentor. Faculty members who do not contribute to a collegial, collaborative environment with their peers may be ill suited to assume the role of a mentor (Noe, 1988). Finally, Selby and Calhoun (1998) provide a warning that formalized faculty mentoring programs are paternalistic and demeaning of new faculty, and are wasteful of the time of established faculty members. They advise that providing better preparation at the graduate school level is a more effective use of departmental resources.

From these limitations, new models of faculty mentoring are evolving in response to the challenges faced by universities across North America, including unprecedented numbers of faculty retirements, a demographic trend predicted to increase over the next ten to fifteen years. Societal demand for access to university education is creating pressures for universities to increase enrolment capacity, which in turn complicates this challenge, making faculty recruitment, success, and retention priorities for academic institutions.

Models of Faculty Mentoring

Formal mentoring programs for faculty

The incidence of abuse of power and misuse of influence, deliberate or unintentional, can be minimized in formal mentoring programs with appropriate mentor selection and training, and the existence of remedial structures for the protégé (O'Neill & Sankowsky, 2001). However, establishing formalized institutional mentoring programs have the potential to give rise to unrealistically expectations of new faculty. Recognizing that not all mentoring relationships are positive (Tenner, 2004) is essential to enabling those in dysfunctional relationships a means of exiting without being labelled as aberrant (Eby & Allen, 2002).

One-to-one faculty mentoring

Madison and Huston's (1996) survey research of faculty-to-faculty mentoring relationships follows the traditional model of one senior-ranked, older, and more experienced mentor paired with a more junior protégé. The voluntary pairs in this study tended to be same-gendered. Mentoring appeared to be particularly valuable in academic environments that were perceived to be unsupportive, difficult, and jealousy-ridden in this cross-cultural study of American and Australian respondents (Madison & Huston, 1996).

Faculty peer mentoring

Angelique, Kyle, and Taylor (2002) differentiate peer mentoring from traditional mentoring in that the former involves participants of roughly the same age, experience, and rank. Accordingly, peer mentoring involves mutuality rather than complimentarity, providing a greater focus on psychosocial functions over career enhancement functions of the more traditional model of mentoring common in other occupational settings. Without the organizational and hierarchical authority that tenure provides to offer career mentoring functions of sponsorship, visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments (Kram 1985), the strength of peer mentoring for untenured faculty is in the provision of the benefits of psychosocial functions of mentoring, particularly friendship, counselling, and acceptance-and-confirmation. Harnish and Wild (1998) found that untenured faculty were more inclined than tenured faculty to develop peer mentoring relationships. Angelique, Kyle, and Taylor (2002) warn of a potential barrier to effective peer mentoring. In academic environments where there is competition for limited resources, new faculty may perceive that they are pitted against each other, and be reluctant to engage in a peer mentoring relationship when trust, sharing and mutual respect are lacking.

Faculty co-mentoring and collaboration

In response to the traditional hierarchical model of mentoring, McGuire and Reger (2003) propose that co-mentoring may be especially beneficial to underrepresented groups of faculty, particularly women. Where the traditional mentor-protégé relationship has the potential to be competitive, 'masculine', and power-imbalanced, a more collegial, collaborative, 'feminist' approach of equals co-mentoring each other may be a more appropriate model to follow in university settings of today (McGuire & Reger, 2003). The model of co-mentoring within the professoriate is further supported by de Janasz and Sullivan (2004) who agree that the traditional mentor-protégé model has limited applicability to professorial ranks.

Mentoring is also provided through membership in professional associations which are natural sources for stimulating and promoting networks and collaborative projects among junior and senior scholars (Wright & Wright, 1987). These relationships can be more beneficial and enduring than those with colleagues within the same department or at the same university and should be encouraged.

Feminist mentoring

Proceeding further along this line of research, Humble, Solomon, Allen, Blaisure and Johnson (2006) identify feminist mentoring in academia as an extension of co-mentoring and collaborative models of mentoring, particularly with graduate students. This paradigm is a reaction to the maintenance of the patriarchal status quo and power inequities inherent in traditional models of mentoring. Feminist mentoring challenges questions of power and inequity, emphasizes the processes of career development, encouraging self-disclosure and examination, and psychosocial aspects, particularly personal relationships

Gender issues in mentoring

There is considerable literature on mentoring in academia focused on specific disciplines, i.e. business management (Stewart & Knowles, 2003) as a means of encouraging women to continue studies at the graduate level, and to pursue academic careers. One of the primary benefits of same-discipline mentoring is that it can "change the academic climate, making a scientific career more rewarding for women" (Nolan, 1992). Kronik's (1990) address speaks from anecdotal memory, to the advantages women faculty in the 1960s experienced in being mentored by men. Necessitated by the rarity of same gender role models, male mentors imparted upon female protégés the social expectations needed to succeed in the male-dominated academe of that time. Kronik (1990) perceived that two decades later, in the academic environment, gender balance had shifted to the point that new female faculty could successfully seek same-gender mentors.

Current research indicates that Kronik's (1990) speculation may have been overly optimistic. Although there have been shifts towards gender balance, it has not been uniform across all academic disciplines, particularly the sciences. While Nolan's 1992 research utilized the case study method to show that junior researchers in the sciences benefit from same-discipline mentors, archival data comparing science and engineering student and faculty numbers in American universities shows the extent of the retention of women faculty, concluding that effective formal and informal programs of networking and mentoring play important roles in creating climates of inclusivity (Pell, 1996). Using specific case descriptions, Wadsworth (2002) demonstrates that women in engineering find same-gender mentoring to be supportive. While gender, race, and retention are not issues across all the sciences, Beck and Swanson (2003) and Casey and Plaut (2003) identify through statistical and demographic data, that gender balance and mentoring of women continues to be a concern in the disciplines of animal agriculture and animal science.

Gibson's (2004) phenomenological study of the experiences of nine women who had been mentored while in faculty positions found that mentoring is an important means of alleviating the sense of isolation women faculty have reported to experience. The respondents also reported the perception that mentoring was profoundly related to their ability to achieve academic success. Interestingly, this small sample study suggested that cross-institutional mentoring should be considered to avoid the potential of intra-departmental politics.

Elements of Successful Mentoring Initiatives

Boyle and Boice (1998) and Hegstad and Wentling (2004) identify five elements of an exemplary formal mentoring program. The first element is an assessment of needs, followed by protégé involvement in the selection of mentors, training of those involved in the mentoring relationship, senior leadership support, and finally, evaluation processes. Determining the need, if any, is the essential first step, and most include the primary stakeholders, the protégés. This is critical to the effective delivery of mentoring, for the benefit of all the mentorship partners, including the organization.

Assessing Mentoring Needs within a Cultural Context

The divergent views in the literature make it apparent that the success or effectiveness of mentoring is dependent upon the cultural context in which it occurs. Madison and Huston (1996), in their cross-cultural comparison, found American and Australian samples perceived and valued mentoring differently from each other. It is quite conceivable then, that there are further differences in the perceptions and values of faculty at Canadian universities. The following study examines one Canadian university to determine an organizationally-specific culturally appropriate model of new faculty mentoring.

Methods

Focussing on one mid-sized Canadian university, this study included a needs assessment survey, focus groups and semi-structured interviews. All tenured and tenure-track faculty members hired within a six-year period, the maximum period allowable for achieving tenure, comprised the survey subject pool, and provided empirical data. The focus groups were populated with volunteers from the surveyed pool of new faculty. A critical component of any needs assessment is determining an inventory of current practices in order to provide a basis of comparison. To accomplish this, individual semi-structured interviews with the academic leaders, including deans and academic departmental chairs and school directors, were conducted.

The Survey

Mentoring Needs Scale. The survey was a 13-item questionnaire, which had been pre-tested before distribution to the research population. Survey questions asked participants to respond on a seven point Likert type scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). An option of "I do not wish to respond" provided an eighth alternative to each question.

Open-ended questions. The survey concluded with two open-ended questions: "When should mentoring commence?" and any other additional comments

The Focus Groups

The concept of mentoring implies a participatory, interactive relationship. Therefore, holding focus groups to participate in the developing of a mentoring program relates well to the nature of the phenomenon of mentoring. The information gained from selected focus groups on participants' views and experiences is seen to provide a valuable contribution (Gibbs, 1997) to the development of faculty mentoring and to the implementation processes. In the present study, four focus groups were conducted over a two-day period. Facilitators collected the perceptions and opinions of the 21 participants within 1 to 1 ½ hour period.

The Semi-Structured Interview

Six deans and 32 chairs and directors, representing 100% participation of this pool, plus five other academic leaders and two representatives of the executive of the faculty association were interviewed to determine an inventory of current faculty mentoring practices. If there was no current practice or activity known to the interviewee, the questions were designed to probe for reasons for the lack of activity, and attempted to ascertain future plans or their perceptions of the structure of ideal mentoring, and what sort of program or mentoring initiatives would be supported by the interviewee.

The interview data were compared to the needs identified by new faculty in the survey scale, the open-ended questions on the survey and in the focus groups to determine if there were gaps between current practice and future plans and needs of new faculty.

Findings

The Survey

Mentoring Needs Assessment Score

A measure, referred to as a "mentoring needs assessment score", indicates levels of agreement among the different demographic groups. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the college in which the respondents were appointed to the mentoring needs assessment score. There was no statistically significant difference at $p<.05$ level in the survey scores for the six college groups [$F(5, 75)=1.19$, $p=.322$]. However, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .073.

Length of service was the term used to describe the number of years in which an individual held a tenure-track appointment at this university. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the length of service of respondents to the mentoring needs assessment score. Subjects were divided into six groups corresponding to the number of years from 1 to 6 in their length of service. There was no statistically significant difference at $p<.05$ level in length of service scores for the six groups [$F(5, 74)$, $p=.750$]. The mentoring needs scale scores for college and length of service are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance of New Faculty Mentoring Needs Assessment Scale Scores by Years of Service and College

Source	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
Years of Service	5	75.01	0.534	.75
College	5	158.92	1.19	.322

The majority of survey respondents across the six different colleges and the interview respondents were in agreement that it would be beneficial to have a mentor from the same or a related discipline. However, mentorship outside one's department was seen to have benefits or potential benefits.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mentoring needs assessment scores for males (N=51) and females (N=40). There was no significant difference in scores for males (M=55.98, SD=12.36), and females [M=59.61, SD=10.56; t(79)= 1.41, p=.162].

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mentoring needs assessment scores for untenured (N=50) and tenured faculty (N=40). There was a significant difference in scores for untenured faculty (M=61.23, SD=9.72), and tenured faculty [M=52.13, SD=12.34; t(78)=3.68, p=.000]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large (eta squared=.148).

Mentoring models

The three levels of agreement on the seven-point Likert scale were combined. Table 2 illustrates responses in agreement to the individual items of the survey scale. A majority indicated that mentoring contributes to success, is time well spent and that mentoring contributes to their job satisfaction. There was moderate support for a formal mentoring program. Only a minority indicated that having the support of a mentor contributes to retention. New faculty strongly supported having a mentor in their academic discipline. There was moderate support for team mentoring. New faculty expressed a preference for selecting their own mentor. A small minority preferred to be assigned a mentor, or had a preference for gender matched mentor. See details in Table 2.

Table 2

Frequencies of Responses to Individual Items on the Mentoring Needs Assessment Survey

Survey Questions	F	Mean	SD	Valid Percentages			
				Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Having a mentor will contribute to my success as a faculty member	90	5.60	1.40	24.4	33.3	28.9	86.6
Participating in a formal program will contribute to my success	89	4.85	1.59	31.5	24.7	13.5	69.7
Having a mentor will help me attain tenure	86	4.88	1.51	31.4	22.1	14.0	67.5
Having a mentor will contribute to my job satisfaction	90	5.27	1.48	26.7	31.1	20.0	77.8
I would prefer a mentoring program in which I am assigned a mentor	91	2.99	1.78	11.0	3.3	5.5	19.8
I would prefer a mentoring program in which I select a mentor	91	5.01	1.82	25.3	24.2	23.1	72.6
Having a team of mentors will contribute to my success	90	4.60	1.58	28.9	24.4	7.8	61.1
Having a mentor in my academic discipline would be beneficial	91	4.45	1.51	19.8	34.1	26.4	80.3
Having a mentor in an unrelated discipline would be beneficial	91	3.35	1.77	15.4	13.2	2.2	30.8
I would prefer to have a mentor who is the same gender as me	90	3.63	1.53	2.2	7.8	4.4	14.4
“Peer mentoring” will contribute to my success	91	3.68	1.58	24.2	7.7	3.3	35.2
Having the support of a mentor would be a factor in my decision to stay	90	3.49	1.99	20.3	2.2	11.1	33.3
Time spent in mentoring will contribute to my success	90	4.64	1.61	3637	18.9	10.0	65.6

The Survey Comments

Responses to the open-ended question, “When should mentoring commence?” ranged from upon receiving the offer of employment letter to the summer following the first year of teaching. The most frequently cited time for mentoring to commence was upon arrival or shortly thereafter, while several faculty indicated that mentoring should commence after the first two semesters of teaching.

New faculty expressed interest in a model of multiple mentors, specifically supporting informal mentoring and condemned the concept of formally assigning mentors. Peer mentoring and mentoring from mid-career colleagues were also suggested. One of the most frequently mentioned topics essential to mentoring was tenure and promotion processes.

The Focus Groups

The new faculty in the focus groups felt that mentoring should be an informal relationship, rather than a formal program. However, there was concern that the current unstructured and informal nature of mentoring often precluded it from occurring at all. In order to ensure that mentoring relationships were established, focus group participants agreed that the process of mentoring should be somewhat more structured and formalized than currently occurred. In whatever form, the message was that it was important than mentoring occur. Most focus group participants also felt strongly about being actively involved in the selection of their mentors.

The Semi-Structured Interviews

All academic administrator interviewees strongly supported the local delivery of mentoring, opposed a formal, centrally mandated program, and equally strongly insisted that mentoring must be voluntary. There was wide-spread support for further mentoring initiatives, with several units indicating that they were in the process of developing plans for more formalized mentoring initiatives. Several academic administrators stated that it would be helpful to have a document outlining examples of mentoring models and activities currently in practice in other departments, as well as suggestions for best practices. There was little support for a structured training workshop for faculty mentors.

All interviewees said they either practiced or expressed a strong preference for a discipline-based model of mentoring, particularly in research program planning and grants funding application preparation. Mentoring in the area of teaching was also seen as frequently, though not solely, most effective coming from within the department. Mentoring by the academic administrators was frequently provided in a reactive manner, often initiated to address perceived deficiencies or problems, particularly following a tenure and promotion review.

Similarities and Differences

Both new faculty and academic administrators were almost unanimous in supporting the concept of faculty mentoring. There was strong agreement that it must be an informal initiative and voluntary relationship, delivered predominately within an academic discipline. Several of the interviewees emphasized that, in addition to the informal mentoring that occurs there should be more formalized mentoring to ensure that it happens, and that it happens in a manner meaningful to the new faculty member, to minimize those who are quiet in nature from being overlooked, and to ensure everyone has equal opportunity for mentoring. There was also strong and enthusiastic support for a brief "best mentoring practices" document that would illustrate examples of mentoring activities across campus. In contrast, there was limited support for formal mentor/protégé training.

New faculty stated that they should be involved in selection of their mentors, facilitated by their departmental chairs, rather than be assigned mentors, whereas academic leaders were less adamant, believing in some cases that they should select and assign mentors to the new faculty. Both populations agreed that mentoring, in most cases, be with a mentor within the same discipline, in order to support the research path of the new faculty member, and much of this mentoring should occur within the new faculty member's department.

There were major areas of notable differences between what new faculty members reported needing and what academic administrators reported delivering. The foremost gap was in the area of tenure and promotion processes in general. Academic administrators stated that explaining tenure and promotion was a topic of early and frequent discussion they personally had with each new faculty member. However, new faculty reported being distressed by their own lack of understanding of the review process, structure and membership of tenure and promotion committees, how and when to complete forms, and what to include. Furthermore, new faculty members did not understand how departmental evaluation criteria translated specifically to them as individuals.

One striking finding was that while chairs or colleagues tried and were perceived to be helpful when questions are raised by new faculty members, frequently new faculty are not aware of the questions that they should be asking. Some new faculty mentioned that they were reluctant to ask questions for fear of being an imposition or judged at a later date for their lack of knowledge.

Another notable difference was that new faculty preferred a model of multiple mentors, whereas academic administrators supported a traditional mentorship one-to-one model. Academic administrators felt multiple mentors would be difficult to arrange, take up too much time for senior faculty, provide too much and possibly conflicting information to new faculty, and be too difficult a process for them to manage or administer. New faculty felt that multiple mentors would provide them with valuable alternate opinions, advice and perspectives, upon which to form their own opinions, be useful for development of different aspects of their career paths and responsibilities, and extend their professional and social networks.

Team mentoring (i.e. having more than one mentor) was supported by new faculty, while the academic administrators preferred the one-to-one model of mentoring. There was little support amongst new faculty for gender-matched mentoring, although a few academic administrators felt that women faculty may need women faculty role models.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

This research study indicates a number of similarities as well as differences in the mentoring needs of new faculty and current practices reported by academic leaders. While there was strong universal support for new faculty mentoring, establishment of a university-wide formal mentoring program was not supported. No single model of mentoring would appropriately address the diverse cultures found across this particular campus. To be effective, mentoring must be tailored to and locally delivered within the individual departments and colleges.

It has been determined that the best fit for the consultative and collegial organizational culture of this particular university is a flexible, informal model of faculty mentoring, delivered locally at the departmental and college level to ensure that the models selected are most conducive to the unique individual culture of each department and academic discipline.

While this study was exploratory in nature, it established that mentoring of new faculty should be provided at this Canadian university in an informal but more structured manner. As one new faculty member commented, "mentoring …. does not need to be formal but it does need to be explicit and supported."

Leadership is a critical issue in moving this initiative forward (Boyle & Boice, 1998; Capioppe, 1998; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004). The leadership function of contributing to the development of others is one of the purposes of a university. It is recommended that the President, Provost, and the Associate Vice-President (Academic) provide this leadership function by continuing discussions with the deans and subsequently with other academic leaders, urging implementation of culturally appropriate mentoring initiatives at college and departmental levels. Deans, chairs and directors can show leadership and support for faculty mentoring, by recognizing mentoring activities and encouraging documentation of it on tenure and promotion submissions. Faculty mentoring must be seen at all levels to be an important issue. Leaders mentoring future leaders will help everyone in the university reach their potential. By ensuring that mentoring of new faculty occurs, benefits will accrue to the new faculty; to their mentors and to the university as a whole institution.

In addition to continued analysis of the wealth of data collected, another interesting research question to pursue is, do the greater percentages of women who want mentoring indicate higher levels of prosocial behaviour (Allen, 2003), or does it reflect latent discrimination of a 'masculinized culture'?

It also will be necessary to continue research into the final component of a successful faculty mentoring initiative, evaluating or measuring success of the initiative. While measuring the effects of an informal mentoring initiative will be difficult, perhaps development and emergence new faculty as leaders is the ultimate measure of success of mentoring initiatives.

References

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T., Poteet, M.L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*, 127-136.

Angelique, H., Kyle, K., & Taylor, E. (2002). Mentors and muses: New strategies for academic success. *Innovative Higher Education, 26*, 195-209.

Awaya, A., McEwan, H., Heyler, D., Linsky, S., Lum, D., & Wakukawa, P. (2003). Mentoring as a journey. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19,* 45-56.

Beck, M.M., & Swanson, J.C. (2003). Value-added animal agriculture: Inclusion of race and gender in the professional formula. *Journal of Animal Science*, *82,* 2895-2903.

Berk, R.A., Berg, J., Mortimer, R., Walton-Moss, B. & Yeo, T.P. (2005). Measuring the effectiveness of faculty mentoring relationships. *Academic Medicine, 80*, 66-71.

Billett, S. (2003). Workplace mentors: Demands and benefits. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *15*, 105-113.

Boyle, P., & Boice, B. (1998). Systematic mentoring for new faculty teachers and graduate teaching assistants. *Innovative Higher Education, 22*, 157-179.

Bozionelos, N. (2004). Mentoring provided: Relation to mentor's career success, personality, and mentoring received. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64,* 24-46.

Casey, T.M., & Plaut, K. (2003). Women and minorities in animal science: Do issues exist? *Journal of Dairy Science*, *86* (E. Suppl.) E35-E46.

Capioppe, R. (1998). Leaders developing leaders: An effective way to enhance leadership development programs. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 19,* 194-198.

de Janasz, S.C., & Sullivan, S.E. (2004). Multiple mentoring in academe: Developing the professorial network. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62,* 263-283.

Eby, L.T., & Allen, T.D. (2002). Further investigation of protégés' negative mentoring experiences: Patterns and outcomes. *Group & Organization Management*, *27*, 456-479.

Fagenson, E.A. (1989). The mentor advantage: perceived career/job experiences of protégés versus non-protégés. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 10*, 309-320.

Finkelstein, L.M., Allen, T.D., & Rhoton, L.A. (2003). An examination of the role of age in mentoring relationships. *Group and Organization Management*, *28*, 249-281.

Gibson, S.K. (2004). Being mentored: The experience of women faculty. *Journal of Career Development*. *30*, 173-188.

Harnish, D., & Wild, L.A. (1998). Peer mentoring in higher education: A professional development strategy for faculty. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, *17,* 271-282.

Hegstad, C.D., & Wentling, R.M. (2004). The development and maintenance of exemplary formal mentoring programs in Fortune 500 companies. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15*, 421-446.

Hudson, P., Skamp, K., & Brooks, L. (2005). Development of an instrument: mentoring for effective primary science teaching. *Science Education, 89,* 657-674.

Humble, A.M., Solomon, C.R., Allen, K.R., Blaisure, K.R., & Johnson, M.P. (2006). Feminism and mentoring of graduate students. *Family Relations, 55*, 2-15.

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL; Scott, Foresman & Co.

Kronik, J.W. (1990). On men mentoring women: Then and now. *Association of Departments of Foreign Languages Bulletin*, *21*, 22-27.

Lyons, B.D., & Oppler, E.S. (2004). The effects of structural attributes and demographic characteristics on protégé satisfaction in mentoring programs. *Journal of Career Development, 30*, 215-229.

Madison, J., & Huston, C. (1996). Faculty-faculty mentoring relationships: An American and Australian perspective. *National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal*, 316-330.

McGuire, G.M., & Reger, J. (2003). Feminist co-mentoring: A model for academic professional development. *National Women's Studies Association Journal*, *15*, 54-72.

Noe, R.A. (1988). An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology*, *41*, 457-479.

Nolan, D. (1992). Women in statistics in academe: Mentors matter. *Statistical Science*, *7*, 267-272.

O'Neill, R.M., & Sankowsky, D. (2001). The Caligula Phenomenon: Mentoring relationships and theoretical abuse. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 10,* 206-216.

Pell, A.N. (1996). Fixing the leaky pipeline: Women scientists in academia. *Journal of Animal Science*, *74,* 2843-2843.

Raabe, B. & Beehr, T.A. (2003). Formal mentoring versus supervisor and coworker relationships: differences in perceptions and impact. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*, 271-293.

Ragins, B.R., & Cotton, J.L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: a comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 529-550.

Sands, R.G., Parson, A.A., & Duane, J. (1991). Faculty mentoring faculty in a public university. *Journal of Higher Education*, *62*, 174-193.

Selby, J.W., & Calhoun, L.G. (1998). Mentoring programs for new faculty: Unintended consequences? *Teaching of Psychology, 25,* 210-211.

Sosik, J.J., & Godshalk, V.M. (2004). Self-other rating agreement in mentoring: Meeting protégé expectations for development and career advancement. *Group and Organization Management, 29*, 442-469.

Stapleton, M. (1978). A dictionary of Greek and Roman mythology. Bell Publishing Co., N.Y.

Stewart, J., & Knowles, V. (2003) Mentoring in undergraduate business management programmes. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 27*, 147-159.

Tenner, E. (2004). The pitfalls of academic mentorship. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 50.* http://chronicle.com/weekly/v50/i49/49b00601.htm .

Wadsworth, E.M. (2002). *Giving much, gaining more: Mentoring for success*. Purdue University Press, West Lafayette, IN.

Wright, C.A., & Wright, S.D. (1987). The role of mentors in the career development of young professionals. *Family Relations, 36*, 204-208.

1. Ashley Marquart, Oklahoma State University Undergraduate, Wentz Research Undergraduate, 1175 Hwy Y Belle, MO 65013, ashley.marquart@okstate.edu, 573-220-7277.

   Jennifer Williams, Oklahoma State University Graduate Assistant, 136 Agricultural Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, jen.williams@okstate.edu, 405-744-9357.

   Bill Weeks, Oklahoma State University, Professor, 448 Agricultural Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, bill.weeks@okstate.edu, 405-744-5129

2. Assessing Student Leadership in a College Learning-Living Community

3. Research

4. The objective of this study is to assess the effectiveness of student leadership in a college learning community. Few college students have the opportunity to participate in three-hundred and sixty degree feedback. This study looked at Student Academic Mentors (SAMs) for a collegiate learning community. Kouzes and Posners' Leadership Practice Inventory was utilized to measure each SAM's leadership.

5. Ashley Marquart, a senior Animal Science major and Leadership Education minor at Oklahoma State University. She is a two-time Wentz Research Project recipient. Originally from Belle, Missouri, and is involved in Leadership League, Food Industry Club, Agricultural Council, Block and Bridle, Alpha Zeta, National Society of Collegiate Scholars, Meat Science Association and the Big Brothers/ Big Sisters Program. Her awards include American FFA Degree, Iota Kappa Scholar, Oklahoma State University's President Award, Dean's Honor Roll, National Dean's List, and a Tyson Inc. Fresh Meats Internship.

   Jennifer Williams is a PhD student in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communication, and 4-H Youth Development at Oklahoma State University. She is studying leadership with an emphasis in higher education. Jennifer previously taught leadership at Texas A&M University.

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

6. Research Paper Proposal

INTRODUCTION

Tucker (1997) describes leadership as the ability to influence or motivate an individual or a group of individuals to work willingly toward a given goal or objective under a specific set of circumstances. The study of leadership behaviors among students is becoming a more researched topic on college campuses. In response to a need for future leaders, leadership majors, minors, and certificates are beginning to emerge. At Oklahoma State University, Student Affairs, Residential Life, the College of Education, and the College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources all have instituted new leadership programs. While some programs are discipline specific, others span the academic and student affairs communities of the university.

The Freshman In Transition (FIT) experience is a structured program for approximately seventy freshmen students designed to engage students in activities to help them transition to college. These seventy College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources freshmen are housed in a single residence hall with ten upperclassmen serving as Student Academic Mentors (SAM). The SAM's role is to guide and mentor the freshman students throughout the beginning of this new chapter in their lives. The foundation of the program is based on Chickering's Seven Vectors theory (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). It is the aim of the FIT program to develop all seven vectors, developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity in both the freshmen and the student academic mentors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Three hundred and sixty degree feedback is quickly becoming a valued tool in organizational leader assessment. This type of assessment takes input from self, peers, subordinates, and managers and compiles it in a big picture form for the leader (Facteau & Facteau, 1998). The goal of three hundred and sixty degree feedback "is to increase an individual's self-awareness so that improvements can be made in how that [leader] relates to the various [constituencies]" (Atwater & Waldman, 1998, p. 423). Research has found that three hundred and sixty degree feedback is a valued resource in improving leader performance (Smither, London, Vasiopoulos, Reilly, Millsap, & Salvemini, 1995).

As business organizations are beginning to recognize the additional benefits that three hundred and sixty degree feedback affords them, student organizations should also consider this instrumentation to aid in student leader development. Love and Yoder (1989) reported that more than two-thirds of the students, whom they surveyed, indicated that they developed leadership skills as a direct result of curricular or extracurricular activities in college. Adding to the argument, Flaum said "leadership is gritty, requires gumption, and demands what can't be faked-hard work, integrity, and credibility" (2002). Three hundred and sixty degree feedback then becomes a useful tool to aid these nascent leaders in their leadership journey.

The Leadership Practices Inventory by Kouzes and Posner is a utilized tool in looking at college student leadership behaviors as well as teaching leadership to college students. Levy (1995) studied resident assistants and residents of six university controlled residence halls. Using the LPI as a measure, Levy found that there was a significant correlation between resident assistant's self-perceived LPI score and the score given by their residents (1995) in all five leadership practices.

Leadership development, more specifically the five practices as defined by Kouzes and Posner, is an effective way to measure and implement Chickering's Vectors. In order to determine how leadership development is occurring, interest has been shown in looking at the FIT program to determine how the SAMs lead in terms of leadership behavior. Student participation in this area of student involvement will be assessed because "leadership development encompassing various activities, perspectives, and experiences enhances the ability to make a meaningful difference" (Posner, 2004).

Schroggs (1994) studied chapter presidents of Greek organizations on the University of Missouri-Columbia campus. Utilizing the LPI, Schroggs researched self-perceptions of the presidents and compared those findings to chapter members in each president's Greek organization. Findings showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the leader's self-perception on the five leadership practices and their follower's perception.

Snyder (1992) had a similar population to Schroggs. The population for this study included presidents of the Greek organizations at the University of Maryland as well as members of their prospective executive councils. Snyder found that the self-reported most frequent practice of the LPI for the presidents was Enabling Others to Act followed by Encouraging the Heart, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Modeling the Way and ending with Challenging the Process as the least utilized practice. When looking at the results from the executive councils, the results did not mirror the self-reported practices. Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart were perceived as the most frequently used by the presidents and Enabling Others to Act was used the least (1992).

Gentry (2002) claims the most frequently engaged in leadership practice was Encouraging the Heart, followed by Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way, Inspiring a Shared Vision, then Challenging the Process. Women's prominent behaviors proved to be stronger than men's behaviors in Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart. In this case, Enabling Others to Act served as the most prominent principle from the men and Encouraging served as the women's most prominent behavior. Although the thesis's results did not fully fit each method of the constructed research, comparison can still be seen according to the gender differences.

PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

By studying the student academic mentors in the FIT program, the leadership behaviors displayed by the mentors was analyzed by a broken down sequence, based on the five principles, and the results showed how the student academic mentors utilize the five leadership practices.

The main objectives of the research project was to describe the leadership behaviors displayed by the student academic mentors, describe the FIT mentors (SAMs) self-perceived leadership through behaviors, and determine if there is a relationship between how the mentors (SAMs) see themselves and how their followers (FIT participants) and FIT coordinator see the student academic mentor in terms of leadership behaviors and influence potential.

METHODS

The mentor's leadership behaviors were assessed by using Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory. The results of the final research characterized each mentor in the order of significance in the five leadership principles including Model the Way, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. These leadership behaviors have been identified by Kouzes and Posner in *The Leadership Challenge.* Leaders who model the way “find [their] voice by clarifying personal values and setting the example by aligning actions with shared values” (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 14). Inspiring a shared vision involves leaders in “envisioning the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities while enlisting others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations” (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 15). Challenging the process involves the leader actively “searching for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve; experimenting and taking risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes” (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p.17). Enabling others to act occurs when a leader “fosters collaboration by promising cooperative goals and building trust and strengthening others by sharing power and discretion” (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 18). Leaders who encourage the heart “recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community” (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 19).

In order to research the FIT program in the areas of the five leadership practices, permission from Kouzes and Posner was granted in the summer of 2005 for the use of the Student Version of the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-S) and the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI-O). The Student Version LPI was developed as an instrument that would enable college students to measure their leadership capability. It is a thirty item inventory which uses a five-point Likert scale where 1 represents “Rarely or Seldom” and 5 corresponds with “Very Frequently.” Internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alpha coefficients) on the Student LPI-Self ranged between .63 and .75. Reliability coefficients on the Student LPI-Observer have ranged from .75 to .90 (Posner, 2004). The leadership opportunities were studied within this freshmen program which determined the relationship between how the participants view their mentors.

Ten Student Academic Mentors (SAMs) were given the LPI-S at the beginning and the end of the fall 2005 semester in aim not only for motivating students to continue developing their skills, but also to identify areas of strength along with areas for improvement. Seventy FIT students were administered the LPI-O to be taken according to their FIT SAM, which gave each SAM a student mean to be used for final data analysis. The FIT coordinator also completed the assessment of the SAM using the LPI-O. Each FIT SAM was then given two randomly-assigned SAMs to peer evaluate.

Data was entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and analyzed to produce mean responses and generate presentation graphics.

The Leadership Practices Inventory Self and the Observer were used to describe the SAMs self-perceived leadership behaviors. The LPI in general was used to evaluate one's own leadership. This evaluation has helped develop the leadership skills of nearly one million people worldwide (Posner, 2004). The LPI-S was used to determine the practice which the mentors mostly use. The LPI-O was used as a guide to tell the mentors if the students, coordinator, and peers believe they were leading by using these behaviors and if they think the mentors were actually leading at all. By constructing the LPI, it will help the mentors better their leadership skills within each of the leadership behaviors, and possible future changes will be made within the Freshmen In Transition program because Kouzes and Posner (1988a) concluded that effective leaders are constantly looking for ways to improve themselves and their departments.

FINDINGS

Table 1 shows how SAMs self perceived leadership behavior scored as compared to collegiate leadership officers at other universities. SAM's scored highest on the leadership practice of "enabling others to act" and lowest on "challenge the process."

Table 1.

Mean Scores on Student Version Leadership Practice Inventory (Self) for Student Academic Mentors as compared to in the Freshman In Transition Experience.

Leadership Practice	SAM scores N=10	Collegiate Officers N=491
Enabling Others to Act	24.5	23.0
Modeling the Way	24.2	22.1
Inspiring a Shared Vision	23.8	22.3
Encouraging the Heart	23.1	22.5
Challenging the Process	22.7	21.8

Table 2 shows scores of the self-perceived leadership behaviors of Student Academic Mentors (LPI-Self), as well as the observer perceived leadership behaviors as assessed by freshman students, the coordinator, and peer SAMs. It is interesting to note that the assessment made by the coordinator, freshman students, peer and the SAM themselves are in agreement on the high and low score.

Table 2.

Mean Scores on Student Version Leadership Practice Inventory (Self) for Student Academic Mentors in the Freshman In Transition Experience.

Leadership Practice	SAM Scores (LPI-S) N=10	Coordinator (LPI – O) N=1	Student Scores (LPI-O) N=70	Peer (LPI – O) N=20
Enabling Others to Act	24.5	21.3	24.3	22.6
Modeling the Way	24.2	20.6	23.2	21.4
Inspiring a Shared Vision	23.8	20.4	22.8	21.9
Encouraging the Heart	23.1	20.3	23.5	21.8
Challenging the Process	22.7	20.0	21.8	21.4

CONCLUSIONS

After collecting and analyzing the final data, several conclusions can be drawn from this particular study. When analyzing the LPI scores for the mentors, the mean of all the mentors were taken, compared, and it was concluded that the behaviors are exhibited in the following intensity: Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Encouraging the Heart, and Challenging the Processes. This order is similar to that found in other studies (Posner, 2004), and therefore, no significant value is taken from these results other than as a whole, the FIT SAMs, when combine, are considered well-rounded in each practice.

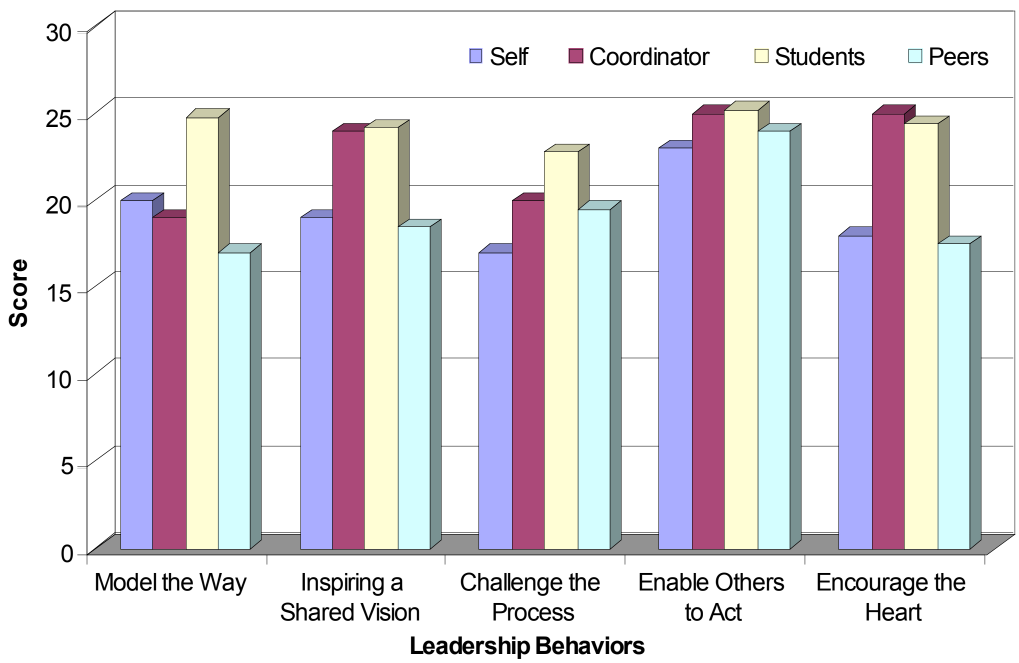


Figure 1. Composite scores SAMs "C", "I", and "J" showing LPI-Self scores lower than students' LPI-Observer scores.

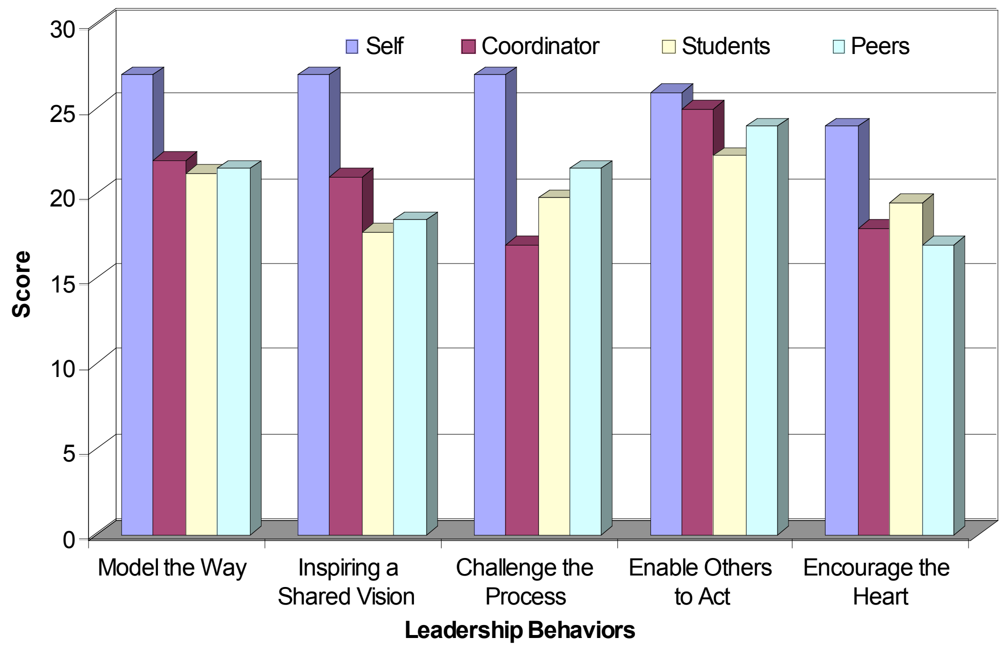


Figure 2. Composite scores of SAMs, “B”, “D”, and “H” showing LPI-Self scores higher than students’ LPI-Observer scores.

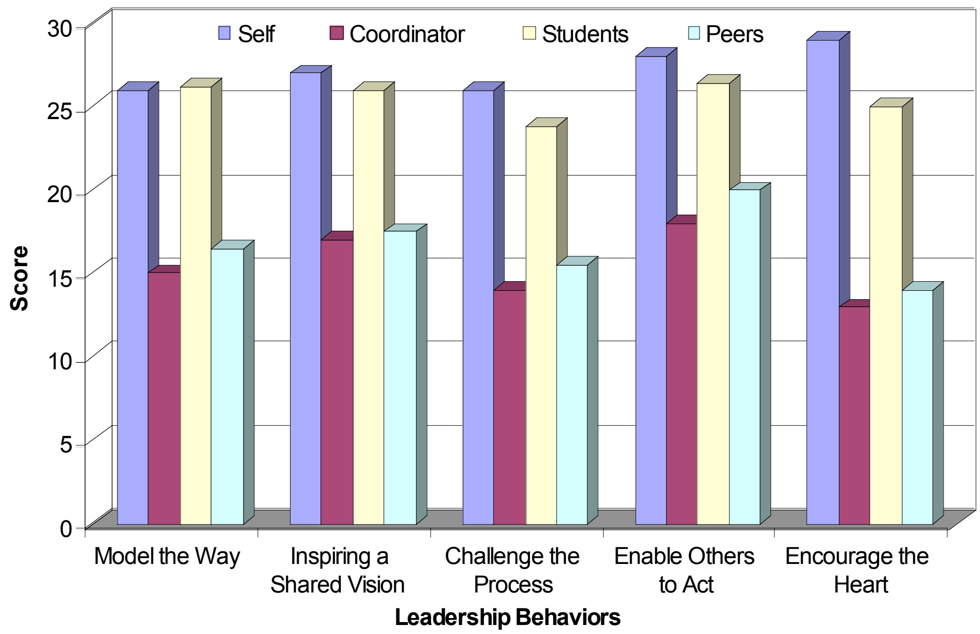


Figure 3. Composite scores of SAMs, “ A”, “E”, “F”, and “G” showing LPI-Self scores similar to students’ LPI-Observer scores.

When comparing the LPI-Student to the LPI-Observer taken from the students, the mentors can be characterized into three groups: being high self-perceived, neutralized, and being low self-perceived. Three mentors viewed themselves lower than those of their students, four were in the neutral area with their student’s opinions, and three perceived themselves higher than the actual student’s results.

When comparing the LPI-Student to the LPI-Observer taken from the peers, the mentors can be characterized into those same three groups. Under these results, it was found that only one mentor saw themselves lower than the peer’s results, while five mentors had reasonably neutralized results and four perceived themselves higher than the actual peer results.

As there are seven females and only three males, the overall categorization is noted that there is one male which falls into each of three categories, whereas, there is only one female who perceived herself as scoring higher overall than her observers, two were lower when scoring themselves, and the four remaining fell into the neutralized category. When looking at the practice most utilized by each gender, it was shown that the males ranked highest in Enabling, while the majority of the females ranked the highest in Encouraging, yet a few women categorized Enabling and Modeling as their prominent behavior.

It is statistically apparent that the coordinator scored the mentors rather low compared to the student and the peer results per each mentor. Because the results differed greatly per each mentor and were so similar in the group scores, they were rather difficult to compare and analyze into a reasonable conclusion.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS

"Assessment and evaluation of leadership students is an important aspect of furthering the academic discipline of leadership" (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996). Research and evaluation should continue on the FIT program in order to make it a stronger leadership and student development program. Further research needs to be completed in regards to relating Chickering's Seven Vectors to the leadership development occurring utilizing the LPI and training from the LPI.

It is also recommended that student academic mentors complete training on leadership practices/behaviors before, during, and after the semester. Pugh (2000) found that after a ten-week training session, LPI scores for college students involved in leadership increased. In order to develop student academic mentors, it is recommended that students are given practical and true to them examples when training. As Williams (2001) found, leadership skills and behaviors are retained and utilized more when the training relates the theories back to the student. Special attention could be paid to the practices that the student academic mentor scored lowest in.

It is also recommended that more college organizations begin to utilize three hundred and sixty degree feedback when assessing student leaders. Research has found that three hundred and sixty degree feedback is a valued resource in improving leader performance in the corporate world (Smither, London, Vasiopoulos, Reilly, Millsap, & Salvemini, 1995). Having the opportunity to gain feedback from all constituencies is a valued learning tool and one that would benefit the college student in future leadership endeavors.

It is implied that the more active the student academic mentor is in the FIT program, the higher his/her self-reported LPI is. A high school leadership population, FFA students, was studied on their self-perceived leadership skills. Brick found that the more active a student was in his/her FFA chapter, the more enhanced the student's self-perceived leadership skills. Brick concluded, "no matter when a member joins the [FFA] organization, he or she can become a secure leader through activities of the FFA" (Brick, 1998). Levy (1995) also found that as residential advisor time in service and activity level increased, so did their self-perceived behavior measures on the Leadership Practice Inventory.

REFERENCES:

Atwater, L. & Waldman, D. (1998). 360 degree feedback and leadership development. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9(4) 423-426.

Brick, T.A. (1998). *A national survey of FFA member's self-perceived leadership skills*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station.

Brungardt, C., & Crawford, C.B. (1996). A Comprehensive Approach to Assessing Leadership Students and Programs: Preliminary Findings. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(1), 37-48.

Evans, J.N., Forney, D.S., & Guido-DiBrito, F. (1998). Chickering's theory of identity development. *In Student Development in College* (p.35-52). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Facteau, C.L., & Facteau, J.D. (1998). Reactions of leaders to 360-degree feedback from subordinates and peers. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9(4) 427-449.

Flaum, S.A. (August 2002). Six Ps of Great Leadership. *Executive Excellence*, 19(8), 3-4.

Gentry, W.A. (2002). *Reading it accurately: The role of receptive nonverbal communication in student leadership assessment*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Georgia, Athens.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (2002). *The Leadership Challenge*, third ed. Jossey-Bass:San Francisco, CA.

Krill, T. L., Carter, R.I., & Williams, D.L. (1997). An exploration of the leadership practice enabling others to act: A case study. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 38(4), 42-49.

Levy, M.J. (1995). *Followers' perceptions of leaders: Prototypes and perceptions of resident assistants*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Maryland, College Park.

Posner, B.Z., (2004). A leadership development instrument for students: updated. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(4), pp 443-456

Pugh, D.J. (2000). *College student leadership development: Program impact on student participation*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, Athens.

Schroggs, C.C. (1994). *Transformational leadership characteristics and achieving styles of selected student leaders*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.

Smither, J.W., London, M., Vasiopoulos, N.L., Reilly, R.R., Milsap, R.E., & Salvemini, N. (1995). An examination of the effects of an upward feedback program over time. *Personnel Psychology*, 48 pp. 1-34.

Snyder, N.L. (1992). *Empowering leadership and achieving style: A study of gender differences between fraternity and sorority presidents*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Maryland, College Park.

Williams, J.R., & Townsend, C.D. (2005). Teaching leadership: do students remember and utilize the concepts we teach? *Journal of Leadership Education*, 4 (1) 66-78.

Association of Leadership Educators
2006 Annual Conference
Practice Presentation Proposal

1. **Presenter Information:**
Carol A. McBryde
PhD student
Department of Agricultural Education
Oklahoma State University
464 Agricultural Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078
405-744-6942
carol.mcbryde@okstate.edu

2. **Title of Presentation:**
A Missed Opportunity: Leadership Education through Student Group Advisement

3. **Presentation Track:**
Practice

4. **Description:**
As leadership educators we often have the opportunity to advise student organizations. This role is a unique opportunity to educate and develop future leaders outside the classroom, but often we are not quite sure how to approach it. This presentation will discuss the role of the advisor in student organizations with a focus on how the advisor can contribute to leadership development of group members and leaders.

5. **Biographical Profile:**
Carol McBryde is a current PhD student in Agricultural Education at Oklahoma State University. Currently she holds a graduate assistantship in the department with the Leadership Education Institute. Prior to coming back to school Carol worked for 10 years in student affairs advising student groups, teaching leadership, and supervising staff. She holds a M.S. in Higher Education and Student Affairs from Indiana University and B.S. in Agricultural Development from Texas A&M University.

6. **Paper:**
Attached

A Missed Opportunity: Leadership Education through Student Group Advisement

Carol A. McBryde
Oklahoma State University

Introduction

As leadership educators we often neglect one of our most powerful opportunities to nurture future leaders when we put advisement of student groups on the back burner. Most college students will learn as much (if not more) about leadership from their involvement in campus groups as they do in our classroom (Astin, 1993). As advisors we have a unique opportunity to facilitate this learning, yet often we see advising a student group as more of a formality. We may occasionally go to an organizational meeting or visit with the president, but mostly we see our primary job as advisor to sign university-required paperwork and be the name on record so the group can go about its business. This interactive presentation will attempt to challenge leadership educators to utilize advising opportunities as another way to help develop and educate future leaders. Specifically, participants will explore the role of student organizations in leadership development and the role of advisors in facilitating this development.

Presentation Outline

1. *Introductions*
   Participants will have an opportunity to introduce themselves and briefly state their current advising roles and experience.

2. *Purpose of student organizations*
   Each student organization has an individual purpose, but in general student organizations exist for three primary reasons: social interaction, academic connection, and leadership experience. Dunkel and Schuh (1998) provide a taxonomy of various types of student organizations: student government, Greek, residence hall, honors and recognition, military, sports, departmental, and special interest. All of these types of organizations provide social interaction and a connection to the university, but perhaps most importantly they all provide leadership experience. Students use involvement at the college level to practice the leadership skills that they will use the rest of their life. Astin (1993) tells us "students learn by becoming involved. The focus is on what the student does and the motivation, time and energy devoted to learning." As advisors we have a unique opportunity to facilitate this leadership development in our interactions with students and the organization as a whole. How can we capitalize on this experience?

3. *What is the role of the advisor?*
   After the discussion of the purpose of student organizations, participants will have an opportunity to brainstorm the role of the advisor in the student organization. The presenter will share a list of advisor roles adapted from Dunkel and Schuh (1998) and relate them back to the brainstormed list. Each role will then be discussed in greater detail with an emphasis on how this role contributes directly to leadership development.
   - **Educator/Trainer**: This is the most critical role of the advisor. Seeing the role from an education perspective helps the advisor keep in mind that their purpose with the group is to help facilitate a learning experience. As an advisor my most utilized technique in this role is what we would call Socratic questioning in the classroom. Students who I advise

quickly learn that I will seldom give them advise or tell them exactly what to do, but I will ask questions like "what do you think you should do?" or "why do you think that would be an appropriate course of action?" This style of advising is much more difficult than the supervisory perspective taken by many advisors. Giving up the supervisory role means giving up control.

- **Resource Person**: The advisor should keep themselves abreast of resources on and off campus. This does not mean the advisor should begin by telling students exactly where to find things, but when asked the advisor should be able to provide some direction to students.
- **Source of Continuity**: Student organizations by nature are transitory – student leaders come and go quickly as they graduate or take on different leadership roles. The advisor is likely to stay with the organization longer than most students, and can provide a historical perspective. This perspective from the past gives students the opportunity to learn from others mistakes and move the organization forward. The advisor should keep in mind, however, that sometimes students will make the same mistakes their predecessors made, and their predecessors before them. It is useful when this happens to keep in mind the purpose of student organizations as a learning opportunity, and while the particular learning opportunity is familiar to the advisor it is all new to the student.
- **Fiscal Agent**: On many campuses the advisor is primarily responsible for the money. In this role the advisor should promote student accountability and record-keeping, but also guard against major mistakes which are again the law, against university policy, or will cause undue financial stress on the organization beyond the current student leadership team.
- **Confidant/Counselor**: As an advisor to a student organization you will likely have students come to you with all sorts of problems and concerns unrelated to the organization. No two advisors fill this role in exactly the same way. It is important for you to determine early how much of this confidant role you are willing to take on and set appropriate boundaries. Anytime you are not comfortable in the counseling role you should refer the student to someone who is, usually someone at the university counseling center.
- **Conflict Mediator/Group Dynamics Expert**: When there is conflict in the group the advisor will typically be the first one asked to intervene. As a leadership educator your knowledge of group dynamics will be particularly useful here. Use conflicts as an opportunity to help the individuals in the organization learn about group dynamics. Your best role will often be to work with the leadership of the organization to help them figure out how to resolve the conflict rather than intervening yourself.

4. *Advising Framework*

This list of roles gives us a lot of ideas about what an advisor should and should not do, but making the day-to-day decisions about exactly what your group needs. The most helpful framework for me has been situational leadership (Blanchard, Carew, & Parisi-Carew, 1990). Let's take a look at the four components of situational leadership and how they apply to the advising role.

- **Directing**: As an advisor you do not want to spend too much time in this style. However, early in the year or when you have a brand-new leadership team you may find this role particularly relevant. I recommend, though, that you be directive in helping the group figure out where to focus its energy and not in telling them exactly what to do. For instance, you might tell the president she should facilitate goal setting with the group, and give her some ideas how to do this, but not tell her what the goals of the group should be.

- **Coaching**: As the group and its leadership figure some things out you need to be more supportive while still a little directive. This is often particularly useful in the storming stage of group development, when members are frustrated with each other and still not exactly sure what they should be doing.
- **Supporting**: As the leaders become more comfortable you will back off even more. This stage is often where the leader knows what he or she is doing but doesn't quite realize it yet. At this stage it is important to make sure you are not giving direction but are still being supportive.
- **Delegating**: Finally, when the leader is feeling comfortable with their role and the group is performing, you can sit back and watch more. Do not miss this opportunity, however. Often some of the greatest learning about leadership can take place when a student is feeling more comfortable in the role and ready to try out some new strategies.

An analogy I like to use when describing the advisor role in an organization is that of a parent teaching a child to ride a bicycle. In the beginning you put the training wheels on and hold on tight, running along beside the bike. The child is still pedaling and doing some work, but the parent is working twice as hard helping the bike stay vertical. As the child learns the parent will coach the child on how to hold the bike up themselves, and eventually start releasing their grip on the bike more and more. In the supporting stage the parent is still running alongside the bike or just behind it cheering the child on, but is no longer holding onto the bike. In the final stage the parent relaxes a bit and can stand on the side of the street and watch as the child confidently rides the bike alone.

5. *Wrap-Up*
I will conclude the presentation by asking the participants to think for a minute about what they have learned about advising today and specifically what they will do differently when they return home. Individuals who wish to will have the opportunity to share this with the group.

References

Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college? Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Blanchard, K., Carew, D., & Parisi-Carew, E. (1990). *The one minute manager builds high performing teams*. New York: William Morrow.

Dunkel, N. W., Schuh, J. H. (1998). *Advising student groups and organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Association of Leadership Educators, Inc.
Presentation proposal – 2006 Annual Conference

Anthony Middlebrooks, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Leadership
University of Delaware
188A Graham Hall
Newark, DE 19716
tmiddleb@udel.edu
302-831-5831

Audrey Helfman, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Leadership
University of Delaware
186 Graham Hall
Newark, DE 19716
ahelfman@udel.edu
302-831-1708

Title: Creativity as Pedagogical Tool for Teaching Leadership

Presentation Track: Practice

Session Description:
The concept and processes of creativity closely align to those of leadership, both implicitly as conceptual framework as well as explicitly as skills and tools. This presentation shares applications of creativity for teaching leadership, specifically to individuals in the initial stages of forming an identity as a leader.

Biographical Profile
Tony Middlebrooks, Ph.D. is Assistant Professor of Leadership in the School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy at the University of Delaware. Prior to his academic career, Dr. Middlebrooks spent ten years in non-profit leadership positions. He currently teaches courses in a variety of leadership topics, consults in leadership and program evaluation, and pursues research in leadership development. Dr. Middlebrooks holds a doctoral degree in Educational Psychology from the University of Wisconsin at Madison.

Audrey Helfman, Ph.D. is Associate Professor of Leadership in the School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy at the University of Delaware. She has been teaching courses in leadership and creativity for the past ten years. She works with students in the Middle East through a U.S. State Department funded project to encourage leadership development and civic-engagement. Dr. Helfman also guides mid-career women through a year-long leadership development program for the Institute for Public Administration.

Paper

Introduction
This paper examines the pedagogical utility of creativity to teach introductory leadership, more specifically to facilitate the student's initial formulation of leadership as a dynamic process and leader

as a potential identity. Creativity has been noted as an important asset for leaders, however consideration of creativity as a potential pathway to engaging leadership represents a shift in emphasis from how leaders can develop creativity to how creativity can help develop leaders. This alternative approach offers both instructional opportunities as well as social and motivational benefits. In other words, in addition to the academic benefits, using creativity to teach leadership offers students an interactive, engaging learning experience.

The learner objectives of applying creativity to teach leadership look very much like those of a typical introductory leadership course. The uniqueness of this approach, however, lies in the application of creative problem-solving and as implicit conceptual framework and the explicit teaching of specific creativity techniques to achieve objectives. This provides a foundation for later learning about leadership by emulating the process while applying the skills. The following objectives are typical of this introductory course:

1. Creativity in leadership
    a. Students will learn creativity techniques and their application to effective leadership
    b. Students will understand leadership as process by engaging in creative problem-solving
    c. Students will enhance their creativity and ability to understand different perspectives as they engage in shared visioning exercises
2. Your identity and potential as a leader.
    a. Students will identify as a leader, specifically able to articulate what makes them a leader, in what context/s, and to what end.
3. The definitions and basic theories of leadership.
    a. Students will define leadership and explain multiple theories of leadership, attributing theories to major authors and figures.
4. The variety of leadership practices and contexts of practice.
    a. Students will be able to explain how leadership looks in a variety of fields of practice.
    b. Students will execute various leadership practices in a real-world setting.
5. Leadership vision as ethics and integrity.
    a. Students will understand their own ethical base within the broader context of moral and ethical issues in leadership.
6. Leadership influence as change.
    a. Students will have a basic understanding of the change process, issues that facilitate or inhibit change, and practices to successfully lead change.

The theoretical foundation for this course interweaves: (a) formation of self-identification and self-awareness as a leader, (b) development of applied knowledge and skills, and (c) real-world application of effectively functioning as both a follower and a leader. (Middlebrooks, 2006)

Background

Learning leadership comprises a process of both formation and development. Leadership formation involves the individual changing how they conceptualize themselves, by definition shaping them into an essence that did not previously exist. With that changing concept comes a change in how an individual views and uses the tools of leadership he or she currently possesses. Leadership development, by contrast, builds on that essence, i.e., grows or evolves to more complex understandings of leadership. Distinguishing between formation and development may serve as a critical juncture in one's progression from competent human being, to whom many leadership lessons apply, to effective *leader*, which is an identity comprising a specific endeavor and application of those lessons.

Leadership educators generally agree that learning to lead requires initial focus on the individual leader, namely what should a leader know, do, and be like. The agreement ends at this general level. Leadership studies comprise a broad spectrum of skills, knowledge, activities, models, and "lessons". As individuals interact with this knowledge base, they necessarily must pick and choose the pieces that best suit their interest, personality, and context as a leader. They also necessarily construct and reconstruct their understanding of leadership and their own identity as a leader. Assumedly, the more information to which a leader is exposed, the more likely he or she will find what best motivates, develops, and guides their activity as a leader.

Both leadership and creativity have been defined in turn as an innate ability, an individual skill set, a specific outcome, and a process. Personality characteristics associated with creative activity overlap those traits found in effective leaders. Creativity theories vary in where creativity resides – in the creative person, in the context, and in the relationship between person and context. Similarly, leadership theories place leadership in the leader, in the situation, and in the relationship between leader and follower. A creative product may at the same time be the innovative, "out of the box" actions of an effective leader. Only the novelty aspect of the creative product and the focus on influencing others in leadership distinguish the two. And, even those concepts intermingle in the practice of each.

Unfortunately, although leadership and creativity share so many facets, little research has been done to examine the full capacity to which creativity could enhance leadership development, instead focusing on the use of creativity in leadership practice.

Creativity, and its associated techniques, facilitates the development of specific habits of mind, which in turn influence how one functions in a given situation. A *Leadership Roundtable* at the Center for Public Leadership at Harvard University identified leadership curriculum as one of the key themes in leadership. In summarizing that theme, the group advocates that leadership curriculum focus on "…how leaders function…"(Pruyne, 2002, p 16). They go on to endorse applied case studies and learning leadership tools as the preferred pedagogy. Further, the most recent innovations in teaching leadership focus on curriculum utilizing various vehicles to illustrate leadership lessons, such as film, literature, philosophical writings, and challenge activities to deliver and drive home lessons of effective leadership (Pillai & Stites-Doe, 2003). A creative mindset, or disposition, enables students to transcend the particular curriculum, utilizing creativity techniques to generate implications and applications from any curricular vehicle.

In addition to applying creativity to explicit leadership lessons, creative problem-solving also provides a conceptual framework that closely parallels leadership in both character and practice. If, as Drath and Palus (1994) assert, leadership itself is a constructionist process that emerges through a social process of meaning-making, then emulating this process *at the implicit level* as a context for learning leadership provides an embedded process that is more representative of how leadership functions than specific theories or a list of lessons drawn from an experience (Ospina & Schell, 2001).

How it works

The introductory leadership course, *Leadership, Integrity, and Change,* at the University of Delaware (UD) provides one example of how creativity can be integrated into a college curriculum. During the initial weeks of the course, students explore the many different beliefs, ideas, and activities of leaders, much like any introductory leadership course, as a lead up to introducing the concept of creative problem-solving and the course assignment around which the process will focus.

Within those initial weeks, major ideas are emphasized that begin the exploration and initial formation of an identity as a leader, as well as develop a broader systems view of the concept. Integrated into those lessons are a variety of creativity techniques designed to model divergent and metacognitive thinking, which enables students to navigate the many lessons, rules, and ideas about leadership. More importantly, course execution emphasizes practices that encourage a creative environment, such as agreeing on groundrules, embracing humor and positive affect, and understanding the nature of conceptual blocks. These practices closely emulate effective leadership in practice.

After a few weeks of initial exploration, the students are introduced to the Campus Change Project (CCP) as their major assignment for the semester. The CCP was developed by Dr. Audrey Helfman at UD as a means for involving first-year leadership students in a real-world experience with direct application to their organization, i.e., the University. The project is a group activity broken into numerous challenges that follow the creative problem-solving process. The actual practice of the CCP is to identify a problem, issue, or area for improvement at the University, explore the issue, generate solutions, create criteria for evaluating solutions, craft an implementation plan, and present it to both peers and campus administrators for assessment and potential adoption. Engagement in the project provides a frame for highlighting group processes, lessons in effective communication and management, and effective leadership at multiple levels.

Students engage the various challenges by adopting Von Oech's (1986) creative problem-solving roles (Explorer, Artist, Judge, and Warrior). For example, students' first challenge as an Explorer comprises turning inward first, i.e., explore yourself and your team, what do you need to know about yourself and those you are working with that will influence your success in the project? Cognitive psychologists as early as Vygotsky (1986) assert that concepts are internalized through interaction with the sociocultural milieu, particularly via social interaction. Each role, and the sum of the roles, provides a framework such that the concrete activity of problem-solving and the conceptual activity of integrating that work into understanding leadership facilitate the internalization of key leadership ideas.

Results to date

Information about the effectiveness of using creativity as a learning strategy has been gathered from students through course evaluations. The evaluations requested ratings on the effectiveness of the teaching method used, extending learning beyond the textbook, creativity, promoting teacher-student interaction, and stimulating independent learning on a 5-point rating scale. Notably, creativity (M=1.3), valued learning experience (M= 1.3) and extending learning beyond the textbook (M=1.3), gathered from course evaluations from 144 students, showed there was little variation across three different faculty when using the same creativity-based instructional model (Morrision, Rha, & Helfman, 2003).

Conclusions/Recommendations

Forming and developing leaders function more effectively with a creative disposition. Creativity and innovation have been heralded for some years now as the key to future success in all sectors, particularly leadership. While leadership educators have rightly emphasized teaching creativity, this paper asserts that the relationship between the two concepts is reciprocal. Consequently, integrating creativity into the curriculum and pedagogy of general leadership courses can effectively develop the much-desired creative disposition, **and** facilitate the more transcendent and transferable aspects of effective leadership.

In addition to the practical and motivational qualities, perhaps the most important facet of utilizing creativity to teach leadership lies in the integration of explicit and implicit influence it brings to a student's developing construction of self as a leader. The constructive nature of the brain comprises both understanding and process. In other words, we construct our habits of processing information as well as our representation of that information. Given the similarities between leadership and creativity, utilizing a more concrete process like creative problem-solving might serve as a more efficacious pathway to developing into a leader.

References

Drath, W. & Palus, C. (1994). *Making common sense: Leadership as meaning making in a community of practice*. Center for Creative Leadership.

Middlebrooks, A. (Spring 2006). *Leadership, Integrity, and Change Syllabus*. Leadership program, School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy, University of Delaware.

Morrison, J., Rha, J., & Helfman, A., (2003). Learning Awareness, Student Engagement, and Change: A Transformation in Leadership Development. *Journal of Education for Business*, 79(1), 11-17

Ospina, S. & Schall, E. (2001). Perspectives on leadership: Our approach to research and documentation for the Leadership for a Changing World Program. Retrieved November 14, 2001 from http://leadershipforchange.org/insights/conversation/files/perspectives.php3

Pillai, R. & Stites-Doe, S. (Eds.) (2003). *Teaching leadership: Innovative approaches for the 21st century.* Greenwich, CN: Information Age Publishing.

Pruyne, E. (2002). *Conversations on leadership: Harvard University roundtable*. Cambridge: Harvard Center for Public Leadership.

Von Oech, R. (1986). *A kick in the seat of the pants*. New York: Harper & Row.

Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and Language* (A. Kosulin Trans.). Cambridge: MIT Press (Original work published 1934).

1) Name of presenter, title, organization, mailing address, e-mail address and daytime phone

Jeffrey P. Miller, Ph.D.
Innovative Leadership Solutions &
University of Indianapolis
6526 Oxford Drive
Zionsville, IN 46077
Phone 317.733.8635
Fax 317.733.8636
jeff@inleadsol.com
www.inleadsol.com

Teresa Hogue, MS
Cascade Center for Community Governance
& Oregon State University
3893 SW Airport Way
Redmond, Oregon 97756
Phone 541.548.6088
Fax 541.548.8919
Teresa.hogue@oregonstate.edu

2) Title of presentation
Exploring the Rugged Terrains of Leadership to Build Learning Communities

3) Presentation track
Practice

4) A 50-word description (to be used in conference advertising.) of the session.
As conditions within communities become more complex, new approaches and processes are needed to address this complexity. This paper frames the fundamentals of creating a learning community. Explored are the core elements of stewardship, collaboration and systems thinking as an infrastructure needed to support elegantly simple solutions. Working in support of the core elements are foundational principles of community engagement, servant leadership and capacity building. As these principles are applied in the development of the learning community and the working culture, six leverage points are considered which serve to foster engagement, support strategic design, and define the culture of working together.

5) A one-paragraph biographical profile of the presenter(s) to be used for conference promotion
Jeff Miller, President and Senior Educator for Innovative Leadership Solutions, a company that believes in the power of individuals to transform themselves, their communities, and their organizations through personal and team learning. He is a past member of the educational facilitation team with the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership, an associate of the Cascade Center for Community Governance, and a member of the steering committee for the Medgar Evers Institute. He teaches in the in University of Indianapolis MBA program, and is a past president of ALE.

Teresa Hogue is a faculty member of Oregon State University Extension Service and in that capacity serves as the Director of The Cascade Center for Community Governance. Specializing in increasing community and organization capacity, the Center helps groups, organizations, agencies and businesses increase their ability to address public issues and problems by applying effective leadership, collaborative efforts and policy education. The Center is a public-private collaboration of Oregon State University, Portland State University, Central Oregon Community College, Oregon Corporations and Citizen leaders.

6) A paper to be printed in the ALE Conference Proceedings with the following attributes:
See below…

Exploring the Rugged Terrains of Leadership to Build Learning Communities

ABSTRACT

Albert Einstein said, "Problems cannot be solved at the same level of awareness that created them." As conditions within communities become more complex, new approaches and processes are needed to address this complexity. Conventional wisdom has held that responding to challenges and issues is straight forward – identify the problem, figure out the solution, generate resources and implement. Today, many communities have discovered this approach results in naively simplistic reactions rather than the desired simple solutions. The tools and practices of "learning organizations" initially described by Peter Senge in the 5th Discipline (1990) provide insights into new ways that issues can be explored, approached, and solved.

This paper frames the fundamentals of creating a learning community. Explored are the core elements of stewardship, collaboration and systems thinking as an infrastructure needed to support elegantly simple solutions. Working in support of the core elements are foundational principles of community engagement, servant leadership and capacity building. As these principles are applied in the development of the learning community and the working culture, six leverage points are considered which serve to foster engagement, support strategic design, and define the culture of working together.

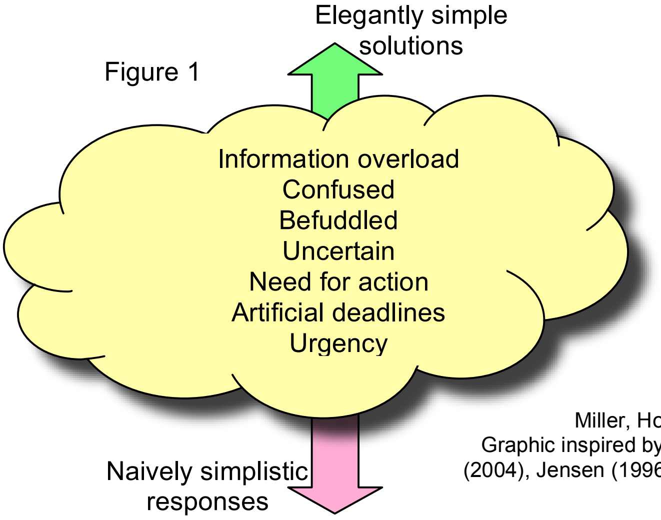
The learning community is mobilized by utilizing four engagement factors of dialogue and discussion – exploring new options and making decisions; embracing whole systems approaches – defining new ways for all resources to focus on desired shared outcomes; force field framing and reframing – identifying the real and perceived forces supporting and not supporting efforts; and design and implementing strategies on the A to B model – identify where the community is today (A) and where it wants to be (B) and the indicators that will define progress.

As funders, policy makers, and community members increase their investment in reaching positive outcomes, they will find themselves realigning how they do business. No two communities or their collaborative efforts are the same. However, they most often are based in common cores of stewardship, a sense of knowing and believing in community, and serving as servant leaders to build the capacity to create and sustain elegantly simple solutions.

ISSUE: COMMUNITIES STRIVING FOR SOLUTIONS IN COMPLEX ENVIRONMENTS

Today communities seek to successfully address the complexity of issues. Factors such as the speed and availability of information; interdependent global market forces; local, regional, and global political challenges, and the transient nature of many people contribute to this complexity. The overwhelming amounts of information and pressures to "fix problems" create a sense of urgency that can lead to overly simplistic quick-fix reactions. Elegantly simple solutions are elusive; however, they represent goals more worthy of long term sustainability. The concept of developing elegantly simple solutions helps individuals, groups and businesses develop cultures of work that maximize human, economic and infrastructure capital at all levels. The challenge is to resist the "quick fix" mindset and use new and emerging approaches which allow us to emerge from the cloud of confusion and discover those elegantly simple solutions (Figure 1).

Figure 1



Miller, Hogue, & Hays 2005©
Graphic inspired by the writings of: Hill, (2004), Jensen (1996)., & Schutz (1988).

Creating a community that learns is about the framing of elegantly simple solutions vs. reacting to a range of problems. It is about leadership that creates the climate in which communities continuously and collectively enhance their capacities to produce the outcomes they really want.

The challenges facing communities – either community of place (communities bound by geography), or communities of interest, (communities bound by shared purpose) – seem to be increasing in number, complexity and pace. How leaders and communities respond has the potential to profoundly change the culture in which people live and work (Kouzes, 2002). Peter Boyer's "A Different War," (New Yorker, July 2002) provides an example of these challenges. Boyer describes transformation of the U.S. military resulting from the September

11 attack on the U.S. Prior to the attack, the military was best fit to fight the last opponent where the enemy and their capacity was known. On September 11, the U.S. did not know their attackers, where they were, and what they were armed with. As a result, today's military operates with new tactics utilizing information technology and enhanced intelligence capabilities. The military equips soldiers with information for decision making, cross-functioning communication to solve problems, and the mindset that the new enemy is smart, elusive, and virtual. The military's challenge of being flexible, open to change and new perspectives, and adaptable to changing conditions are analogous to the challenges faced by communities.

Similar examples can be found in local communities as they address social, environmental and economic issues. For example, issues surrounding drug and alcohol abuse are addressed using a wide range of approaches that include prevention, intervention, and treatment strategies. These strategies are enhanced with finding and addressing the underlying root causes of drug and alcohol abuse.

Today, communities experience heightened uncertainty about emerging issues. People, groups, organizations and businesses are more connected and social capital – the collective value of people who know each other and what they will do with and for each other – is a valued investment in developing solutions tailored to community uniquenesses.

CREATING CULTURE: SHIFTING FROM REACTIONS TO SOLUTIONS

Table 1

Creating Culture: Mental Models Supporting Solutions

Naively Simplistic Reactions Focus: Activities		**Elegantly Simple Solutions** Focus: The Learning Community
▪ **Participation** – Community members view their involvement as important but not necessary critical.	⇨	▪ **Engagement** – A wide cross section of people, organizations, groups, and businesses serve as stewards of the community and value their commitment to realizing solutions.
▪ **Managing Change** – Coping with complexity by presiding over order and consistency.		▪ **Stewarding Change** – Coping with change by presiding over the orderly distribution of power. Operating from an orientation of service rather than control.
▪ **Focus on Projects** – Attention placed on specific actions often in isolation of unique community environments.	⇨	▪ **Focus on Systems** – Integrating whole parts of a system realizing no issue is addressed in isolation.
▪ **Spending Resources on Prescriptive Actions** – Responding to issues with proven/best practices approaches regardless of community uniqueness'.		▪ **Investing in Creating Tailored Solutions** – Leveraging a wide range of interdependent resources to develop and implement solutions unique to community issues.

Hogue, Miller, 2005

As communities address the complex issues facing them, they routinely struggle with four questions: How do we…

- *grow* successfully when so many issues are complex and seem overwhelming?
- *build* cultures of people and organizations to initiate, lead and sustain positive change?
- *shift* from "trying to fix problems" to one of "investing in solutions" that are about growth, development, and learning?
- *adopt* a culture of collaboration in an environment of continuous learning?

Successfully addressing these questions begins with examining leaders mental models.

Leaders externalize their assumptions, beliefs, and mental models and embed them in community visions, missions, goals, structures, and working environments. There is little question mental models become major elements of community culture (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). As communities focus on developing and implementing elegantly simple solutions, several common mindsets are evident and serve as a foundation for bridging organizational learning concepts with communities. The common mental model in communities where continuous learning is practiced are noticeably different from the mental models found in reactionary, activity driven communities. Table 1 provides examples of the two fields of mental models.

TOWARD A LEARNING ORIENTATION: COMMUNITY TRENDS, LEVERAGE POINTS, AND TRANSITION

Reaching elegantly simple solutions is not theory alone; the notion of communities working together in innovative ways is crucial in today's fast-paced complex societies (Putman 2002). The learning community, an integrated approach to creating effective working cultures, is much more than a tool for developing quick fixes, creating superficial teams, or spending grant money. Peter Senge (1990) describes learning communities as a group of people collectively enhancing their capacities to produce the outcome they really want to produce. Capacity is improved through collective skills, knowledge and wisdom and support the notion that more can be gained together than apart (Society for Organizational Learning (2002). At the heart of all learning is a deep, transformative process that creates new awarenesses and new capabilities, the building blocks for new practical know-how (Senge and Scharmer, 2001).

Building a learning community engages a wide cross section of people, groups, and businesses in the investment of resources toward a common good. The learning community cultivates a strong sense of stewardship where leaders, recognized as “servant leaders” choose to preside over the orderly distribution of power and demonstrate a willingness to be accountable for the well-being of the larger community. They operate from an orientation of service rather than control (Block, 1996). Elevating stewardship brings new levels of accountability that support the flexibility needed to address the ever-changing trends and shifts communities’ experience (Block, 1996). A learning orientation in communities strengthens all sections of the community including:

1. Individuals gain from enriched quality of life, new interests, and personal fulfillment;
2. Individuals gain by maintaining their employability as lifelong learners in a context of rapidly changing jobs;
3. Employers gain from building a learning culture in the workplace which feeds continuous improvement and adapting to changing conditions;
4. Communities are regenerated and revitalized and become more cohesive and more interesting places to live. (Kearns, 2002).

Because learning occurs in a growing range of contexts, the role of stewarding partnerships to link these contexts in value-added ways is central to building a learning community (Kearns, 2002).

A learning community is one that integrates the economic, social, and cultural development and fosters a sense of continual learning. Learning community strategies provide a means of reinvigorating communities as they adapt to the challenges of the 21st century (Putnam, 2002). Central to this premise is the connection of diverse stakeholders sharing a common vision and working in partnership toward common purposes (Kearns, 2002). Initiating diverse stakeholders in building a shared vision begins by examining the trends and patterns impacting communities and how these forces can be viewed, re-framed, and used more effectively.

Each community is unique in its own way. Leo Tolstoy wrote, “Happy families are all alike; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way” (1954, 1957). Like Tolstoy’s unhappy families, every failed effort is unhappy in its own way. While the unique combination of circumstances, culture, personalities, and interactions will never be replicated from one community to another, there are common patterns and themes that can be shared across communities. These patterns suggest that communities confront similar issues and respond in similar ways. Two recognized approaches communities use include global and local trends, and leverage points. All while incorporating this information into the systematic work culture of the community.

Analysis of global and local trends contributes to the how and why leaders work together and guide development of community solutions. Table 2 presents global trends that reflect shifts in how community strategies are designed and implemented. The data on this

Table 2

Global Trends Impacting Communities

Shifting From:	To:
Participating	Engaged
Locally based economies	Globally based economies
Governing through hierarchy	Governance through teams and decentralization
Partnerships focus on activities	Agile alliances focused on outcomes
Leadership is power based	Leadership is information based
Standards of practice	Continuous improvement
Technology supports change	Technology drives change
Communities of place	Communities of interest
Project/activity focused and funded by single funder	Outcome focused and supported by portfolio of funding
Youth-adult partnerships focused on community service	Teams of all ages engaged in taking civic responsibility and stewardship

World Future Society, 2004

table demonstrate the need for communities to work collaboratively with shared visions, operations, and accountability. It demonstrates the importance of developing systematic, flexible, integrated strategies that address root causes rather than symptoms of problems (Loftquist, 1983). Addressing underlying root causes demonstrates investment in prevention strategies and developing new community cultures focused on desirable conditions rather than problems (Pittman, 1998). Further, it frames the rationale critical to support change and investment in the flexibility needed by funders, policy makers and others who hold accountability.

As leaders begin identifying local and global trends impacting and/or emerging in their communities, they often find themselves overwhelmed by information, confused and uncertain about what actions to take, and believe the lack of financial resources limits their capacity to address the problems. In an effort to quickly implement solutions, leaders in activity focused communities often turn to outside funders, such as state, provincial and federal governments, non-profits (NGOs), and for-profit (business) sources. This naively-simplistic approach positions communities with unrealistic funding requirements, accountability measures, and a lack of strategies supporting sustainable solutions.

Communities using this approach often find the money runs out just as evidence of effectiveness is emerging.

Table 3

Community Leverage Points

Leverage Point	Response Focused	Transition	Solution Focused
Mindsets or Organizational Culture	The shared attitudes, values, beliefs, and customs with a set of assumptions form the backdrop for actions		
	▪ Quick fixes ▪ Write a grant	▪ *Short and long term planning*	▪ Align resources for common good ▪ Sustainability
Decision-making	The answer to "who decides?" reveals decision-making levels. Are they experienced in judging situations, deciding on optimum alternatives, and acting on their own initiative? Or are they more comfortable with following orders?		
	▪ Decisions controlled by a few	▪ *Shared decision making*	▪ Policies/procedures commonly practiced and developed collectively
Organizational Structure and Hierarchy	Layers of management, correlation of horizontal/vertical infrastructure, degrees of formality, and flexibility play significantly in collaboration.		
	▪ Rigidly controlled roles and responsibilities	▪ *Participatory* ▪ *Teams*	▪ Performance measured on outcomes
Communication	The degree of communication considered "normal" varies greatly among collaborative partners. This includes: overall tone and level of professionalism, the extent technology is used, and how people refer to each other.		
	▪ Directive	▪ *Shared*	▪ Engaging
Management Practices	Information about the partners and their behaviors provides insights into the culture of collaboration, but is key to developing what the culture of the organization and systems become.		
	▪ Controlled	▪ *Separated*	▪ Nimble, flexible
Orientation to Change	The degree partners are comfortable with and ready for change yield important clues in developing a collaborative culture.		
	▪ Closed – "we have always done it this way"	▪ *Tempered risk taking*	▪ Explores new options, continuous improvement

Miller, Hogue, & Hays 2005©

In contrast, communities where local and global trends are routinely examined and integrated into the culture of their work find themselves better positioned to address existing and emerging issues and having the capacity to develop desired futures (Putnam, 2002). Examining trends helps learning communities understand why problems have developed, and where they may go. Strategic solutions are usually framed around underlying root causes of problems in learning communities, compared to activity-focused communities who more often address symptoms of problems.

Examples of these two approaches are evident in a wide range of communities. Comparison can be made between communities with similar socio-economic rates, population, and ethnic diversity with one community exhibiting high education rates and the other low rates (Tompkins County Youth Services Department, 2003).

The low education rate community has a tradition of receiving short-term (less than three years) grants and a history of short-term projects and activities for middle and senior high school youth. The community with high education rates has a culture of high expectations for education that include prenatal education for parents, public education accessible and available for early childhood through college and beyond. Community systems of civic organizations provide a continuum of scholarships, mentoring programs, and educational programs that compliment public school education.

Communities focusing on elegantly simple solutions use leverage points differently than communities who respond in naively simplistic ways. Leverage points and descriptors for response, transition, and solution focuses are identified in Table 3.

Transitioning to elegantly simple solutions requires intentional efforts to disengage from the environment that leads to naïvely reactive responses. Once communities begin aligning mental models and leverage points toward systematic solutions leaders can begin to work collaboratively, and the community begins to change. As leaders make new commitments and forge relationships, new levels of accountability and responsibility for community well-being emerge and the learning community begins its journey. This transition requires leaders and communities to become more aware of opposite forces that thrive in paradoxical relationships. The phenomena of "paradox" is probably one of the least recognized or understood forces existing within organizations and communities (Senge 1990). The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines paradox as "one that possesses seemingly contradictory qualities or phases." For example, breathing is a paradox in that if either inhalation or exhalation were taken away, the simple act of breathing would become impossible. One cannot happen without the other. In organizations and communities the paradox of power is often present – as more is shared or given away, it increases among all who hold and share it.

The paradoxical forces that exist within communities are varied and unique. For example, systems of evaluation are created which hold people individually accountable. But this sacrifices the collaborative synergy that otherwise might be generated. So people are asked to work in teams to gain that synergy. But this creates challenges in determining accountability, as decisions about retention, credit, and compensation are largely done at the individual level. Frequently size, time, competition, action, leadership, and reality appear as paradoxical forces in communities. (Wacker and Taylor, 2000).

As communities transition to systematic solutions, it is important to recognize and name the paradoxical forces and the leverage points that can address them (Figure 2). This action provides new insights into how challenges can be addressed, and opportunities for how various leverage points might be used to greater advantage.

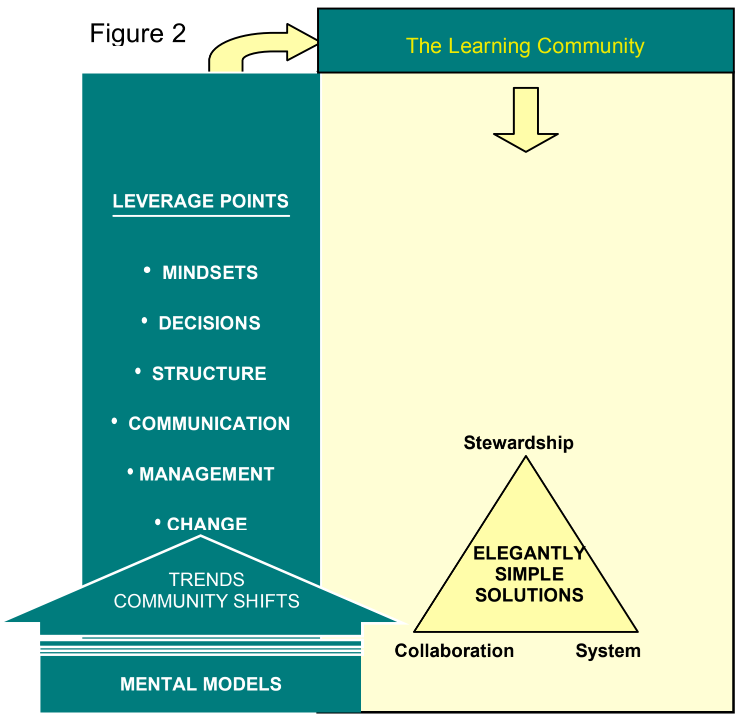
INITIATING LEARNING COMMUNITIES: STEWARDSHIP, COLLABORATION AND SYSTEMS

Learning communities operate in environments of stewardship, collaboration and systematic applications. This environment cultivates the flexibility, agile alliances, innovation, and nimbleness in balance with direction, scope, and outcome focus needed in todays fast paced complex communities (Figure 2).

▪ **Stewardship**

While working collaboratively is an investment in mobilizing existing energies and resources, interconnectedness of the strategies shape new community systems of working together. A strong sense of stewardship, those placing service above self-interest, generates new levels of advocacy, awareness, education, capacity, and policy supports needed to sustain positive directions

Figure 2



Stewardship frames a mind-set of accountability for the well-being of the larger group, organization and/or community. As stewards, individuals, groups and collaborations, operate in an environment of service rather than control. As Peter Block (1996) states, "…it (stewardship) is accountability without control or compliance." Two characteristics are evident when stewardship is the core of community collaborative engagement:

1. Members exhibit the vitality, enthusiasm and spirit needed to elevate excellence, and
2. Every member of the collaborative effort experiences a true sense of meaning and purpose.

Examples of this vitality and purpose can be found in the United States wild-land fire communities. Recent weather patterns and population growth extremes in rural-urban interface areas have placed people, wildlife, land, and structures at risk of sweeping wild fires. A wide cross-section of individuals, groups, businesses, and organizations are working together to encourage fuel reduction practices, implement new federal, state, and local policies targeting prevention and mitigation practices. They have discovered new ways to balance urban growth with protection of wild-land areas. The needs of the community and the collaboration become symbiotic in that the needs of the community drive the collaboration. In return, the needs of the collaboration drive the community's solutions.

▪ **Collaboration**

Despite an apparent trend in decreasing social involvement described by Robert Putnam (2001 & 2003), a new spirit of working together is surfacing across the United States and the world. This is occurring in the workplace, neighborhoods, among friends and in places of worship. Examples include: new partnerships among environmentalists and industry to address watershed issues in the western United States, and recent work in building multi-jurisdiction partnerships has created the United States Amber Alert system. It addresses the issue of missing and abducted children. Working together successfully occurs in environments where people feel safe and secure coupled with the knowledge that their contribution is valued (Parker, 1996).

Collaborative working relationships are fostered when people, their interests and their values are closely tied (Gray, 1989). To create and sustain these environments, people are involved in ways that they see success, discuss improvements, and celebrate outcomes. Generally, two types of collaborative working environments exist:

- *Communities of place* - people and organizations gather because of the places where they live, work, play, and/or call home.
- *Communities of interest* - people and organizations gather because of common interests held with little attention paid to geographic boundaries.

The working environment plays a significant role in building and sustaining collaborative efforts regardless of the type of community. The infrastructure of a community can be described as the working environment coupled with its policies and capacities. Collectively, this approach adds value to the community by:

- *Improving efficiency* – achieving higher levels of productivity through economies of scale (producing an equivalent level of outputs using fewer resources or more output with the current resources), and

- *Increasing scope* – building capacity to see more broadly into complex issues, spot emerging trends and needs sooner, advance existing strategies into emerging areas, and create timely new solutions.

Today, individuals and groups accomplish more in a day than entire departments did just a few years ago. This is evident in implementing the Amber Alert in the United States. Within minutes entire systems including internet, radio, roadside message boards and television are notified of a missing child and the circumstances surrounding the disappearance. The Amber Alert mobilizes thousands of people within an hour whereas in the past a limited number of police would have been notified in a small geographical area. This pace will become more elevated as the information age becomes an even larger driving force of how people, groups, and communities work together. As the reality of the information age expands and becomes more complex, the movement to implement collaborative systematic efforts becomes more critical. Successful collaborative efforts do not just happen; they use collaboration technology that is based in a principle of stewardship.

Collaboration is a growing necessity among communities and/or organizations sharing common interests. In a slow-moving world, organizations need a good executive in charge. In a moderately paced context, teamwork is necessary to deal with periodic change. However, in a world where information and communication is at a fast pace, teamwork and working collaboratively is enormously helpful almost all the time (Useem, 1998).

- **Systems**

Community issues today call for using systematic methods that guide clear, logical, and replicable strategies. The integration of a systematic approach supports the flexibility needed to make adjustments based on new learning (Senge, 1990).

As systemic strategies are used, more insight is gained into the interconnectedness existing within communities. The community’s strengths and weaknesses, its internal dynamics, and potential synergies become more visible. Communities are then more capable to re-envision how resources and strategies can be better used. New levels of working together and engaging decision makers, concerned citizen groups, and a wider array of funders characterize the re-envisioning process. This level of appreciative inquiry, examining situations in positive new ways, contributes to discovering new leverage points to maximize efforts. These efforts contribute to leaders discovering that the smallest action can have a profound effect on the community.

Peter Senge (1992) states that “for systems thinking to really become a part of the entire organization (community), a fundamental shift in organizational structure or design will be required." As such, it is important for communities and engaged organizations to recognize and embrace the change needed to support this shift. One key in this shift is seeing that most organizations and communities are built and created on a common organizing principle. That principle is linear in design and most often hierarchical in appearance. Organizations built over decades and centuries based on this principle tend to adhere to a common set of deeply held beliefs about "cause and effect" and relationships. One need look no further than the typical organization chart. The underlying structure is "who do I answer to" and "who answers to me." It says nothing about what the organization/community is trying to create, nor does it show the interdependencies of the various working relationships.

Examining the wild-land fire community provides an example of organizations undertaking fundamental shifts to become a "system of fire suppression." As wild fires have become more invasive and expanded to encompass mass acreage; local, state and federal fire agencies have discovered that compartmentalization of resources and practices enhances competition for funding, reduces or eliminates shared fire fighting practices and procedures, and ultimately creates increased chaos when catastrophic fires occur. New interagency systems have resulted in commonly shared fire suppression policies, procedures and practices, joint budgeting and leveraged resources, and new collaborative efforts placed on preventative fire management.

Systems' thinking is a way of viewing the world, including organizations and communities, from a different perspective. This includes seeing the structures, patterns and events, rather than just events themselves. This broader view helps identify the real causes of issues and gives new insights on where (and how) to work. . Systems thinking provides tools that enable communities to look at their circumstances in new ways. Among the advantages of a systems approach are:

- Enhancement of abilities to look holistically at communities and challenges faced.
- Seeing many points of view and that "cause and effect" are not always closely (or directly) related.
- Tests our assumptions and opens us up to the inquiry of new perspectives.

The elements of stewardship, systems thinking and collaboration are key to developing quality learning communities. No one element can operate alone or become isolated from the wide range of stakeholders involved.

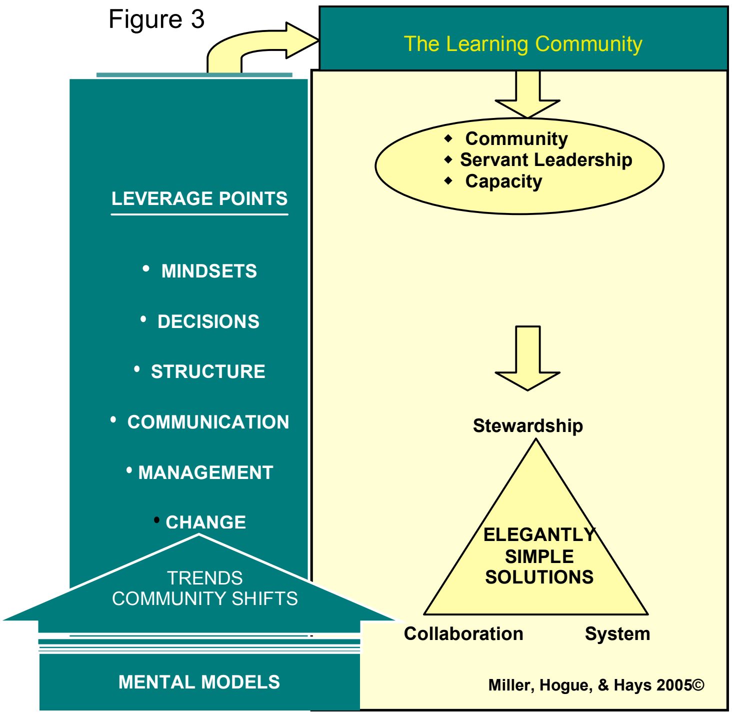
STRENGTHENING THE LEARNING COMMUNITY: CORE PRINCIPLES

Three core principles, underlying beliefs about the culture of the learning community, are fundamental in building a strong sense of community, fostering stewardship, and continually reaching results. The three core principles are: community, servant leadership, and capacity (Figure 3).

- **Community**

Identifying with a shared purpose, a wide cross section of people, groups, organizations and businesses sharing a sense of stewardship and commitment to work collaboratively build the sense of community. Through community, people recognize the significance of creating results that are valued equally within the system and culture of working together. Viewing community with little value is the greatest waste of human potential and social capital (Celente, 1997).

Figure 3



- **Servant Leadership**

Servant Leadership is best described as an individual and/or group who chooses service as a means of leading. A servant leader elevates accountability and productivity without control or compliance and is a key factor in reducing fragmentation and moving beyond debate (Spears, 1997). Practicing servant leadership distributes power, purpose, and rewards among a diversity of people and groups. Servant leaders are characterized by:

1. *Balance of power*: People act on their own choices and lead actions tailored to meet existing and emerging needs. This requires a shift in thinking away from meeting sole monetary needs to meeting broader community goals. — if servant leaders do so, the money will follow. But too often leaders don't behave in this way and operate from a scarcity model.

2. *Primary commitment:* It is to the larger community and does not constrain its attention to individuals or small groups that can breed self-centeredness.

3. *Equal and valued participation:* Each person defines the purpose and culture of the collaborative effort.

4. *Balance and equitable distribution of rewards*: All members share in creating its wealth and expanding its resources.

Servant leaders contribute to the strategic direction of the community by providing a framework for the integration of stewardship. This framework includes identification of desired outcomes, to remind people, groups and the community about the outcomes, and why they are important. They initiate the celebration of successes as they emerge.

Servant leaders continually strengthen the principle of stewardship by building the capacity of individuals and groups to realize, recognize, and engage in roles of service. This is accomplished by creating mental models that support new systems of solutions. New mental models are developed by using tools that encourage different thinking.

Vertical and horizontal thinking are two such tools. Vertical thinking takes in new data and frames it into traditional patterns of problem solving. Lateral thinking takes in new data in relationship to new (and divergent) patterns. Vertical and lateral thinking are complementary skills. Lateral thinking enhances the effectiveness of vertical thinking by expanding the range of possibilities. And vertical thinking develops in greater detail the ideas generated by lateral thinking (Table 4).

Table 4
Differences Between Vertical and Lateral Thinking

Vertical	Lateral
▪ Selective, focused on problems.	▪ Generative, focused on creativity.
▪ Is sequential and moves only if there is a clear direction in which to move	▪ Can jump in different directions
▪ Is analytical	▪ Is provocative
▪ Rightness is what matters	▪ Richness, diversity, & depth are what matters
▪ Categories, classifications, labels are fixed	▪ Flexible, nimble, and not fixed
▪ Follows the most likely paths	▪ Explores the least likely
▪ Uses the negative to block certain pathways	▪ Welcomes chance intrusions

Table adapted from: De Bono, 1973

- **Capacity**

Capacity for productive change makes a substantive difference in whether or not organizations improve and evolve. Most public and private organizations can be significantly improved at an acceptable cost when a capacity for dealing with transformational change exists (Kotter, 1996). Capacity can be described by establishing and implementing:

- Moderate sense of urgency
- Broad-based action
- Guiding collaborative effort
- Vision and strategies
- Long term gains and growth
- A change vision
- Short term wins
- New approaches in the culture

By embracing core principles of community, servant leadership and capacity, communities are in a better position to mobilize the mental models and leverage points. By doing so they increase their chances of reaching the elegantly simple solutions needed to address today's fast paced complex issues.

MOBILIZING THE LEARNING COMMUNITY: ENGAGEMENT FACTORS

Building community engagement is about creating a sense and feeling of efficaciousness and the sense that contributions are making a real difference. Community engagement refers to the interdependent connections between governments, citizens and communities on a range of policy, program and service issues (Queensland Dept. of the Premier and Cabinet, 2003).

Engagement is both formal and informal, direct and indirect, and encompasses a wide variety of interactions ranging from shared information to interdependent decision making. Individuals and groups experience graduating levels of commitment as they progress from paying attention to issues with low levels of commitment to participating with moderate levels of commitment.

Four Engagement Factors (Figure 4) have proven most useful in putting the core principles and leverage points to work. They are Dialogue and Discussion, Whole Systems Approach, Force Field Framing and Reframing, and Moving From A to B (Hogue & Miller, 2002). These Factors support: 1. discovering new and innovative ways to approach complex issues, 2. self-reflection, 3. gaining solicitation of opinions, perceptions, and ideas 4. careful listening, and 5. staying open to new ideas.

1. **Dialogue and Discussion -** Dialogue, the <u>exploration of ideas</u>, is critical to developing new solutions. As communities look toward revitalizing, their health, be it economic, environmental, safety, or education, there is value in a diverse group of people coming together to explore the issues. By suspending assumptions and listening intently to

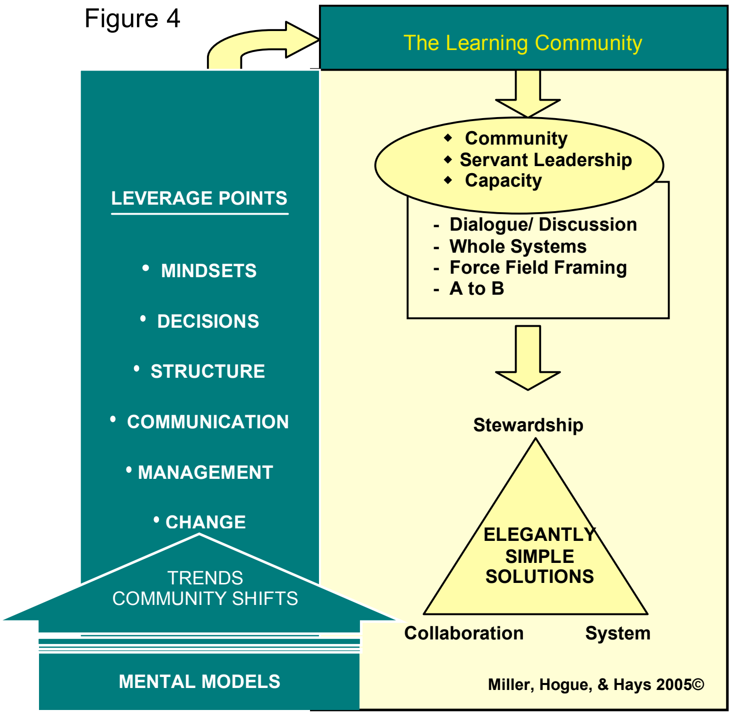
others new insights and options emerge. This act of "thinking together" contributes to efforts more in alignment with community needs.

Discussion follows dialogue as people come to a conclusion or decision about the best actions to take. Without dialogue, the options for discussion are limited and do not support the movement to a learning environment (For a more detailed reading on this see: Dialogue: The Art Of Thinking Together, by William Isaacs, 1999).

2. **Whole-Systems Approach -** Answering the question, "How do communities build and sustain more results with more people in more places?", used to mean investing in new projects and all the start up efforts that come with them. Today, greater sustained success is found when whole-systems approaches are used in practical and realistic ways. A whole-systems approach builds on the interconnectedness of individuals and groups within communities.

Whole-systems approaches utilize all systems available to the members of the collaboration with potential for creation, modification, and reinsertion (Zohar, 1997). This approach accomplishes two critical outcomes: It brings maximum experience and wisdom to the table, and in remarkably short time, turns those resources into action. It creates newly aligned systems, goals, roles, and procedures for sustainable results. It accelerates servant leadership, the commitment to and ownership of change by involving a diversity of people in decisions. And, it builds on the good work that is already happening.

Figure 4



3. **Force Field Framing and Reframing -** Groups that continually examine the forces working for and against their efforts find themselves in a better position to make adjustments. Generally, four different force fields influence the ongoing work of any collaborative effort:

- supporting forces, e.g. key leaders showing support for the work
- non-supporting forces, e.g. community apathy
- the past, e.g. old guard leadership willing or unwilling to support new efforts
- emerging trends, e.g. 20 percent population growth projected over 10 years.

Using force fields help to frame and reframe strategies. This process helps individuals and groups identify paradoxical forces, new leverage points, build a sense of value, develop capacity, strengthen leadership, and deepen the level of understanding.

4. **Moving from A to B -** An old proverb states, "If you don't know where you are going, any road will get you there." Moving from A to B provides a process to reach agreement on the end result. “A” represents the current situation, issue or problem while “B” represents the desired condition, outcome or result (Loftquist, 1983).

By using dialogue and skillful discussion, a group can reach some kind of shared understanding of the current situation. This process bridges the many perceptions and individual realities among a diverse group of people. Describing the current situation takes into account the many beliefs and values of the group.

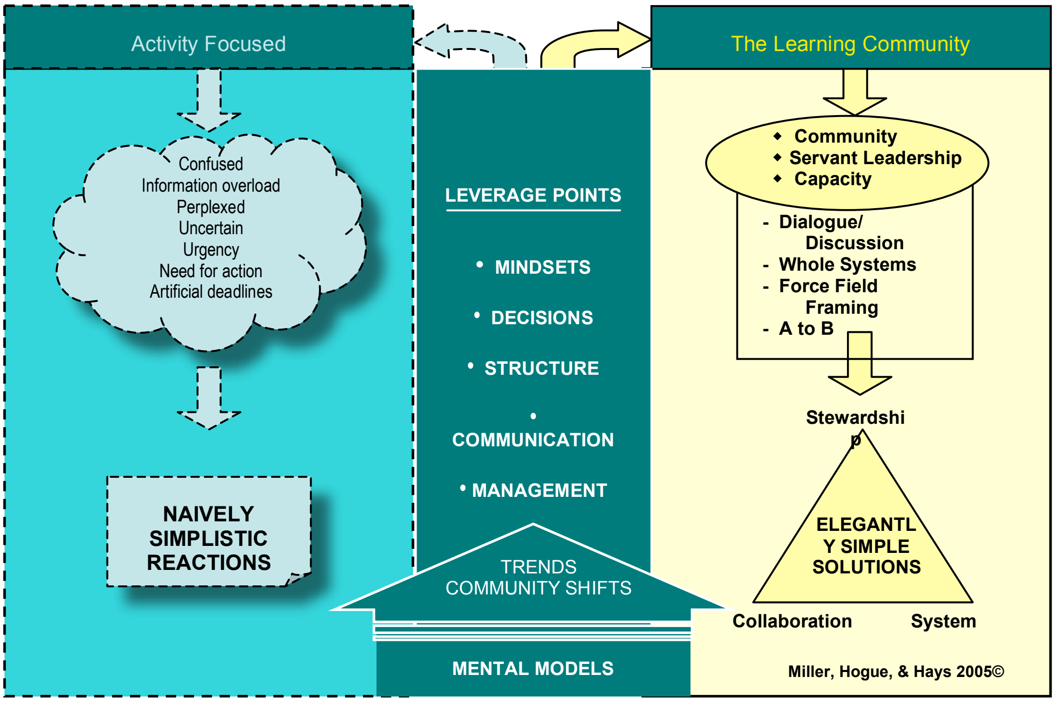
Through dialogue and skillful discussion, establishing B not only builds a shared vision of the future, but begins to frame the strategies and flexibility needed to make positive change. This could be compared to flying between Portland, Oregon and Tokyo, Japan. Though a flight plan is filed for the trip, there is an average of 464 adjustments in the flight plan on each flight. As new information, trends, incidents, resources, etc. emerge while trying to reach “B”, it is critical for collaborative efforts to be flexible enough to adjust their flight plan.

Conclusions

Today, efforts to address complex issues need to shift to a culture of learning. The increasing pace of change calls for a broader approach in building and sustaining a culture of learning among communities, funders, policy leaders and all those affected. This new culture of continuous learning calls for calls for leadership which embraces systematic approaches. These approaches require routine examination of global and local trends, determining how they impact the community, and developing new and/or improved ways to define and implement solutions. Developing new systems requires a fundamental shift in organizational structure, design and leadership strategies. This brings forth the leverage points that will contribute either to the success or failure of efforts. These leverage points include mindsets, decision-making processes, structure of the collaboration, communication patterns, management styles and willingness to accept change.

Generating leadership that cultivates an environment of learning and systematic solutions comes from a core of stewardship. The underlying value of stewardship, placing service above self-interest, carries the intent to reach a solution regardless of funding limitations, limited policy supports, lack of understanding, and who gets credit. Integrating a sense of stewardship among all partners brings about new levels of communication, mindsets, and management. This shift places new demands on funders to be accountable for their investments and the successes they can bring.

The Core Principles contribute toward a learning community and can shape a new working environment. This environment may use the public library, internet search engines, cellular telephones, conference calls, or focus groups to learn about emerging trends impacting communities. The fundamental tasks of planning, implementing and making mid-course adjustments routinely occur in dialogue and discussion sessions rather than "a leader" telling others what to do. Appreciative Inquiry (AI), asking positive questions so new images of the future can be generated, is becoming a commonly used approach. These powerful images -- of ourselves, our organizations, our communities, and the world -- can inspire action and innovation. Dr. David L. Cooperrider says, "AI asks us to pay special attention to "the best of the past and present" -- in order to "ignite the collective imagination of what might be." (2001).



The benefit of the appreciative inquiry approach is that it moves us from a problem solving orientation to something more creative. This generative orientation creates a new energy and taps the passions and energy of community members. It also provides for more latitude in looking at communities from a systems perspective and looking for the deeper root causes rather than addressing symptoms.

As collaboration and systematic approaches move communities toward a learning orientation, individuals, groups, and organizations bound by traditional methods of problem solving will become increasingly frustrated and less effective in finding solutions. As funders, policy makers, and community members increase their investment in reaching positive outcomes, they will find themselves realigning how they do business. They will realize that no two communities or their collaborative efforts are the same, but may in fact be based in common cores of stewardship, sense of knowing and believing in community, and serving as servant leaders to build the capacity to create and sustain elegantly simple solutions.

References Cited

Block, P. (1996). Stewardship: Choosing Service over Self-Interest. San Francisco. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Celente, G. (1997).Trends 2000: How to Prepare for and Profit from the Changes of the 21st Century. Warner Books Inc.

Cooperrider, D.L. (2001). Appreciative Inquiry: An Emerging Direction for Organization Development. Stipes Pub. LLC.

Covey, S. R. (1990). The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People. New York. The Free Press.

De Bono, E. (1973). Lateral Thinking: Creativity Step by Step. Perennial.

Hill, S.B. (in press). Social Ecology as a Framework for Understanding and Working With Social Capital and Sustainability Within Rural Communities. In: A. Dale & J. Onyx (eds.), *Social Capital and Sustainable Community Development: The Missing Link.* Vancouver, BC: UBC Press.

Hill, S. B. (2004). Camping To Change the World. Australian Journal of Outdoor Education, Vol 8 (1) 3-10, 2004

Hogue, T. & Miller, J. (2002). *Effective Collaboration (2nd ed.) Strategies for Pursuing Common Goals.* Denver. Rocky Mountain Institute for Leadership Advancement.

Isaacs, W. (1999). Dialogue: The Art Of Thinking Together. New York. Currency.

Jensen, B. (2001). Simplicity: The New Competitive Advantage in a World of More, Better, Faster. New York. Perseus Books Group.

Kearns, P. (2002). Key Strategies and Activities for Building a Learning Community. GLS Learning Guide No. 7. Kambah, ACT Australia. Global Learning Services.

Loftquist, W. (1983). *Discovering the Meaning of Prevention*. Tucson, Arizona. AYD Publications.

Kotter, J.P. (1996). *Leading Change*. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School.

Meen.E. and Keough, M.(1992). An Interview With Peter Senge. The McKinsey Quarterly, Number 1, pp. 58-86.

Parker, G.M. (1996). *Handbook of Best Practices for Teams*. Amherst, Massachusetts: HRD Press.

Pittman, K. (2001). *Youth Today*, 11(4) 55

Putnam, R.D. (2001). Bowling Alone : The Collapse and Revival of American Community. New York. Simon & Schuster.

Putnam, R.D. (2003). Better Together: Restoring The American Community. New York. Simon and Schuster.

Putnam, R. D. (ed.) (2002) Democracies in Flux: The Evolution of Social Capital in Contemporary Society, New York: Oxford University Press

Queensland Department of the Premier and Cabinet. Engaging Queenslanders: An Introduction to Community Engagement. Communityengagement@premiers.gld.gov.au. (2003).

Society for Organizational Learning. Overview of Organizational Learning. http://www/solonline.org/organizational_overview. (2004)

Schutz, W. (1988). Profound Simplicity: Foundations for a Social Philosophy. 3rd. Edition. Will Schutz Associates. Muir Beach, California.

Senge, P. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization. New York. Doubleday.

Senge, P. and Sharmer, (2001). Community Action Research. in Handbook of Action Research. Reason, P. and Bradbury, H. ed.

Spears, L. (ed). (1997). Insights on Leadership : Service, Stewardship, Spirit, and Servant-Leadership. San Francisco. Wiley

Tolstoy, L. (London: Penguin, 1954; reprint 1997).Anna Karenina, trans. Rosemary Edmounds.

Tompkins County Youth Services Department (2003). Healthy Youth, Vital Communities: Assessment of Data for Collaborative Planning.

Useem, M. (1998). *The Leadership Moment*. New York, New York: Random House.

Wacker, W. & Taylor, J. (2001). Visionary's Handbook : Nine Paradoxes That Will Shape the Future of Your Business. New York. Harper Business.

Zohar, D. (1997). *ReWiring the Corporate Brain*. San Francisco. Barrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Leadership Curriculum Used by High School Agricultural Science Instructors: A National Study

A. Christian Morgan
448 Agriculture Hall
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74075
405-744-8143
chris.morgan@okstate.edu

Rick D. Rudd
P.O. Box 110540
University of Florida
Gainesville, FL 32611
352-392-0502
rrudd@ufl.edu

Introduction

Many writers have focused on the value of and the need to develop leaders (Figura, 1999; Gardner, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Because of this need for leaders, it seems natural that leadership education should occur in public schools. Leadership has been taught in high school through a variety of venues such as leadership courses, vocational clubs, student council, and other school based organizations. Agricultural science courses have provided many opportunities for leadership education through classroom, supervised agricultural experience (SAE) and FFA Organization activities. Past studies have focused on the amount of leadership activities such as career development events (CDE), SAE activities, FFA Organization conventions, and other co-curricular activities, but little research has focused on the type of leadership curriculum and material used to teach leadership in agricultural science classrooms. This research sought to determine what leadership curriculum and materials were being used in high school agricultural science classrooms to teach leadership.

Literature Review

Leadership development is becoming a focus of many public schools across the country and in a few cases, schools and school districts have designed and implemented curriculum in order to teach leadership knowledge and skills to youth (Commonwealth of Virginia Board of Education, 2001; School District of Washington, 2001; Virginia Division of Policy and Public Affairs, 2001). This interest in leadership from schools may have stemmed from authors such as Gardner (1990) who reminds us that leaders are needed in all levels of our society, or Figura (1999) which warns us of an impending leadership void among our workforce. Students who have been taught leadership are better prepared to act in a leadership capacity due to the fact they better understand the phenomena of leadership as a personal and attainable undertaking (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). If a goal of our high schools is to produce capable citizen leaders, it only seems natural that leadership should be part of the curriculum.

Leadership Development in High Schools

Secondary public schools have a history of leadership development. In addition to student council, debate clubs, and other on campus organizations, many high school vocational programs develop leadership skills in students through a variety of activities such as National FFA Organization, FCCLA, DECA, and SkillsUSA (White, 1982). Since their inception, high school agricultural science courses have included leadership development as a cornerstone of their program (Hillison & Bryant, 2001). During this time the National FFA Organization has been working hand-in-hand with agricultural science teachers, providing an avenue for young people to exercise and develop their leadership skills (National FFA Organization, 2002, p. 5). The FFA mission statement reveals the original goal of the organization stating, "FFA makes a positive difference in the lives of students by developing their potential for premier leadership, personal growth and career success through agricultural education" (National FFA Organization, 2002, p. 5).

There is a unique link between high school agricultural science programs and the co-curricular National FFA Organization. Within the agricultural science classroom the agricultural science instructor teaches leadership skills to students, who then apply that knowledge by engaging in leadership activities provided through local, district, state and national activities. .

Agricultural science programs provide a wide variety of opportunities for leadership development such as classroom instruction, supervised agricultural experience and FFA activities (Esters, 2002), while local FFA chapters have the primary responsibility for providing leadership experiences for students involved in agricultural education (Brannon, Holley, & Key, 1989; National FFA Organization, 2002). Since it's inception in 1928, leadership development has been a goal of FFA (Connors, 1999; National Research Council, 1988). Through participation in FFA activities, students are able to obtain leadership experiences in a variety of environments (Esters, 2002).

Student FFA Involvement

A substantial amount of research has been conducted to analyze the impact of FFA involvement on students. Townsend and Carter (1983) found student self-perceived leadership competencies had a significant correlation with FFA participation. Their results suggest leadership is enhanced with FFA activity. In addition, a study by Ricketts and Newcomb (1984) which surveyed high school students revealed that agriculture students and FFA members possess significantly more leadership and personal development abilities than did students not enrolled in agriculture. They also found that students with a higher level of activity in the local FFA chapter had increased self-perceived leadership abilities.

Wingenbach (1995) found that increased member engagement within the local FFA chapter had a significant relationship with the youth leadership and life skill development score. Likewise Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, and Conrad (2002) surveyed FFA chapter officers attending the National FFA Organization's Washington Leadership Conference (WLC) and found a significant positive relationship between self-perceived leadership skills and level of FFA involvement. This positive correlation between level of FFA involvement and the instrument leadership scales reinforces the positive relationship between FFA activity and perceived leadership skills.

The preceding studies help to illustrate the benefits of youth being involved in extra-curricular and co-curricular activities. Yet, not all students engage in these activities. What would be beneficial is classroom leadership instruction so all students can learn leadership knowledge and skills (Carter & Spotanski, 1989; Ricketts & Rudd, 2001). There are leadership textbooks available (Delmar Learning, 2003; Prentice Hall, 2003) and some states have developed leadership curriculum (Commonwealth of Virginia Board of Education, 2001; Instructional Materials Service, 2003; North Carolina State University, 2003; Virginia Division of Policy and Public Affairs, 2001) to address local needs, but at the time of this study no nationwide curriculum was available. Although agricultural education has accepted the charge to teach leadership skills, no studies have been conducted to determine what curriculum has been used in agricultural science classrooms.

A Leadership Curriculum for Youth

With no national leadership curriculum available, the question that begs for an answer is what materials are instructors using to teach leadership? Although high school agricultural science instructors have the skills to develop their own curriculum materials, they prefer to use pre-existing materials (Wingenbach, Gartin, & Lawarence, 2000) and the use of a quality curriculum provides a strong foundation for quality teaching to occur (Swan, 1996). Boccia (1997) points out "there is a meager base of programmatic guidelines for successful student leadership in schools" (p. 76). Though some teaching materials are available, it appears there is a need for a comprehensive leadership curriculum for youth.

The Model of Youth Leadership Development

A framework for a comprehensive youth leadership curriculum has been developed by Ricketts and Rudd (2002). They conducted a meta-analysis of youth leadership development literature and based on this research, the Model of Youth Leadership Development was developed (see figure 1). This model consists of five dimensions:

- Leadership knowledge and information--Base knowledge needed about leaders and leadership before application of leadership concepts.
- Leadership attitude, will and desire--Focuses on disposition, motivation, self-realization, and health to prepare students for leadership.
- Decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking--Using critical thinking skills to address problems and make decisions with incomplete information.
- Oral and written communication skills--Skills necessary to effectively sharing information and convey ideas, attitudes, opinions and feelings.
- Intrapersonal and interpersonal relations--Includes conflict resolution, stress management, teamwork and ethics viewed through the framework of diversity, learning styles and personality types (Ricketts, 2003).

Each dimension represents one construct for which a curricular unit should be developed. Each curricular unit is designed so it can be taught at three different levels of cognition: awareness, integration, and mastery. By addressing each stage in each dimension, a complete and cohesive nature of a leadership curriculum is possible (Ricketts & Rudd, 2001).

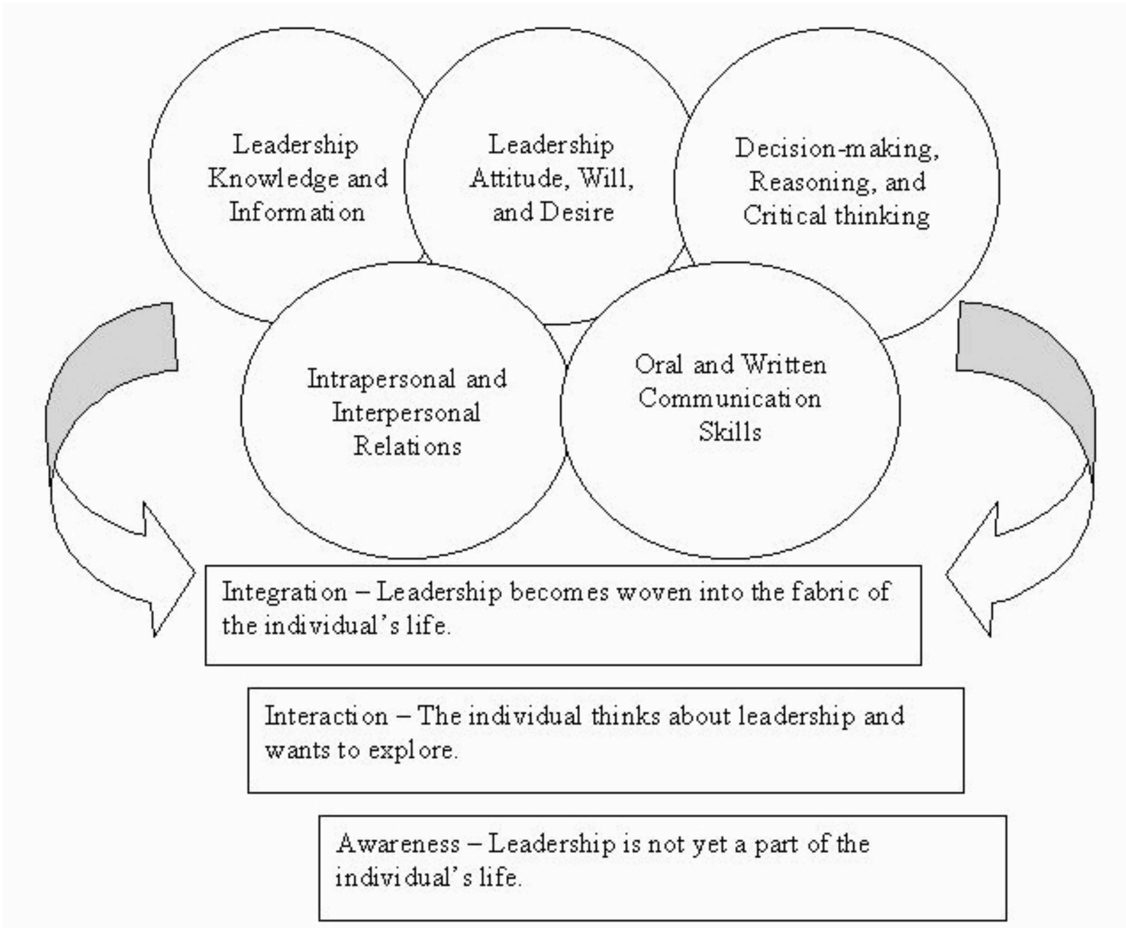


Figure 1. Model of Youth Leadership Development. From Ricketts, J. C., & Rudd, R. D. (2002). A comprehensive leadership education model to train, teach, and develop leadership in youth. *Journal of Career and Technical Education, 19* (1), 7-17.

Curriculum Adoption

Having a new curriculum with which to teach high school students leadership knowledge and skills has the potential to be advantageous to students' learning, but prior to students benefiting from the curriculum the instructors must first adopt it. Studies have found a common set of characteristics that lead to curriculum adoption (Bland et al., 2000). Bland et al. identified five categories for successful curriculum change: politics, participation by organization members, human resource development, evaluations and leadership.

Politics revolve around the allocation of scarce resources (Bolman & Deal, 1997). These resources include internal networking and resource allocation. Internal networking consists of formal and informal channels through which people are influenced by opinion leaders (Bland et al., 2000; Rogers, 2003). Successful change requires advocates within this network. Resource allocation requires having the necessary funds to implement the change. These funds may be required for purchasing curriculum, or may be necessary for faculty training of the curriculum, both of which are required for successful adoption.

Possibly the most influential political element in curriculum adoption today is the popularity of standardized testing and accountability within the school system (Frontline, 2002). Students in many states are required to pass a standardized test prior to moving on to the next grade level. Using the student scores from these tests, schools can be rated and held accountable for students' passing and failing these tests (Doherty, 2004). Because of the impact these tests have upon the students' success as well as the school's accountability, a tremendous amount of effort goes into preparing students to pass these tests (FairTest.org, 2004). This may have an impact on the subjects offered in the schools. Subjects that do not have a direct positive impact on student standardized test scores may be at risk of being eliminated from the school course offerings. Standardized tests usually assess the students' knowledge of mathematics, reading and grammar (Doherty, 2004). Typically, leadership is not a concept that students are held accountable for with these tests, and therefore a leadership curriculum may not be adopted in a school because it does not contribute to the success of students on standardized tests. This would be an unfortunate situation, because the skills learned through leadership instruction are skills that will benefit students regardless of the career in which they enter, providing them with the leadership and communication skills desired by employers (Boccia, 1997; Figura, 1999).

Participation by organization members is a key element to successful change (Bland et al., 2000). Curriculum adoption efforts must have the support of instructors for the adoption effort to be a success. One method to accomplish this is to include instructors in the implementation of the adoption process (Butler, 1999; Lowery, 2000). As stated by Connors (1999), “Teachers must see a need for change, believe it is justified, and be able to recognize problems that can be addressed by adoption of the curriculum” (p. 54). Including instructors in the adoption process increases their skill development and the likelihood of curriculum implementation (Bland et al., 2000). Therefore, instructors must be willing to participate in the curriculum change for success to occur.

Human resource development in the form of professional development workshops and seminars is important to allow instructors to see how the curriculum is properly utilized are necessary for successful curriculum adoption (Kirk & MacDonald, 2001; Leat & Higgins, 2002). In this way, instructors’ needs can be met through proper professional development, training, and support through the curriculum adoption process (Bland et al., 2000). Ideally professional development workshops should be conducted to assure successful curriculum adoption.

Evaluation allows for monitoring of implemented changes and solving problems as they arise (Bland et al., 2000). As curriculum is distributed and implemented instructors should be contacted to monitor and evaluate the adoption process. The findings of this current study would assist in such an evaluation process by providing baseline data of current leadership instruction. Future studies could then be conducted to determine the rate of adoption of a new curriculum. This information may be helpful in determining future professional development seminars and possible curriculum changes in order that the curriculum will be most useful to instructors.

Strong leadership is required for successful change to occur (Bland et al., 2000). With this adoption process the leader must be prepared to provide a vision for a national organization. In addition, other factors within the adoption process are also necessary. Many studies found encouraging teachers to adopt a new curriculum can be a challenge for a number of reasons. For some instructors there is a period of delay from the time the curriculum is introduced to the instructors, to the time it is adopted (Connors & Elliot, 1994; Lowery, 2000; Rudd & Hillison, 1995; Wingenbach, Gartin, & Lawarence, 2000). This delay is natural and should be anticipated.

The adoption rate of many of these studies follows the Rogers (2003) model of adoption innovation. For adoption to occur teachers must see the relative advantage to using the curriculum, they must be able to observe the advantage of using the curriculum, and the curriculum must be compatible with their existing schedule, teaching style and environment. The complexity of the curriculum must be at a level that is challenging to the students, yet relatively simple for the instructor to utilize. Finally, the curriculum must have the ability to be used on a trial basis to determine if it has the ability to integrate with the existing teaching environment and teaching style of the individual teacher. Rogers (2003) defines five adopter categories based on the individual's stage of adopting an innovation.

- Innovators – Active seekers of new ideas, who adopt new ideas quickly, thought to be "on the cutting edge."
- Early Adopters – Individuals who have evaluated the innovation and are quick to adopt it once it meets their approval.

- Early Majority – Individuals that adopt new ideas after thorough evaluation and just prior to an "average" member of the group adopts an idea or innovation.
- Late Majority – Individuals that are skeptical about the innovation and must witness the success of others prior to adopting an idea or innovation themselves.
- Laggards – Individuals who are last to adopt an innovation.

While some instructors are slow to adopt the curriculum, others prefer to use only parts of the curriculum rather than the entire curriculum (Connors & Elliot, 1994; Rudd & Hillison, 1995; Wingenbach, Gartin, & Lawarence, 2000). For this reason the curriculum should be designed as 'bite-sized' pieces that it can be incorporated into existing instruction (Leat & Higgins, 2002). This also provides instructors the opportunity to use the curriculum on a trial basis. This provides a way for instructors to sample a piece of the curriculum without being forced into using the entire curriculum.

Similarly, instructors need to have the freedom to modify the curriculum to meet the needs of the school, community and constituent groups (Bland et al., 2000). This freedom provides ownership of the curriculum by the local instructor, which is essential, because they have the expertise to know what the students can handle and to know how curriculum can best be adapted for use locally (Kirk & MacDonald, 2001; Leat & Higgins, 2002).

Purpose and Objectives

Research has been conducted to determine the impact of co-curricular activities on youth leadership development (Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002; Seevers & Dormody, 1995; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach, 1995), and the amount of leadership being taught in agricultural science classrooms (Morgan & Rudd, 2005), but little research has been conducted to determine the curriculum materials used to teach leadership in high school agricultural science classrooms. The purpose of this study was to determine what types of curriculum were used by agricultural science instructors to teach leadership. The objectives were to determine if:

- Instructor-developed curriculum was being used for leadership instruction
- Commercially available curriculums were being used for leadership instruction
- Commercially available text books were being used for leadership instruction

This research was conducted prior to the national distribution of the National FFA Organization's *LifeKnowledge* curriculum.

Methods

This study was conducted using survey research and was part of a larger study. The population for this study was high school FFA chapter advisors at agricultural science programs during the 2003-2004 school year. FFA advisors in five states (Kansas, Maine, Nebraska, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania) where the *LifeKnowledge* curriculum had been pilot tested were not included in this study.

There are 7,193 FFA chapters throughout the nation (National FFA Organization, 2002). To achieve a 95% confidence level with 5% sampling error a sample size of 367 was needed for this study (Dillman, 2000). To account for inactive programs, incorrect addresses, etc., a sample size of 400 was used. A list of FFA chapters was provided by the National FFA for this study and the sample was selected using simple random selection (Agresti & Finlay, 1997).

An open-ended question was used to gather this information which asked, "Please tell us what leadership curriculum or text book you currently use." Responses to this question were sorted and grouped using the constant comparative method (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The data collection from the sample was conducted using a modified version of the Tailored Design Method (Dillman, 2000). Participants were mailed a pre-notice letter notifying them that they had been selected to participate in this study. Instructions were provided explaining how they could access the survey instrument from the World Wide Web. Four days later a paper instrument was mailed to the participants which included the IRB informed consent form. A thank you / reminder postcard was mailed ten days later. A second survey instrument was mailed ten days later to participants that had not yet responded. Eight days later phone calls were placed to participants that had not yet responded asking them to complete the questionnaire. An additional ten days were allowed for the collection of electronic and mailed responses. The final response rate was 41.8% (n=167).

Findings

Of the 167 participants, 135 responded to the open-ended curriculum question. Participant responses that included multiple curriculum materials were divided and each material listed was placed in an appropriate category (Table 1). .

The text *Leadership, Personal Development, and Career Success* from Del Mar was the most popular resource with 27 respondents stating they use this. The second most popular material was state provided curriculum (n=25). Within this group 11 participants used curriculum from the Instructional Materials Service (IMS) in Texas, four participants used materials from the Instructional Materials Lab (IML) in Missouri, two participants used materials from the Curriculum and Instructional materials Center (CIMC) in Oklahoma, and eight participants stated they used materials from other states.

Eighteen participants stated they used the Official FFA manual or FFA Student handbook to teach leadership. In addition, fifteen participants developed their own curriculum materials. These material included "handouts," "just notes," "personal experience," "articles," "state FFA officer materials," Washington Leadership Conference materials, and "various resources from college text books and Internet sources."

Parliamentary procedure materials were used by 12 participants as leadership curriculum. Nine participants used other agricultural science text books, with the most popular being *Agriscience: Fundamentals and Applications* by Delmar. A variety of miscellaneous books and materials were used by nine of the participants to teach leadership. These materials included Ziglar's *I Can* curriculum, CEV multimedia videos, *Success in the World of Work* software, *Character First*, *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, 7 *Habits of Highly Effective People*, *The Leadership Challenge*, *Developing the Leader within You*, and John Deere business curriculum. Three of the respondents stated they used the Interstate text *Developing Leadership and Personal Skills* to teach leadership.

Table 1

Leadership Curriculum Materials Used by Agricultural Science Instructors

Curriculum Material Used	*n*
Text: *Leadership, Personal Development, and Career Success*	27
State provided curriculum	25
FFA Manual or FFA Student Handbook	18
Instructor developed	15
Parliamentary procedure materials	12
Agricultural science textbooks	9

Miscellaneous leadership books	9
Text: *Developing Leadership and Personal Skills*	3

Finally, 11 participants stated that leadership was not taught in a specific course, but was taught throughout many courses within the agricultural science curriculum. Within this responses included:

- "Indiana has eleven approved agricultural courses. Leadership is not one of them. It is taught throughout all eleven courses"
- "Leadership is not formally taught from a text book. Rather, leadership, goal setting, and responsibility are taught as part of the science curriculum. Each student is given an agenda book in the beginning of the year. Lessons are given on goal setting, time management and prioritizing with assessment being part of the agenda book grad"
- "We teach agriculture leadership everyday in our agriculture program. We were able to get 70% of our students to get involved in an after school activity to show their leadership. We just received a new book to use on leadership, however I do not use a book at this time. I teach them from my own values"
- "No text is used – other than the 'Official FFA Manual'. Leadership skills & curriculum are included in, or <u>should be</u> included in <u>every</u> course we teach!"
- "I teach leadership development in all my courses. We spend a couple of weeks intensely and then it is integrated throughout the year. I use several resources: My personal experience as a past state officer. I also use Delmar's Leadership book, but I also refer several resources I have acquired from different seminars I have attended."
- "I implement leadership into my general agriscience course."
- "Integrated into a unit within each course taught; FFA student handbook, parliamentary procedure workbook; and *Bits and Pieces*"
- "I currently do some leadership activities with my 7th and 8th graders in their FFA unit - I do a leadership/conflict resolution unit with my freshman – Also, talk about leadership with my seniors in advanced ag & with all agribusiness/entrepreneurship class members."

Conclusions / Recommendations / Implications

It is apparent from this study that a wide variety of materials were being used to teach leadership in agricultural science classrooms. While *Leadership, Personal Development, and Career Success* from Del Mar was the most popular material being used by respondents in this study, there was not a curriculum material or text being used by the majority of the respondents. Similarly, state curriculums were popular, but were not used by a majority of instructors either.

Likewise, a variety of perspectives of leadership existed among the participants. Some instructors focused on the FFA manual as their source for leadership knowledge, while others focused on parliamentary procedure manuals. Still others used materials available from popular sources and some instructors relied on personal experience for teaching leadership.

While each of these curriculum materials has their strengths, it is evident there is a lack of consistency in what leadership knowledge base is being used for leadership instruction. In addition, there appears to be a lack of consistency in how instructors define leadership. Some instructors view leadership through the lenses of Kouzes and Posner's *The Leadership Challenge*, while others view it thorough the lenses of a general agriscience textbook, and others view it though the lenses of the state curriculum.

This study reveals two primary observations. First, there is a need for a common definition of leadership that all agricultural science instructors can share. Just as agricultural science instructors have a common definition for animal science or horticulture, there should be an accepted definition for leadership. Second, there is a need for a curriculum that all agricultural science instructors can access to use as a foundation for leadership instruction. Since the time this study was conducted the

National FFA Organization has helped to address both of these observations. The LifeKnowledge curriculum was developed to provide a common curriculum base which all agricultural science instructors can use. This curriculum was developed through a partnership with industry, university faculty and the National FFA Organization so that youth in classrooms across the country could have a solid base in leadership knowledge.

It is recommended that future research should be conducted to determine the adoption of the LifeKnowledge curriculum. In addition, research should be conducted to determine specifically how agricultural science instructors define leadership.

References

Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (1997). *Statistical methods for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bland, C. J., Starnaman, S., Wersal, L., Moorhead-Rosenburg, L., Zonia, S., & Henry, R. (2000). Curricular change in medical schools. *Academic Medicine, 75*, 575-594.

Boccia, J. A. (Ed.). (1997). *Students taking the lead*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1997). *Reframing organizations* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brannon, T., Holley, C. W., & Key, J. P. (1989). Impact of vocational agriculture/ffa on community leadership. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 30*(3), 37-45.

Butler, J. B. (1999). Global studies in Arkansas: An experiment in statewide curriculum reform. *International Journal of Social Reform, 14*(1), 93-110.

Carter, R. I., & Spotanski, D. R. (1989). Perceptions of leadership and personal development of selected high school students in Iowa. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 30*(4), 30-34.

Commonwealth of Virginia Board of Education. (2001). Linking leadership to instruction: A leadership development curriculum for Virginia public schools. Retrieved October 10, 2003, from www.pen.k12.va.us/VDOE/Instruction/leadership/index.html

Connors, J. J. (1999). Division report: Agricultural education. *Techniques (Association for Career and Technical Education), 74*(2), 54.

Connors, J. J., & Elliot, J. (1994). Teacher perceptions of agriscience and natural resources curriculum. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(4), 15-19.

Delmar Learning. (2003). Leadership: Personal development, career success. Retrieved October 2, 2003, from http://www.delmarlearning.com/samplechapters/sampchaps_index.aspx?disc=8

Dillman, D. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Doherty, K. M. (2004). Assessment. Retrieved June 26, 2004, from http://www.edweek.org/context/topics/issuespage.cfm?id=41

Esters, L. T. (2002). Leadership development in an urban program. *The Agricultural Education Magazine, 75,* 20-21.

FairTest.org. (2004). The dangerous consequences of high-stakes standardized testing. Retrieved June 26, 2004, from http://www.fairtest.org/facts/Dangerous%20Consequences.html

Figura, S. Z. (1999). Leadership void. *GovExec.com* Retrieved October 2, 2003, from http://www.govexec.com/features/0999/0999s1.htm.

Frontline. (2002). Testing. Teaching. Learning? Retrieved June 26, 2004, from http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/pages/frontline/shows/schools/testing/

Gardner, J. W. (1990). *On leadership*. New York: The Free Press.

Hillison, J., & Bryant, B. (2001). Agricultural societies as antecedents of the FFA. *Paper presented at the Southern Agricultural Educators Research Conference*, Fort Worth, TX.

Instructional Materials Service. (2003). Description of leadership and communications courses. Retrieved October 2, 2003, from http://www-ims.tamu.edu/index.aspx?page=123

Kirk, D., & MacDonald, D. (2001). Teacher voice and ownership of curriculum change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 33*(5), 551-567.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1997). *The leadership challenge* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leat, D., & Higgins, S. (2002). The role of powerful pedagogical strategies in curriculum development. *The Curriculum Journal, 13*(1), 71-85.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. New York: Sage.

Lowery, M. (2000). Math lessons: A case study in the adoption of an innovative math curriculum. *NASSP Bulletin, 86*(615), 61-73.

Morgan, A. C., & Rudd, R. D. (2005, May). Teaching leadership in agricultural science: Behavioral factors that influence secondary agricultural science leadership instruction. *Paper presented at the American Association for Agricultural Education National Research Conference*, San Antonio.

National FFA Organization. (2002). FFA key statistics. Retrieved December 2, 2002, from http://www.ffa.org/about_ffa/organization/html/ffa.html

National Research Council. (1988). *Understanding agriculture: New directions for education*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

North Carolina State University. (2003). Agricultural leadership curriculum. Retrieved October 2, 2003, from http://www.ces.ncsu.edu/plymouth/aee/agLdrshp1.html

Prentice Hall. (2003). Developing leadership and communication skills. Retrieved October 2, 2003, from http://www.phschool.com/catalog/cat_3.cfm?prog_id=8921&sub_id=16

Ricketts, J. (2003). *Critical thinking skills of selected youth leaders: The efficacy of leadership development, critical thinking dispositions, and student academic performance.* Unpublished Dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Ricketts, J. C., & Rudd, R. D. (2001). Developing leadership competence: A coherent curriculum framework for youth in agricultural education. *Journal of Southern Agricultural Education Research, 51*(1), Retrieved December 2, 2003, from http://aaaeonline.ifas.ufl.edu/Research%2020Conferences/Saerc/2001/Index.htm.

Ricketts, J. C., & Rudd, R. D. (2002). A comprehensive leadership education model to train, teach, and develop leadership in youth. *Journal of Career and Technical Education, 19*(1).

Ricketts, S. C., & Newcomb, L. H. (1984). Leadership and personal development abilities possessed by high school seniors who are members in superior and non-superior FFA chapters, and by seniors who were never enrolled in vocational agriculture. *Journal of the American Association of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, 25*(2), 51-59.

Rogers, E. M. (2003). *Diffusion of innovations* (5th ed.). New York: Simon and Schuster.

Rudd, R. D., & Hillison, J. H. (1995). Teacher characteristics related to the adoption of agriscience curriculum in Virginia middle school agricultural education programs. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 36*(2), 19-27.

Rutherford, T. A., Townsend, C. D., Briers, G. E., Cummins, R., & Conrad, C. R. (2002). Leadership self-perceptions of WLC participants. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 43*(2), 22-33.

School District of Washington. (2001). Leadership curriculum 2000. Retrieved March 1, 2006, from http://www.washington.k12.mo.us/Curriculum/leadership/CR095667.HTM

Seevers, B. S., & Dormody, T. J. (1995). Leadership life skills development: Perceptions of senior 4-h youth. *Journal of Extension, 33*(4).

Swan, E. T. (1996). Let's put more quality into TQM. *Contemporary Education, 67*, 97-98.

Townsend, C. D., & Carter, R. I. (1983). The relationship of participation in FFA activities and leadership, citizenship and cooperation. *Journal of the American Association of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, 24*(1), 20-25.

Virginia Division of Policy and Public Affairs. (2001). Board of education adopts optional leadership curriculum. Retrieved October 10, 2003, from http://www.pen.k12.va.us/VDOE/VA_Board/jun20sum.pdf

White, C. D. (1982). *Leadership developed through vocational student organizations.* Unpublished Dissertation, The Ohio State University.

Wingenbach, G. J. (1995). *Self-perceived youth leadership and life skills development among Iowa FFA members.* Unpublished Dissertation, Iowa State University.

Wingenbach, G. J., Gartin, S. A., & Lawarence, L. D. (2000). Assessing the aquaculture curriculum in the northeastern region. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 41*(2), 2-10.

Guiding Leaders of Tomorrow: Examining FFA Leadership with Member Focus Groups

Association of Leadership Educators 2006 Annual Conference Big Sky, Montana

Robin Peiter Horstmeier
Assistant Professor
University of KY
306 Garrigus Building
Lexington, KY 40546
rpeiter@uky.edu
Phone: 859/257-7287
FAX: 859-257-1164

UK
UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

Martha A. Nall, CFCS
Extension Professor
University of KY
712 Garrigus Building
Lexington, KY 40546
mnall@uky.edu
Phone: 859/257-7193
FAX: 859/323-8696

Introduction

Although the purposes of youth organizations vary and the context is different, they generally seek to provide events and experiences which help adolescents become contributing adults and leaders. *Understanding Youth Development: Promoting Positive Pathways of Growth* (1997), a report for the US Department of Health and Human Services, indicated research shows that when adolescents feel competent, connected, have a sense of control and a sense of identity they are more likely to exhibit positive developmental behaviors. Interactions identified as most productive in producing these outcomes include those that:

- provide recognition for their productivity,
- involve interactions with adults who monitor and supervise behaviors and activities,
- consistently involve caring adults who provide emotional support, encouragement, and practical advice, and
- create exchanges between adolescents and adults based on the acceptance of adolescents as individuals (US Dept. HHS, 1997).

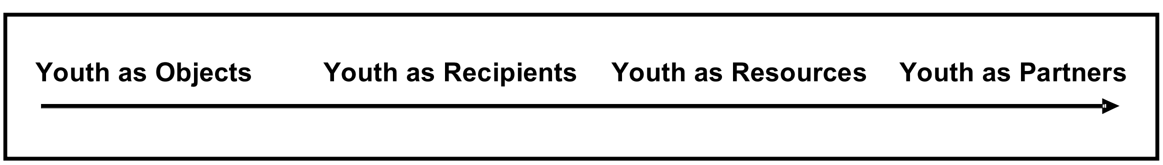
The National FFA Organization seeks to create opportunities for adolescents to engage in a variety of experiences, events and activities to develop leadership skills and provide interactions which lead to positive youth development. The LifeKnowledge curriculum has been designed to guide the activities and development of leadership skills. The advisor influences members and impacts the outcomes related to growth and development of the members. Although many leadership studies examining FFA have been studied, very little research has been conducted examining the youth-adult interactions and the context in which leadership behaviors are learned through FFA or other youth leadership organizations.

Literature Review

Role of Youth in Society

Lofquist (1989) developed a "spectrum of attitudes" that adults may hold regarding the role of young people in society. The continuum (See Figure 1.) represents attitudes where young people are viewed as "objects," (Do this because I know best), as "recipients," (Do this because it is good for you), and as "resources", (Do this because you can make a contribution). The Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development (2001) 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

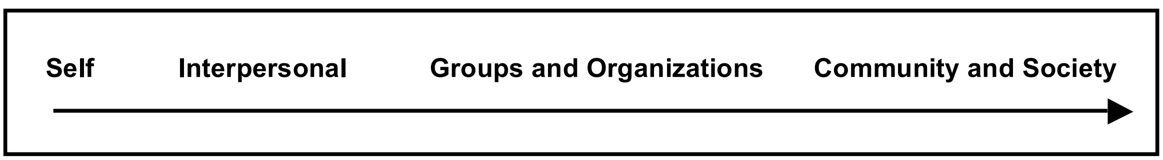


The view adults take toward young people tends to shape the nature of the leadership programs they design. In some programs, leadership is taught through formal routines that emphasize compliance. The leader is "in charge" and followers are objects to be directed. At other times, youth run activities designed by well-meaning adults gaining knowledge and skills for later life. Programs where young people are resources, promote growth in knowledge, skills and self-esteem. Sometimes youth are engaged as full partners with adults in making decisions and taking actions (Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp, 2005).

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 develop knowledge of themselves, who they are, what they believe, and how they function. Progressively they move to mastering skills for working with others, refining skills working with groups or organizations and finally focusing on leadership within the context of communities, systems, and society. As the arena in which leadership is being practiced continues to broaden, individuals use knowledge and skills learned at previous levels to be effective in the new context.

Figure 2. Context of Leadership Activity



Other leadership models focus on developing knowledge and skills first at the individual level, emphasizing that we must understand ourselves before we can contribute to a larger effort. These models combined interpersonal interactions and the ability to participate in and understand group development. The third level in this model focuses on community, recognizing that the ultimate goal of individual and group development is to serve the common good beyond the individual or organization.

Leadership Development in Agricultural Education

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

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

Peiter, Nall, & Rennekamp (2005) examined the role of youth and the context of FFA leadership activities. 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 (Peiter, Nall, & Rennekamp, 2005).

Methods

Purpose and Research Objectives

This study is designed to describe the leadership activities of rural FFA members, the role of youth-adult interactions in those activities and the context of the activity as it develops leadership skills. The objectives of this study include:

1) Describe the context in which leadership activities are performed.
2.) Describe the role of youth in those activities.
3) Describe the relationship between role of youth and the context in which leadership activities are performed.

Qualitative research methods were used to gain insight into the perceptions of FFA members, as recommended by Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). Perceptions examined included leadership skills developed through chapter activities and the role of members in those activities. The focus group method was used for framing the study. Focus groups were conducted according to established protocols (Kreuger & Casey, 2000; Rennekamp & Nall, 2003).

- Small groups of six to twelve members
- Possessing similarities in one or more ways
- Guided through a facilitated discussion
- Topic clearly defined
- Purpose to gather opinions from the group

The population included rural youth who were members of FFA. The participants were solicited from the respondents of the study conducted by Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). Of the 36 chapters in the 2005 study, twelve chapters agreed, which provided 11 different states representing all four National FFA regions represented. Prior to the 2005 National FFA Convention, chapters were sent a letter indicating details of the focus group procedure. Four sessions with three chapters per session were assigned a scheduled time to arrive at the convention site, each scheduled for one hour. However, six chapters with a total of 27 students participated in the focus group interviews conducted in October 2005.

To assure accuracy of data, a tape recorder was placed in the center of the table and two assistants were seated at opposite corners to take notes. Researcher bias can never be fully removed; however, an awareness of personal biases were acknowledged and checked with peer reviewers. The researchers acknowledges that their experience in leadership and agricultural education domain help to conceptualize the study, including interview selection questions and interpretation of the data.

The welcome and all questions used were scripted to ensure consistency between focus group sessions. Questions for each focus group began with students identifying their name, school and leadership roles in FFA and when they first joined FFA. Students reflected on their experiences and how their involvement has changed over the years. They also identified the influence of other members and advisor(s) in their experiences and activities in which they chose to participate.

Context of FFA member's leadership activities were also investigated through focus group interviews. Questions were structured to ask for activities within the context of developing themselves as a leader, skills in working with others, working with groups, and working in their community. Each context of leadership activity, self, others, groups and community, had a series of follow-up questions to encourage dialogue and identify the role of the youth-adult interaction.

Findings

Focus group participants included students ranging from second to sixth year FFA members. Similarly, involvement ranged from very little, never holding an office, to those who had held multiple offices and were very involved.

When asked who helped them get involved in the organization the responses generally indicated a familiarity with someone else in FFA. Respondents identified older students, a relative, i.e. brother, sister, cousin, or other "kids encouraged me to join". Older members and siblings played a strong role in getting new members involved. One student said, "I saw older members doing things and having fun." For one student it was a project that FFA conducted she wanted to be a part of. Interestingly, several responded that the advisor was a key. One student responded that "the advisor said it would be useful." Parents who had been members of FFA also influenced some to join. One student indicated participation because "I want to be a Soil Conservation Agent and figure it will help". A young lady responded, "There are not many girls in FFA and I thought it would be fun."

Context of Leadership Activities

Participants in the focus groups were asked to describe activities which helped development themselves as a leader. As a follow-up question they were asked to identify the leadership skills they developed through participating in these activities.

Self. Students described activities such as attending leadership conferences, meeting with other FFA chapters, serving as an officer, speaking to classes of younger students to inform them about FFA, participating in contests, and conducting service projects such as preparing food baskets at holidays.

Skills students developed from these activities included goal setting, communication skills and public speaking. They also identified developing self confidence, learning to think on your feet, getting out of your comfort zone, and feeling important as outcomes of participation in activities in FFA. One student said, "FFA makes you feel important and a part of something good."

Others. FFA activities also helped students developed interpersonal skills. Many of these activities involved fund raising experiences. Fruit sales, selling tickets, labor auctions and plant sales were mentioned. Other activities where FFA members developed interpersonal skills included weekly officer meetings, being a mentor, membership recruitment events, and being a role model.

By participating in these activities the students in the focus groups were able to describe what they had learned from these experiences. Being able to "talk to people" and feeling comfortable around people were two benefits identified. Other students identified learning "people skills" and dealing with interpersonal conflicts as a result of participating in FFA. Being a mentor and role model helps students recognize the influence they can have on others. One student said, "Young students are always looking up to you to see what you are doing as a leader. You have to always watch what you say and do." Committees of officers and members develop skills in communicating and listening. Students said they had learned to share ideas and respond to comments from others. Chapter activities seemed to have benefits beyond the goal of raising money or completing a project. "Being forced to socialize with others makes you more outgoing," said one participant.

Groups. FFA activities also helped members develop skills for working in groups. Students described chapter activities, nominating committees and projects which required multiple committees, organization, planning and working as a team to accomplish goals. In raising money to help hurricane victims, students from one chapter described with enthusiasm the "total student project." From involving other student organizations, to getting permission from administrators and conducting the activity, the students worked together and developed leadership skills for effective groups. Another chapter described a "Food for America Day," an activity conducted to help third grade students gain an appreciation for agriculture. This all-day event involved multiple activities, food, live animals, hay rides and preparation visits to all third grade classes attending from five towns. Students proudly described assuming the responsibility for all arrangements, successfully handling unexpected situations and working together to solve problems. Learning to work with others, planning for the unexpected, building trust, following through with commitments and communication were group skills developed from this activity.

Officer retreats with team building sessions helped students learn to work in groups. Participants said they learned to "work as a team not as individuals." One student said through working as a team they "learned that you don't have to talk to be a leader. Talking is not the only way to communicate." Another outcome of the team building activities was that individuals sometimes sacrifice personal gain for the good of the group.

Community. Students described FFA activities which helped them develop skills to work in a community. Many of the activities were community service projects. Adopt-a highway projects, landscaping schools and public buildings, helping with a golf tournament, collecting trees to mulch and protecting the land fill, decorating a public building for the holidays, and preparing food baskets at Thanksgiving are examples of community projects students in the focus groups identified. Projects were often repeated from one year to the next. However, some of the students described projects where they identified a need and planned and organized the chapter to complete the activity. One student described a project to clean up the charred wood from a local farmer's chicken house that had burned. A past chapter president helped provide a truck to haul the debris and the members did the work.

The students described much of their involvement with adults in the community via civic or community organizations. Several students indicated they were involved with local adult organizations such as Kiwanis, Rotary, or Farm Bureau. They were speakers at their meetings, invited them to serve as judges for contests or received financial support for chapter activities.

Several acknowledged the desire to be more involved with the community and vice versa. Engaging in broader community service activities and familiarizing the community with agriculture was shared as a goal by several focus group participants.

Role of Adults

The role of the advisor was a key to participating in activities after they joined. Several mentioned that the advisor let them know about activities and how they could participate. Encouragement from advisors to apply for offices was important to students too. One student said, the "advisor opened doors to students and let students go to different events." Another said the advisor "corrects mistakes but lets you know it's alright." Other responses to the role of the advisor included, "pretty awesome," "picks our brains and makes us think," "makes the experience fun," and "advisor is really good at pushing students to participate."

Because of their relationships with older students and their involvement in the chapter, students indicated they would be supportive of younger members. When asked if the way they were treated would influence how they treated new members there was a unanimous yes.

In the focus group sessions, students were asked to describe their involvement with advisors or other adults. Responses provided insight into the relationships between the adults and youth. The role of involvement ranged from youth as objects to youth as partners. This would be expected as the participants ranged in age from freshmen to seniors, their experience in FFA ranged from second year to sixth, and their leadership knowledge and skills also varied greatly.

Youth as objects. In some instances students indicated they participated because, "it was expected," "it would be useful," or as one student put it, the "advisor makes them go." The "advisors pushed students to get involved," also described an activity where students acknowledged the adult's role was very directive. The students seemed to see this as a positive, in that, without this form of encouragement they might not have participated. Initially many youth need direction and guidance to get involved and as they grow and mature the roles change.

Youth as recipients. Encouraging students to participate was a frequent comment from the FFA members. Advisors "encouraged" students to run for office and "encouraged" students to be active and get involved. Programs and activities were in place and students would benefit from involvement. Another student said the "advisors opened doors to students," indicating that they facilitated the students involvement. For an officer workshop the student said the advisor planned the event and told them what they would be learning. According to the student "attendance was optional but all wanted to attend."

Youth as resources. Several comments from the students indicated they felt their ideas were valued and they indicated numerous opportunities to conduct activities and be involved. "Advisors are there but students run," "students find judges," or "advisor gives ideas, gets the ball rolling, and officers choose activities and implement plans," were all phrases indicating the students were being seen as valuable resources in conducting FFA activities and events. In several situations students described the presence of an adult, the advisor, but emphasized they were the ones who made decisions and conducted activities.

Youth as partners. Not always seen in youth organizations, FFA members described situations where they felt they were true partners with the adults, even using that word. One chapter implemented a field day that was "organized by students and advisors – a partnership between the two." More frequently students described the relationship in terms of working together or sharing decision-making. In interviewing officer candidates the, "president and advisor ask questions." Another student described their nominating committee as a panel of "a graduating seniors, retiring officers, teacher and principal or parent."

Conclusions, Recommendations and Implications

The qualitative analysis of focus group interviews provided a forum for information gathering related the role and context of leadership activities among FFA members. The opportunity to clarify, question and probe for a clearer and more definitive description of the chapter activities and role of the adult-youth interactions substantiated the findings of Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). Admittedly, the limited number of participants and the inexperience of some, as well as, the varying degree of strength of the FFA Chapters they represented influenced the dialogue.

Youth participating in the focus group interviews provided less emphasis on youth as objects and more discussion of youth as resources and partners. More frequently youth described their roles as resources or partners. This emphasis was consistent with the findings of Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). They mentioned participation as recipients, programs were established and participation would prepare them for the future.

Responses from the focus group interviews support the findings by Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). Parallels existed when examining the roles of youth in leadership which indicated FFA members describe their role in leadership activities as Objects (M_{2005}=2.87), Recipients (M_{2005}=2.88), Resources (M_{2005}=2.97) and Partners (M_{2005}=2.99).

Participants could easily identify the personal benefits from participation in FFA activities. As the dialogue moved to community it was more difficult for FFA members to describe benefits. Qualitative responses for context of leadership activities did not reinforce the findings by Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). The original study with quantitative data reported means for Self (M_{2005}=3.01), Others (M_{2005}=2.92), Groups (M_{2005}=2.90), and Community (M_{2005}=2.88), with Community as the lowest. Student responses through the focus group interviews provided examples indicating leadership activities in each area. However, numerous activities focusing on community were identified; contradicting the quantitative data.

In describing the intersection of the role of youth and the context of leadership activities, the focus groups supported the survey findings of Peiter, Nall, and Rennekamp (2005). The context of leadership activities was the largest throughout the leadership context of developing self and within their role with adults as partners, resources and recipients.

The researchers recommend replication of study, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Future focus groups interviews stratified by age, years in FFA, and leadership responsibilities would provide additional insight into the developmental process and the growth as a result of FFA participation.

In addition, focus group interviews should be conducted with FFA advisors to gain the adult perspective of the role of FFA members and the context of activities. Comparisons of advisor and member perspectives could provide rich data for chapter member role and context of leadership activities.

Results from this study can assist leaders of the National FFA Organization to further explore current leadership roles and leadership activities. This has implications for not only members and advisors of the National FFA Organization, but other youth organizations as well. From this study, school based student leadership organizations such as DECA, FBLA, and FCCLA, etc.; as well as community based leadership youth organizations like 4-H, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts, etc., should examine what their members' role and the leadership activities offered in their organizations. When this occurs, all youth organizations will better guide leaders of tomorrow.

References

Ayres, J. (1987). *The Leadership Development Continuum.* Department of Agricultural Economics, West Lafayette, IN, Journal Paper 11, 813.

Bell, J. (1996). *A Key to Developing Positive Youth-Adult Relationships*. Humanics. Spring.

Brannon, T., Holley, C. W., & Key. J. P. (1989). Impact of Vocational Agriculture/FFA on Community Leadership. *Journal of Agricultural Education* 37-44.

Calvert, M., Zeldin, S., and Weisenbach, A. (2002.) *Youth Involvement for Community, Organizational, and Youth Development: Directions for Research, Evaluation, and Practice*. Takoma Park, MD: Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development.

Carter, R. I., & Spotanski, D. R. (1989). Perceptions of Leadership and Personal Development of Selected High School Students in Iowa. *Journal of Agricultural Education, (30),* 30-34.

Camino, L. (2001) CO-SAMM: A Tool to Assess Youth Leadership. *CYD (Community Youth Development) Journal, 3*(1).

Dormody, T. J., & Seevers, B. S. (1994). Predicting Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Among FFA Members in Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(2), 65-71.

Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development (2001). *Building Community*. Takoma Park, MD: Author.

Irby, M., et. al (2001). *Youth Action: Youth Contributing to Communities, Communities Supporting Youth*. Community and Youth Development Series, Vol. 6. Takoma Park, MD: The Forum for Youth Investment, International Youth Foundation.

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research.* 3rd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kurth-Schai, R. (1994). *Young People as Resources: The Challenge of Transforming Dreams into Reality.* New Designs for Youth Development. Fall.

Lofquist, W. (1989). *The Technology of Prevention*. Tucson, AZ: Associates for Youth Development.

National FFA Organization (2005). Online: http://www.ffa.org/about_ffa/index.html. Retrieved on November 18, 2005.

Peiter, R. L., Nall, M. A., & Rennekamp, R. (2005). *FFA Leadership: Do Activities Navigate Toward Full Potential?* Association of Leadership Educators: Published Proceedings, http://www.leadershipeducators.org/2005/peiter.pdf.

Rennekamp, R., & Nall, M. (2003). *Using Focus Groups in Program Development and Evaluation.* Lexington, KY: Cooperative Extension Service.

Scales, P., & Leffert, N. (1999). *Developmental assets: A synthesis of scientific research on adolescent development.* Minneapolis, MN: Search Institute.

Townsend, C. D., & Carter, R. I. (1983). The relationship of participation in FFA activities and leadership, citizenship, and cooperation. *The Journal of the American Association of Teachers Educators in Agriculture, 24(*1), 20-25.

Understanding Youth Development: Promoting Positive Pathways of Growth. (1997). CSR, Inc. Contracted by Family and Youth Services Bureau, Administration on Children Youth and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Wingenbach, G. J., & Kahler, A. A. (1997). Self-perceived youth leadership and life skills of Iowa FFA members. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 38*(3), 18-27.

Zeldin, S., McDaniel, A., Topitzes, D. & Calvert, M. (2000). *Youth in Decision-Making: A Study on the Impacts of Youth on Adults and Organizations*. Chevy Chase, MD: Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development, a Division of National 4-H Council.

Bryan Patterson
February 27, 2006

Association of Leadership Educators, Inc Call for Papers.

1. Bryan Patterson,
Career Counselor/ Life Skills Coordinator,
University of Florida Athletic Association, Inc.
P.O.Box 14485 Gainesville, FL 32604-2485
352-375-4683 ext 5871

2. Fostering student-athlete leadership through the Student Athlete Advisory Committee SAAC Leadership Retreat.

3. Presentation Track - Practice

4. This practice paper will discuss the mission of the SAAC Leadership Retreat for the student-athletes at the University of Florida. SAAC's purpose is to serve as a forum to openly discuss issues that may affect students on their campuses and in their communities, while providing opportunities which enhance personal leadership, communication, decision-making and problem-solving skills.

5. Bryan Patterson is currently a career counselor and CHAMPS/ Life Skills Coordinator for the University of Florida University Athletic Association. A native of Lynchburg Virginia, Bryan has been at UF for the past five years. In his current role, he coordinates the five developmental areas of the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills program and co-facilitates three undergraduate courses through the college of education that are geared toward career and personal development. Additionally, he advises the Student Athlete Advisory Committee and serves as an advisor to other student groups on campus.

Bryan has served as a NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills orientation team leader and servers as a volunteer mentor to new Life Skills coordinators. Prior to working at UF, Bryan was employed at James Madison University where he worked in career development and student activities. He has received his masters and undergraduate degrees from James Madison University in Harrisonburg, VA and an educational specialist degree in Special Education from the University of Florida. Currently, Bryan is completing a doctoral degree in Leadership from the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences in the dept of Agricultural Communication and Education at the University of Florida.

SAAC Leadership Retreat

Throughout the United States businesses and government organizations are finding it difficult to fill leadership positions because of a lack of trained leaders. It has been described as a leadership void (Bisoux, 2002; Burns, 1979; Figura, 1999). Industry leaders seek new employees who can lead quickly after they join an organization. College graduates who can exhibit leadership and life skills early and often as a new professional will be hired and advance quickly in their career. Employers want and value competence in communication, adaptability, problem-identification and solving, self-management, teamwork and leadership skills (Spille, 1994).

A goal of higher education is to prepare graduates for real world leadership experiences, yet few courses are offered to assist students in developing many of these leadership skills. In efforts to address this apparent need for leadership, the University of Florida Student-Athletic Advisory Committee (SAAC) Leadership retreat was created to assist in this development. The purpose of this leadership retreat was to explore the various behavioral factors that influence student-athletes use and development of leadership skills within their respective teams and fellow student-athletes.

As a result of participation in this leadership retreat, each student-athlete will have a better understanding and apply a basic leadership model. Student-athletes will become more self-aware of leadership strengths and opportunities. They will build a network with other student-athletes and become a confident agent of change. Student-athletes will be prepared to complete a self-directed project that will address a critical campus issue. Finally a student-athlete will make the commitment to sharing this experience with other student athletes, coaches, advisors, and other collegiate students.

In an effort to strengthen leadership instruction and practices in collegiate athletics, the National Collegiate-Athletic Association (NCAA) has developed various educational programs under the CHAMPS/ Life Skills program. Specific programs such as the national and regional leadership conferences have recently came together to develop another leadership opportunity for student-athletes to strengthen their academic and athletic experience.

The national leadership conference is an outreach of the successful CHAMPS/Life Skills Program and involves close to 325 student-athletes each year who compete in fall, winter and spring sports in Divisions I, II and III. Many of the student-athletes who participate are members of their conference and campus Student-Athlete Advisory Committees (SAACs). Each NCAA member institution that has a CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is encouraged to nominate student-athletes from their campus for the annual leadership conference.

In turn, the University of Florida Athletic Association's Office of Student Life provides student-athletes with the foundation to make a transition from college life to the professional world. Leadership is fostered through the Student-Athlete Advisory Committee. This organization is comprised of student-athletes from all participating varsity sports. The purpose of SAAC is to serve as forum to openly discuss issues that may affect them on their campuses and in their communities, while also providing them with the opportunity to enhance their leadership, communication, decision-making and problem-solving skills. UF's SAAC leadership conference also promotes better communication among student-athletes, coaches, administrators, faculty and communities.

By determining the factors that influence leadership in college student-athletes, administrators can put into practice personal leadership strategies. Pre-service programs could be tailored to motivate future student-athletes to enhance their personal leadership skills. Students could benefit by receiving high quality leadership instruction in college and university leadership programs that have the potential to broaden their leadership skills, increase their personal growth and enhance their career success.

How it works

The SAAC Leadership Retreat requires a highly motivated group of student-athletes. At least two representatives from each varsity team are selected by their coaches to attend this leadership retreat. The student athletes will prepare in a full day of leadership training and activities. The goal is to empower participants and other athletes to take ownership in the SAAC organization, the OSL, UAA, and the University of Florida community. The student-athletes will gain a full understanding of what SAAC is and what its purpose is on the UF campus. Student-athletes will also discover that they are positioned to be visible and vocal leaders. Therefore, they can use their leadership and teach others. A sample agenda of activities are included see ex. A.

Ex. A

SOCIAL CHANGE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Energizer: Upside-down fruit basket, Zip-Zap-Zoom, Age/hometown lineup

Welcome

Getting into groups – Boundary breaking exercise

Expectations of the retreat

Leadership Module 1: **INDIVIDUAL – What makes you tick?**

- Define leadership – What is leadership?
    - Helen S. Astin and Carole Leland – "leadership is **a process** by which **members of a group** are **empowered** to **work together synergistically** toward a **common goal or vision** that will **create change**, **transform institutions**, and thus **improve the quality of life**"
- Roles of a leader – You are a leaders both on and off the field. **Who are you when nobody is looking?**
- A leader must have values!
    - The six pillars of character
        - Trustworthiness, Respect, Responsibilities, Fairness, Caring, Citizenship
    - What are some of your values?

        - Small group breakout – Values Exercise

SAAC Module 1: Challenge the Process

- Define the purpose of SAAC at UF
- Expectations of the organization
- Who are the key players in SAAC?

Snack and break

Titanic

Leadership Module 2: **GROUP – Coach K's fist concept**

- The concept of TEAM – "Coming together is a beginning. Keeping together is progress. Working together is success." – Henry Ford
    - Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing, Adjourning
- Communication and groupthink
    - Communication activity
        - Blindfolded alphabet
    - Defining groupthink
- Delegating – Creating a sense of ownership
    - Analyze the Task
    - Select the Delegates
    - Discuss the Task with the Delegate
    - Coach the Delegate
    - Follow-up
    - After Delegating

SAAC Module 2: Inspiring a Shared Vision

- What resources do you have as SAAC members?
- Expectations of the E-board and members
    - Fishbowl
        - E-board expectation of the e-board
        - Members expectations of the e-board
        - E-board expectations of the members
        - Members expectations of the members

Leadership Module 3: **COMMUNITY**

- Diversity, beyond skin color
    - What is diversity – Is UF a diverse campus?
    - Archie Bunker's Neighborhood
- Being an inclusive organization

SAAC Module 3: Enabling Others to Act

- Programming
    - What do you want to do/change?
    - Who do you want to target?

Snack and break

FISH! Philosophy – Watch video

- Choose your attitude
- Play
- Make their day
- Be present

Leadership Module 4:

- Time management
    - Big rocks, little rocks
- Setting goals and **making action plans**
    - SMART planning and the problem solving process

SAAC Module 4: Modeling the Way

- Plan the semester
    - Prepare a calendar

FINAL DESTINATION: Encouraging the Heart

- Tie it all together
- Feeling it emotionally

Results to date/ Implications

As a result of the leadership workshop, the UF SAAC group has made tremendous progress in becoming a stronger organization. The overall student-athlete attendance has increased over the fall semester and there is student-athlete representation from each of the 18 variety sports. Poor attendance and representation from each team has been a challenge in the past. Increased participation has increased productivity of the group and broadened the scope of its goals. SAAC has participated in numerous service events, including participating in a university wide Hurricane Katrina Relief activity. SAAC has also held its own Student-Athlete field day, where local elementary school aged kids were invited to come and play games on campus with the student athletes.

The SAAC executive committee holds their own planning meeting prior to the general body meetings. These meetings have helped maximize the productivity of the group and provide strong leadership. Overall, the development and organization of the SAAC is fulfilling its purpose and has become a model for the future.

Conclusions/Recommendations

In reviewing the mission and purpose of SAAC, this leadership retreat has created a strong organization, but also had some other positive outcomes. Student-athletes have been equipped with the tools to build a long-lasting network of future leaders and become confident agents of change. They have also been able to identify issues that are critical to student-athletes and their fellow students on campus. Through

SAAC, student-athletes have completed a self-directed project and taken steps to address a critical issue facing the campus.

The recommendations for the future are to continue to conduct the SAAC student-athlete leadership retreat. The individual potential benefits for student-athletes, as well as, the organizational benefits are numerous. Minor adjustment to times and curriculum will be considered to maximize the effectiveness of the program. Additional training and workshops will be conducted throughout the year as enrichment for the concepts and training.

References

Bisoux, T. (2002, September). The mind of a leader. *BizEd,* 26-31.

Burns, J. M. (1979). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Figura, S. Z. (1999, September). Leadership void. *Government Executive*. Retrieved October 2, 2003 from www.govexec.com/news/index.cfm?mode=report&articleid=16021

National Collegiate Athletic Association NCAA (2005). www.ncaa.org/education

Spotauski, D. R., & Carter, R. I. (1993). Self evaluation of leadership practices and behaviors used by department executive officers in agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 34*(3), 17-25.

University Athletic Association, Office of Student Life. www.Gatorzone.com

Van Linden, J. A., & Fertman, C. I. (1998). *Youth leadership: A guide to understanding leadership development in adolescents*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Using Backwards Design to Develop An Online Organizational Leadership Course

Association of Leadership Educators
2006 Annual Conference
July 10-12, 2006
Bozeman, MT

Adrian B. Popa
Assistant Professor
Gonzaga University
502 E. Boone Ave.
Spokane WA, 99258-2616
popa@gonzaga.edu

Presentation Track: Practice

The purpose of this paper is to describe the development process of an online organizational ethics course using a backwards design model, provide rationale and efficacy of this approach, and illustrate course curriculum output. Course competencies were divided into strategic, procedural and factual knowledge that integrate leadership and applied ethics.

Adrian B. Popa, Ph.D., M.P.A. is an Assistant Professor at Gonzaga University in the Master of Organizational Leadership Program. Adrian teaches both on-campus and online organizational research methods and organizational leadership ethics. His leadership practice experience is grounded in health care and public leadership. Research interests include public and not-for-profit leadership, job attitudes, online education, and program evaluation.

Using Backwards Design to Develop an Online Organizational Leadership Course

Introduction

Various authors in leadership studies have expressed that leadership and ethics are inseparable constructs (Ciulla, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Trevino, Hartman & Brown, 2000). A comprehensive longitudinal study by Kouzes and Posner found that honesty was a variable frequently identified by constituents as the most admirable value, trait, or characteristic in leadership. Trevino, Hartman, and Brown explored the reputation of leaders and found that it is not enough to be an ethical person, but also to be perceived as an ethical leader. Leaders were seen as a critical thread to defining and weaving principles and standards within the moral fabric of the organization.

Although ethical leadership has been identified as a need in organizations, Ciulla (1995) found though a meta-analysis of 1800 article abstract that only a limited number of articles provided an in-depth exploration or discussion of ethics and leadership. Articles discussing ethics and leadership appeared fragmented in their focus on honesty, integrity, and morality of leadership. This extensive review led to an unveiling that research and teaching leadership ethics should not only focus on developing more ethical leaders, but also at re-conceptualizing what and how we think about ethical theory and leadership practice. The goal of this project was to integrate ethics into leadership education, not as a mere appendage, but as a deeply embedded and practical construct in the study of leadership. In effort to highlight ethics as a critical and applied leadership practice, a backward course design model was implemented to more efficaciously target the desired competencies gained in the course.

Background

The leadership ethics curriculum was developed using a "backward design" model developed by Wiggins and McTighe (2001). The curriculum was not conceptualized around a favorite or traditional ethics textbook, set of readings, or specific instructional methods to influence or elevate learning to a certain standard. The curriculum was developed with the end or desired result in mind. The end result is monitored by a set of evidence measures. Results will be mediated by standards and teaching needed to equip students to execute desired results or objectives.

Wiggins and McTighe (2001) also call this backward design planned coaching as it requires various lessons and practices needed to master key performances. The design requires operationalization of goals in terms of assessment evidence. Evidence of learning clarifies the direction of the teaching and learning target for the student. The authors found that increased clarity among desired results, key performances, teaching, and learning experiences leads to better student performance – the ultimate purpose of the design

The course is eight weeks long and divided into two-week module sessions. Every module focuses on a competency theme with required evidence of mastery (see Table 1). Competencies are developed through a video and book series that require weekly in-depth reflection, contemplation, and online discussion. The modules incorporate factual and reflective readings that lead to evidence of mastery conveyed in online discussion postings, responses, and module critical reflection papers. Modules have specific grading rubrics to evaluate evidence of mastery in online discussions and reflection papers.

Table 1. Module Themes

MODULE ONE: Introspective reflection on worldviews and responses to ethical dilemmas
MODULE TWO: Identifying personal values and appreciating diversity
MODULE THREE: Developing community and discovering a common ground
MODULE FOUR: Morality in the organizational setting and solving ethical dilemmas

How it works/Results to date

First Stage

Backward design is a four-stage process. The first stage is to first identify course competencies. Course competencies were divided into strategic, procedural, and factual knowledge (see Table 2). Strategic knowledge represents complex thinking strategies and processes that students will develop in the course. Procedural knowledge encompasses the procedures, techniques or methods that students will learn to use in the course. Factual knowledge includes facts, details, concepts, and terminology that students will learn throughout the course.

Table 2. Levels of Knowledge

STRATEGIC
- Develop a strategy to identify and describe their worldview and appreciate diversity
- Develop a strategy to balance personal virtues with organizational values
- Develop a strategy to create a cooperative community with shared values
- Develop a strategy to analyze ethical dilemmas and recommend a course of action
PROCEDURAL
- How to define personal virtues
- How to balance personal virtues with organizational values
- How to create a cooperative community with shared values
- How to analyze ethical dilemmas
FACTUAL
- An understanding of traditional philosophical ethics
- An understanding of organizational ethics
- An understanding of personal morals and virtues
- An understanding of ethical-decision making model
- An understanding of modern ethical dilemmas in organizations

Second Stage

The second stage in the design is to develop evidence of student mastery while taking in consideration the identified competencies of the course. Evidence represents student thinking or behavior that indicate student mastery of the strategic knowledge competencies in the course. Students will be required to generate questions and gather information on their responses to ethical problems and construct a matrix to describe responses to ethical problems. The course will require students to identify their personal virtues and explain methods to balance them with organizational values. Upon completion of the course students will be able to explain methods or practices from professional experience proven to be successful in developing cooperative community. Lastly, student will be able to generate questions and gather information on substantive content related to ethical misalignments in order to compare substantive content to the vision and mission of the organization and stakeholder values. This will in turn lead to the ability to proceed and talk through ethical decision-making steps and recommend a course of action (Cooper, 1998.

Third Stage

The third stage requires instructors to reflect on the primary differences between the way an expert, graduate of this course, and a novice in this discipline think and respond to complex problems. The main method of assessing students will be through informal blackboard discussions and formal writing assignments. Blackboard discussions are guided by case method. Students are required to transfer factual knowledge to analysis of cases and discussions. In addition, students are also required to develop personal cases that reflect ethical problems or dilemmas from their work setting and write critical reflection papers. The final assignment will require students to identify an ethical problem from work and implement and ethical decision-making model. The goal of the final assignment is to simulate current and postmodern ethical problems encountered in leadership and organizations, apply the decision-making model, and recommend a course of action. Students will find they are combining "real-world" scenarios with varying ethics theories, and implementing course content from previous modules to develop well-grounded and rigorous recommendations.

Fourth Stage

The final stage of backward design requires the instructor to conceptualize methods of teaching identified competencies. The pedagogical methods used to teach competencies reflect an electronic Cognitive Apprenticeship Framework developed by Bonk and Wang (1999). The goal of this framework is to develop an environment to support teaching of case-based learning through the online platform. Electronic apprenticeship generates a collaborative learning environment that mediates exchange of information, dialogue, and collaboration. This pedagogy allows for dissemination, application, and transfer of knowledge without in spite of geographic limitations.

Table 3. Cognitive Apprenticeship Framework

- **Modeling**
- **Coaching**
- **Scaffolding**
- **Fading**
- **Reflection**
- **Articulation**
- **Exploration**

Conclusions/Recommendations

This course responds to the need of leadership ethics education identified in literature by directly addressing competencies needed in the field. This leadership ethics course provides opportunities for students to learn to identify and describe their worldview and how their background molded their personal and professional character. Students will introspectively analyze and increase awareness of responses to ethical problems and develop appreciation for the diverse values of constituents. Students will depart from this course having gained leadership competencies deeply grounded in applied ethics.

REFERENCES

Bonk, C. J. & Wang (1999). A design framework for electronic cognitive apprenticeship. Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks 5(2) http://www.aln.org/publications/jaln/v5n2/v5n2_wang.asp or http://www.aln.org/publications/jaln/v5n2/index.asp

Ciulla, J. B. (1995). Leadership ethics: Mapping the territory. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 5(1)*, 5-28.

Cooper, T. L. (1998). *The responsible administrator*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (2002). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (2003). *Credibility: How leaders gain and lose it and why people demand it*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Trevino, L. K., Hartman, L. P., & Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review, 42(2)*, 128-142

Wiggins G. (2001). Understanding by design. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Association of Leadership Educators
July 10-12, 2006
Bozeman, Montana

PRESENTATION PROPOSAL

1. Catherine M. Rasmussen, Regional Extension Educator and Associate Professor
University of Minnesota Extension Service
Regional Center Hutchinson
980 Second Avenue SE
Hutchinson, MN 55350

Rasmu035@umn.edu
Phone 320-234-0437
Fax 320-234-0444

2. Title of Presentation: Bridging the Leadership Gap Among Rural Communities

3. Presentation Track: Practice

4. Description:
Would your community benefit if leaders and citizens came together in non-partisan settings to build a collective agenda? Do you work in rural areas that are losing legislative influence? Do you hear grumbling about lack of communication amongst community leaders, and do you want to do something about it? This workshop will enable you to learn how to get started building support for a bridging leadership program, position yourself and your organization as a key organizer of the effort, develop a board of directors, and plan quality educational experiences for elected officials and community leaders. A power point presentation and accompanying discussion and fact sheets will help you replicate this highly visible, publicly valued program in your area.

5. Biographical Profile
Catherine Rasmussen is a Regional Extension Educator and Associate Professor with the University of Minnesota Extension Service. She has over 25 years of teaching experience from her previous work in secondary education and her current work in the area of leadership and civic engagement. She has worked with appointed and elected officials, state and federal agencies, non-profit organizations, and community groups in developing new skills for working together. Her passion in developing working relationships among communities resulted in creating a customized countywide leadership program which has received statewide recognition. Besides her work with local boards and community groups, Catherine has been a presenter/trainer for state conferences and leadership development programs.

Bridging the Leadership Gap Among Rural Communities

Introduction
Our communities are in a changing world. Globalization, changing demographics, speed and dissemination of information technology, and economic restructuring are impacting the communities in which we live. No longer can we think of our "community" as only the town or village in which we live. We also belong to a larger community – the community formed by all the residents of a county or geographical region. In today's world we are a neighborhood of communities linked together by many common challenges and opportunities.

But small rural communities are deeply rooted in their own identity and continue to nurture a history of competition. How does one convince the leaders and the residents of these neighboring communities that they need to work together if they are to survive in this new world?

The workshop will share the successful development of a countywide leadership program to address the gap in rural communities, including:
1) Gap among the current leaders in the communities to communicate and work together
2) Gap in emerging leaders within communities to step up to the plate

Background
Recognizing the need for more working relationships among the leaders of Brown County, the idea of a "bridging" program was envisioned by a small group of six citizens who came together in the spring of 1999. Under the leadership of Catherine Rasmussen, Regional Extension Educator, the idea was developed into an innovative community leadership program called Bridging Brown County.

Today, over 700 people have been involved by participating in Bridging Brown County sponsored activities including:
- Monthly meetings of community representatives
- Annual workshops for county citizens and community leaders around current issues
- Quarterly forums for elected and appointed Officials
- Countywide leadership program
- Marketing activities and trainings for local producers and businesses
- Networking opportunities

How It Works
Bridging Brown County is more than a leadership program. It is an intergenerational effort committed to creating active citizen leaders who will help build a stronger county community. Bridging Brown County builds the capacity of communities to effectively connect people and resources. It is a catalyst and a framework that supports everyone engaged in community development.

Bridging Brown County brings together representatives of private and public organizations, businesses, education, media and retired citizens from communities across the county. Appointed and elected officials from the county, cities, school districts and townships are involved as well as local legislators.

What makes this program different from typical leadership programs is that many community leadership programs select classes who begin and end the program. While in the leadership trenches, they are expected to recall what they learned. Bridging Brown County is an ongoing learning experience for those currently providing leadership with timely information and resources for real issues.

Secondly, leadership programs often target only emerging leaders, thinking that elected and appointed leaders are too busy to come to any more meetings. But, if properly designed and implemented, a bridging program can be THE information source, the networking place TO BE, and a resource to assist leaders in decision-making on key issues.

Bridging Brown County was developed as one of the U-Lead programs of the Leadership and Civic Engagement Area, Community Vitality and Development Unit, University of Minnesota Extension Service, in partnership with the Hubert H. Humphrey Institue of Public Affairs. U-Lead programs draw directly on 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).

The main program tool used was the *U-Lead Program Development and Management Guide*, co-authored by the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs and the University of Minnesota Extension Service, 2004. This resource provides program design and development templates, evaluation templates, needs/interest assessment tools, curriculum development, etc.

Results to Date
Three methods of evaluation were used to measure outcomes of the Bridging Brown County U-Lead Program. These methods included: 1) Written evaluations completed by workshop participants, 2) Telephone interviews with elected leaders participating in the Brown County Congress of Elected and Appointed Officials, and 3) The *Community Leadership Program Survey*, by Dr. Kenneth Pigg, University of Missouri, completed by individuals who had been active in the program for two years.

1) Workshop Evaluations

Evaluations were completed following the three workshops held from 2001-2004. A total of 195 participants attended the workshops. Evaluation survey results indicated:

- 85% strongly agreed or agreed that the workshop provided knowledge that is useful and relevant
- 89% strongly agreed or agreed that the round table discussion were beneficial in identifying and addressing community issues
- 83% strongly agreed or agreed that the workshop met their expectations for the goals that were stated

Workshop participants were asked, "What did you think was must useful/helpful about the workshop?" Outcomes most often mentioned included: Networking and creating new partnerships in the community, greater insight into the county and issue presented, learning resources available, and understanding of the need to work together on issues.

2) Interviews

Telephone interviews were conducted to determine the impact of the Brown County Congress of Elected and Appointed Officials. The selection criteria was those elected leaders who had been attending the quarterly forums on a regular basis. The sample was comprised of two to three individuals from each of the represented entities (county, cities, schools, townships and legislators.). The purpose of the interviews was to determine what value, if any, they found in attending the congresses. Twelve interviews in all were conducted for a sample of 36%.

All respondents felt that the quarterly forums were of great value. Comments by those interviewed indicated that the county congresses had increased in their knowledge about the interconnectedness of communities.
"We're developing a deeper understanding and empathy for the needs of other organizations and finding where we can partner together." (School Superintendent)

"We get to know each other better, and this helps us be more effective in bringing in new business or promoting tourism. Everyone seems to benefit." (County Commissioner)

Elected leaders also reported that their participation in the quarterly forums had helped them identify ways to strategically build relationships and involve other key individuals and groups to create opportunities and/or tackle an issue.
"Bridging Brown County has broken down barriers and taken away some of the competitiveness among communities. It also helps representatives of the various government units better understand each other's spending needs and financial challenges." (City Council President)

"Decisions need to work well for the entire county. The more people you can contact and feel comfortable contacting when you deal with one of those weighty issues, the better it works. I now feel more comfortable contacting people on the other side of the county and asking what they think about an issue." (County Commissioner)

"The federal people also need to hear our concerns because we're losing so much representation at the state level." (Township Association Officer)

3) <u>Community Leadership Program Survey</u>

The *Community Leadership Survey* by Dr. Kenneth Pigg, University of Missouri 2001, was used to conduct an analysis of the outcomes and impacts by participants in the program from 2001-2004. The evaluation design asked participants in the program to rate their pre-and post- levels of achievement of a set of seventy specific outcomes. The resulting difference between these scores was interpreted to be the outcome of the program, with those items that had a change of at least 0.5 level being statistically significant.

A research team from the Center for Small Towns objectively analyzed the survey results. The report showed sixteen outcomes with a greater than 0.5 change:

Outcome	Mean
Know steps needed to obtain broad-based support	0.842
Understand the importance of building agreement	0.722
Have knowledge of local, county, and state resources	0.684
Felt that I have a good understanding of public issues	0.667
Sense of mission	0.632
Understand how new ideas are adopted	0.632
Consider myself to be well qualified for public issues	0.579
Regard change as a source of vitality	0.579
Move out of my comfort zone and learn to grow	0.579
Aim to improve consensus-building skills	0.556
Articulate convincing vision of future of community	0.526
Seek out different perspectives	0.526
Use my leadership skills in different situations	0.526
Improve my public speaking skills	0.500
Know how to assess and tackle problems	0.500
Have a strong sense of community ownership	0.500

Another outcome the survey indicated was that participants experienced an increase in civic engagement and leadership roles.

- 44% took on an active role in at least one new organization
- 15% increase in leadership positions held in communities

– A total of 95 active and leadership positions were held in community organizations after the program

Specific examples of outcome impacts that have occurred as a result of Bridging Brown County include:

- City managers meet monthly to dialogue on common issues
- City EDA directors collaborated on a JOBZ application for the county
- County board has voted in support of community specific projects (a city bike trail, use of the county dredge for a city lake)
- Development of countywide tourism projects
- Continuing to fund the Bridging Brown County program despite a tight county budget

Conclusions and Future Implications

The evaluation results from all three instruments indicate that Bridging Brown County has impacted participants' thinking and attitude. Outcomes indicated are increased knowledge of countywide issues, positive attitude towards the other communities, and increased understanding that they belong to a larger county community. Although it is too premature to predict the future impacts within communities, the especially high scores on the group's values of civic engagement and shared future/purpose indicate the potential for increased public participation.

References

Bryson, John M. and Barbara Crosby, Leadership for the Common Good: Tackling Public Problems in a Shared-Power World (Jossey Bass Public Administration Series), 1992. Second edition, 2004.

Pigg, Kenneth, EXCEL: Experience in Community Enterprise and Leadership, Columbia, MO: University Outreach and Extension, University of Missouri, June 2001.

Terry, Robert, Authentic Leadership: Courage in Action published by Jossey Bass, San Francisco. CA, 1993

Terry, Robert, Seven Zones For Leadership: Acting Authentically in Stability and Chaos published by Davies-Black, Palo Alto, CA, 2001.

U-Lead Program Development and Management Guide*,* co-authored by the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs and the University of Minnesota Extension Service, 2004.

1) John C. Ricketts, Assistant Professor and Coordinator of Agricultural Teacher Education, University of Georgia, 110 Four Towers, Athens, GA 30602, jcr@uga.edu, 706-542-8646

2) Student Leadership Practices of [state] FFA Members

3) Research

4) The purpose of this study was to assess the leadership practices of FFA members participating in a leadership development workshop known as the *Success Conference* in [state]. Although participants' most frequent leadership behaviors were *encouraging the heart* and *enabling others to act,* scores were lower than comparative normative data.

5) John is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication (ALEC) at the University of Georgia. He teaches and advises Agricultural Education and Master of Agricultural Leadership students. As a former high school teacher and football coach, he is most interested in research related to student achievement in school age youth. John feels that leadership development is a key variable in that achievement. John received his BS in Agricultural Education and MS in Vocational-Technical Education from Middle Tennessee State University, and he received his PhD in Agricultural Education and Communication from the University of Florida.

6) See next page.

Introduction and Literature Review

Former President John F. Kennedy once stated, “Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other.” This rings true in State FFA Associations as agricultural educators seek to teach leadership via the vehicle of the FFA Leadership Development Events. In fact “the development of agricultural leadership skills has been one of the primary aims of the National FFA Organization since its inception in 1928” (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997, p. 18). Preparing young people with the leadership skills that future employers seek could also be viewed as agricultural education’s greatest task. This study seeks to determine if leadership is actually a part of an active FFA member’s life.

Many competent agricultural education researchers have reported that leadership is learned in and through the FFA (Ricketts, 1982; Ricketts & Rudd, 2004; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Brannon, Holley, & Key, 1989; Dormody & Seevers, 1994). Townsend and Carter (1983) found FFA activity participation was positively correlated with the leadership of 12th grade agricultural education students (pp. 20-25). Similarly, Ricketts (1982) gathered research from 12th grade male students and found that FFA members from both superior and non-superior FFA chapters possessed significantly more leadership and personal development abilities than students not associated with agricultural education. Furthermore, in an attempt to predict Youth Leadership Life Skill Development, Dormody and Seevers (1994) found a weak, but positive relationship between participation in the FFA and students’ Youth Leadership Life Skills Development. Also, Ricketts and Rudd (2004) determined that agricultural education and the FFA were the most influential constructs for leadership development.

As encouraging as many of these studies are for leadership educators, there seems to be limited clarity about what it means to have developed one’s leadership skills and/or abilities. Stogdill (1974) summarized this lack of clarity by stating that, "there are almost as many definitions of leadership development as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 259). Stogdill also surmised that leadership was defined as: personality or effectiveness of personality, the art of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, a function of a set of acts or behavior, a form of persuasion, a set of acts or behavior, a power of relationship, an instrument of goal achievement, an effective interaction, a differentiated role, and the initiation of structure.

Many of Stogdill’s descriptors of leadership are inherent in Kouzes and Posners’ (1995) theory of leadership. According to Kouzes and Posner leaders are those who challenge people, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, set a good example, and encourage others to succeed. This study utilizes Kouzes’ and Posner’s (1998) *Student Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) to describe the leadership practices of [state] FFA members participating in the “Success Conference,” which was a leadership workshop sponsored by the [state] FFA Association.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study begins with the leadership practices research of Kouzes and Posner (1995). After 20 years of research with more than 60,000 respondents, Kouzes and Posner established five leadership practices that are omnipresent in the leaders they observed. As mentioned above, those leadership practices are *challenging the process, enabling others to act, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging the heart*, and *modeling the way*.

Challenging the process is about searching out challenging opportunities to change, grow, innovate, and improve. It is also about experimenting, taking risks, and learning from accompanying mistakes. *Inspiring a shared vision* is about envisioning an uplifting and ennobling future as a leader, and enlisting others in a common vision by appealing to their values, interests, hopes, and dreams. *Enabling others to act* is a leadership practice, which fosters collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust. This practice is also about strengthening people by giving power away, providing choice, developing competence, assigning critical tasks, and offering visible support. *Modeling the way* as a leader involves setting the example by behaving in ways that are consistent with shared values. A leader who models the way loves to achieve small wins that promote consistent progress and build commitment from followers. *Encouraging the heart* is a leadership practice that recognizes individual contributions to the success of every project. A leader who encourages the heart celebrates team accomplishments regularly (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 18).

According to Kouzes and Posner (1997), leadership practices are measured behaviors, not measures of IQ, personality type, or management skills (p. 5). Although a succinct conceptualization of what set of leadership behaviors are the “right” behaviors the LPI consistently shows that “The more frequently you demonstrate the behaviors included in the LPI, the more likely you will be seen as an effective leader” (p. 6). Specifically, participants who regularly exhibit LPI behaviors are seen as:

- Being more effective in meeting job-related demands
- Being more successful in representing their units to upper management
- Creating higher-performing teams
- Fostering loyalty and commitment
- Increasing motivational levels and willingness to work hard
- Reducing absenteeism, turnover, and dropout rates
- Possessing high degrees of personal credibility (p. 6).

Additionally, two separate empirical studies determined that the five leadership practices accounted for 65 (Posner & Brodsky, 1992) and 80 (Posner & Brodsky, 1994) percent of the variance in assessments of chapter presidents’ leadership effectiveness. Posner and Brodsky (1993) also found that students, who practiced the five leadership practices most often, as compared to those who engaged in them less often, viewed themselves as more effective leaders.

Researchers in agricultural and extension education have utilized the LPI to evaluate leadership behaviors as well. Rudd (2000) and Krill, Carter, and Williams (1997) along with other researchers have all used Kouzes' and Posners' leadership practices in their respective studies. Rudd analyzed the leadership styles of extension directors, and determined that these leaders self-reported that *enabling others to act* was their most frequent leadership behavior (M = 51.80, SD = 4.30) while *inspiring a shared vision* was their least frequent behavior (M = 44.50, SD = 7.30). Spotauski and Carter (1993) also looked at the leadership behaviors of department executive officers. They found that agricultural education executives were best at *enabling others to act* and needed help with *inspiring a shared vision* and *challenging the process* (M = 3.72, SD = 0.49). Woodrum and Safrit (2003) examined the leadership practices of West Virginia extension agents and determined again, that *enabling others to act* was the behavior exhibited most frequently (M = 4.48, SD = 0.62) and *inspiring a shared vision* was the leadership behavior used least often (M = 3.43, SD = 0.96).

Research using the LPI has also found formal leadership education to be effective. Earnest (1996) discovered significant ($p < 0.01$) pre and posttest increases for each of the five leadership behaviors of community leadership program participants in Ohio. Brungardt (1997) also found significant increases in leadership behaviors from the beginning to the end of the Leadership Certificate Program at Fort Hays State University. *Challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act,* and *modeling the way* behaviors were significantly ($p < 0.001$) greater on the last day of the program compared to day one.

Positive changes in leadership behavior as a result of leadership development events in the FFA have been assumed for years, but the specifics of this development have not been articulated. This study helps define the leadership benefits purported by the FFA, and it helps build the leadership practices theory base by surveying adolescent leaders, as few researchers have evaluated the leadership practices of secondary education students and/or FFA members.

According to the conceptual model below (Figure 1.) that resulted from a synthesis of youth leadership research conducted by Ricketts, Osborne, and Rudd (2004) *family*, *school*, *self*, *community*, the *agriculture instructor*, the *agriculture program*, and the *FFA* were identified as the key variables that may, in theory, explain leadership in the FFA (p. 43). Within this broad conceptual model this study specifically focused on describing Success Conference participants'/FFA members' leadership behavior, and their age, gender, rural, suburban, or urban background, the number of agriculture teachers and classes students have had taken. Gender was of particular interest because Student LPI findings (Posner & Brodsky, 1993, 1994), thus far, have indicated no difference between males and females for any of the leadership behaviors, but recent findings in agricultural education research indicate supposed prominence of females in leadership positions in the FFA (Kelly & Osborne, 2004; Ricketts et al., 2004; Seevers & Dormody, 1994).

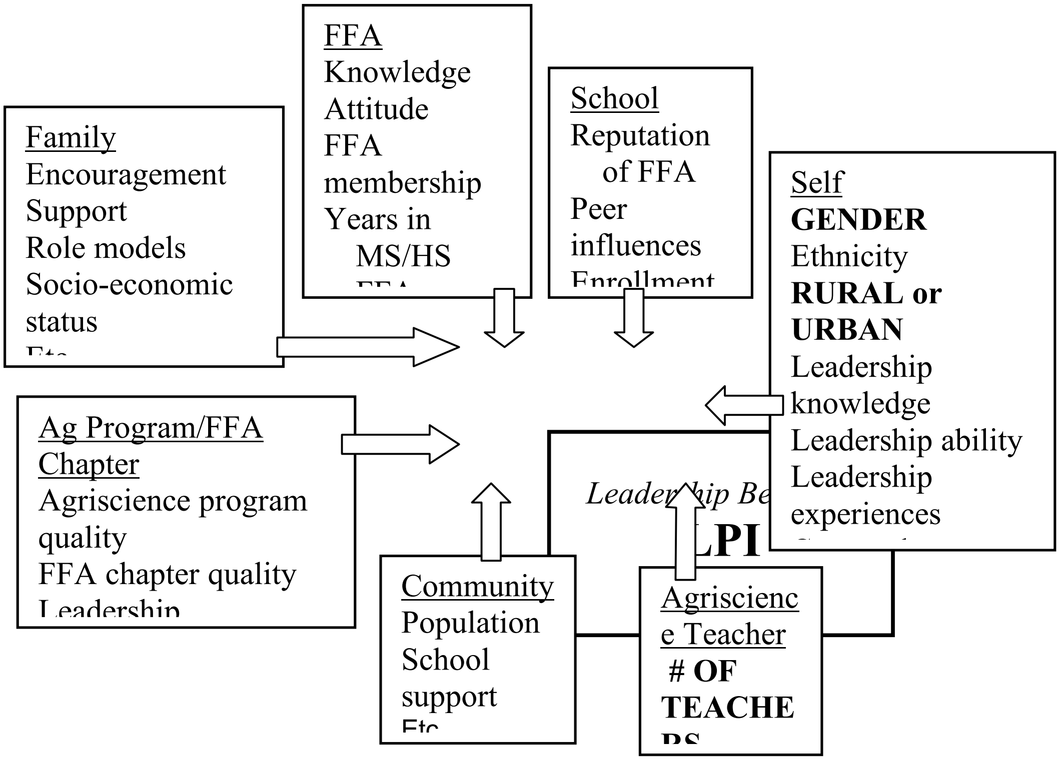


Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Factors Leadership Behavior (LPI). (Adapted from Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd, 2004).

Methods

The purpose of this study was to assess the leadership practices or behaviors of FFA members participating in a leadership development workshop known as the *Success Conference* in [state]. Specific objectives of this study were the following:

1. Describe FFA members attending the Success Conference in [state].
2. Describe the leadership practices of FFA members attending the Success Conference.
3. Compare leadership practices based on participant demographics.

Participants (n=111) of the Success Conference, a leadership development workshop for FFA members sponsored by the [state] Department of Agricultural Education, served as the purposive sample representing the target population of FFA leaders in [state]. Upon submission of parental and personal consent forms, participants were asked to complete the *Student Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)* (Kouzes & Posner, 1998). The design of the study was both descriptive and *ex post facto,* since the factors that were being identified were pre-existing (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996). The design was employed to describe the present demographics of Success Conference participants and to identify the leadership practices of the sample of FFA leaders in [state].

Leadership practices were determined using the *Student LPI* (Kouzes & Posner, 1998), which has shown strong reliability. Posner and colleagues have reported internal reliability scores of 0.66 for *challenging the process*, 0.79 for *inspiring a shared vision*, 0.70 for *enabling others to act,* 0.68 for *modeling the way*, and 0.80 for *encouraging the heart* (1998). Other researchers have reported reliabilities for the five leadership practices between 0.63 and 0.83 (Snyder, 1992) and 0.83 and 0.92 (Levy, 1995). Demographic data were collected with a researcher-developed instrument. Gender, age, size of community, number of agriculture teachers, and number of agriculture classes were the variables analyzed with the demographic instrument.

Data were analyzed with descriptive statistics using SPSS and by comparing conference participants with normative data collected for *Student LPI.* Inferential statistics were not used in this study because of the sampling procedure, but simple comparisons between participants were also conducted.

Findings

Objective One - Describe FFA members attending the Success Conference in [state]

Success conference participants were over 16 years of age. Half the participants were male and half were female. Eighty (71.4%) students were from a rural area, 16 (14.3%) were from a suburban area, and 12 (10.7%) students were from an urban area. Eighty percent reported having one to two agriculture teachers, and 78 (71%) students had at least two or more agricultural education courses (Table 1).

Table 1
Demographic Profile of [state] Success Conference Participants

Demographic Variables	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Age	111	16.35	1.06
Gender	111	0.49	0.50
Rural/Suburban/Urban	109	1.40	0.76
# of Ag Teachers	111	1.78	0.94
# of Ag Classes	110	2.72	1.82

Objective 2 - Describe the leadership practices of FFA members attending the Success Conference

Success conference participants scored the highest on e*ncouraging the heart* (M = 23.77; SD = 4.18) placing [state] FFA members participating in the Success Conference at approximately the 45th percentile for all Student LPI scores, and slightly below Kouzes' and Posner's (1998) normative data for high school students. *Enabling others to act* (M = 23.75; SD = 4.40) was the number two-ranked leadership practice of participants, however this score placed participants in approximately the 35th percentile for all Student LPI scores and almost a full point below the normative data for similar high school students. Respectively, participants' 3rd, 4th, and 5th rated leadership practices were *inspiring a shared vision* (M = 23.04; SD = 4.60), *modeling the way* (M = 22.94; SD = 4.18), and *challenging the process* (M = 22.78; 3.96). These scores placed [state] FFA members/conference participants' in the 60th percentile for *inspiring a shared vision,* in the 55th percentile for *modeling the way,* and the 60th percentile for *challenging the process.* Participants' scores for inspire, model, and challenge were each higher than Kouzes' and Posner's normative scores for high school students.

Table 2
Leadership Practices of Success Conference Participants in [state]

	n	*M*	*SD*	Rank	Percentile	Normative Scores for High School Students
Encourage the Heart	111	23.77	4.18	1	45th	24.18
Enabling Others to Act	111	23.75	4.40	2	35th	24.72
Inspire a Shared Vision	111	23.04	4.60	3	60th	21.89
Model the Way	111	22.94	4.18	4	55th	22.02
Challenge the Process	111	22.78	3.96	5	60th	21.62

Objective Three - Compare leadership practices based on participant demographics

A simple comparison of *Student LPI* mean scores by age, size of community, number of agriculture teachers, and number of agricultural courses taken indicated no leadership practice differences among the aforementioned variables. However, females outscored males on all five of the leadership practices.

Table 3
Student LPI Scores for Female and Male Success Conference Participants

	Females			Males		
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Encourage the Heart	54	24.61	4.01	57	22.97	4.22
Enabling Others to Act	54	24.67	4.30	57	22.88	4.35
Inspire a Shared Vision	54	23.91	4.90	57	22.21	4.17
Model the Way	54	23.89	3.97	57	22.04	4.20
Challenge the Process	54	23.59	4.10	57	22.02	3.70

Conclusions and Implications

The average participant of the [state] Success Conference was just over 16 years of age, but 95 out of 111 participants were either 15, 16, or 17 years of age. Information about conference participants' age should have been important for future conference developers since curriculum and informal learning opportunities are supposed to be age appropriate when offered (Shinn, Briers, Christiansen, Edwards, Harlin, Lawver, Lindner, Murphy, & Parr, 2003, p. 20). However, there was no noticeable difference between age categories for any of the leadership practices.

Most of the students were from a rural area, but given the need for added diversity in agricultural education and the National FFA Organization (Luft, 1996), leadership conference developers may need to continue designing the workshops with rural, suburban, and urban students in mind. Most participants had one to two agriculture teachers, and the large majority had taken at least two or more agricultural education courses, indicating that Success Conference participants were at least somewhat experienced agricultural education students and FFA members.

Success Conference participants were equally divided in terms of gender. This is an important finding for leadership conference designers in [state] since the 50% female participant figure for this study differs from the fact that only 38% of National FFA members are female (National FFA Organization, 2004, ¶1). However, according to the National FFA Organization, females hold over 50% of the leadership positions, so the fact that half of the Success Conference participants were female should have been expected.

Success Conference participants were best at *encouraging the heart*, which involves recognizing individual contributions in a group and/or celebrating team accomplishments (Kouzes & Posner, 1998), but although [state] Success Conference participants scored highest on *encouraging the heart*, they scored lower than Kouzes' and Posner's normative scores for similar high school-aged students. In fact, participants were only in the 45th percentile compared to other students who have taken the LPI. This phenomenon is repeated in participants' 2nd most frequent leadership behavior of *enabling others to act*, which was all about fostering collaboration and strengthening others. Again, [state] FFA members were only in the 35th percentile of all students who had taken the LPI.

Even though *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way*, and *challenging the process* were 3rd, 4th, and 5th in terms of relative rank, participants' scores were higher than instrument developers' normative data for each leadership practice (Kouzes & Posner, 1998). Participants were more likely to envision an uplifting future for an organization and enlist others in a common vision, more likely to set the example and focus on achieving small wins, and more likely to search for opportunities, experiment, and take risks than the majority of other students who had completed the LPI.

Lastly, gender was the only demographic variable with noticeable leadership practice differences. In fact, females scored higher than males on all five of the leadership practices. This finding may explain why Ricketts, Osborne, and Rudd (2004) found that "…females are more predominate in local FFA chapter officer teams and leadership activities than males" (p. 50) or why Zielinski (1999) reported that females have established themselves as a majority presence in student activities.

Recommendations

Leadership workshop designers in [state] and other states may not need to worry about meticulously developing age-appropriate leadership curricula for students between the ages of 16 and 18. Perhaps age appropriate curricula should be reserved for more pronounced differences between age groups.

Although the majority of Success Conference participants were from rural [state], state staff and teacher educators offering leadership development opportunities should design the program to reach rural, suburban, and urban participants. Conference coordinators should also seek to recruit participants from more urban areas to improve diversity of participants in the [state] Success Conference. Regardless of where students came from they all seemed to have similar leadership behaviors.

Since participants scored lower than expected on *encouraging the heart* and *enabling others to act*, future leadership development opportunities should focus on activities that foster collaboration, strengthen others, recognize the contributions of others, and that celebrate team accomplishments as a leader. Participants were actually in the 45th percentile for encouraging the heart, perhaps agriculture teachers should also encourage FFA members and agricultural education students to try some of the following activities suggested by Kouzes and Posner (1998).

- Wander around … [the agriculture classroom]… for the express purpose of finding someone in the act of doing something that exemplifies the organization's [FFA] standards. Find a way to celebrate that person on the spot.
- Plan a festive celebration for each small milestone your team [FFA officer team] reaches.
- Tell a public story about a person in your organization who went above and beyond the call of duty.
- Ask your teammates to help design a reward and recognition system for your organization.
- Give people tools they can use to recognize one another, such as index cards or notepads printed with the message "You made my day" or "You are a hero."
- Say 'thank you' when you appreciate something that someone has done.
- Write at least three thank you notes each week.
- Ask people in your organization how and when they like to be recognized. Create a list with this information and distribute this throughout the organization (p. 67).

Kouzes and Posner also list several suggestions for improving the leadership behavior of *enabling others to act*. Because participants/FFA members in [state] scored in the 35th percentile for this leadership behavior, agricultural educators may also need to implement a few of the following activities.

- Find ways to increase interaction among people in your organization [FFA Chapter] who need to work more effectively together.
- Establish easily accessible meeting areas that encourage people to interact.

- Assign important tasks to others. Don't always hog the limelight. Let someone else make a key presentation. Coach and support that person.
- Ask for volunteers. Give people choices. You build commitment when people don't feel forced into taking action. You build motivation when people feel like they're in control.
- Interview an athletic coach. Ask how you might apply the coach's methods in your organization. What does it mean to "coach"?
- Mentor new members in your organization [FFA Chapter]. Pair experienced leaders with emerging leaders (p. 65).

Future research should further examine the factors that influence leadership. Specifically, future research should determine what experiences [state] FFA members who participated in the Success Conference received that allowed them to be more likely to *inspire a shared vision, model the way,* or *challenge the process*. Future research should also continue to analyze the apparent leadership differences between males and females in agricultural education and the National FFA Organization.

References

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Razavieh, A. (1996). *Introduction to research and education* (5th ed.). Ft. Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Brannon, T., Holley, C. W., & Key, J. P. (1989). Impact of vocational agriculture/FFA on community leadership. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 30*(3), 37-45.

Brungardt, C. L. (1997). *Evaluation of the outcomes of an academic collegiate leadership program*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Dormody, T. J. & Seevers, B. S. (1994). Predicting youth leadership life skills development among FFA members in Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35* (2), 65-71.

Earnest, G. W. (1996). Evaluating community leadership programs. *Journal of Extension, 34* (1), Retrieved October 15, 2004, from http://www.joe.org/joe/1996february/rb1.html.

Kelly, S. A. & Osborne, E. W. (2004). Female leadership in urban Florida FFA programs. *Journal of Southern Agricultural Education Research, 54* (1), 254-266.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge; How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations*. SanFrancisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (1997). *Leadership practices inventory [LPI]* (2nd ed.). SanFrancisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (1998). *Student leadership practices inventory.* SanFranciso: Jossey-Bass.

Krill, T. L., Carter, R. I., & Williams, D. L. (1997). An exploration of the leadership practice enabling others to act: A case study. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 38*(4), 42-49.

Levy, M. J. (1995). *Followers' perceptions of leaders: prototypes and perceptions of resident assistants*. Unpublished masters thesis, University of Maryland.

Luft, V. D. (1996). Extent to which cultural diversity is addressed in secondary agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 37* (3), 67-75.

Posner, B. Z. & Brodsky, B. (1992). A leadership development instrument for college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 33*(4), 231-237.

Posner, B. Z. & Brodsky, B. (1993). The leadership practices of effective RAs. *Journal of College Student Development, 34*(4), 300-304.

Posner, B. Z. & Brodsky, B. (1994). Leadership practices of effective student leaders: Gender makes no difference. *NASPA Journal, 31*(2), 113-120.

Ricketts, J. C. & Rudd, R. D. (2004). Leadership development factors leading to the success of former Florida state FFA officers. *Journal of Southern Agricultural Education Research, 54* (1), 242-253.

Ricketts, J. C., Osborne, E. W., & Rudd, R. D. (2004). Female leadership in rural Florida FFA chapters. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 45* (1), 42-53.

Ricketts, S. C. (1982). *Leadership and Personal Development Abilities Possessed by High School Seniors Who are FFA Members in Superior FFA Chapters, Non-superior Chapters, and by Seniors Who Were Never Enrolled in Vocational Agriculture.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Rudd, R. D. (2000). Leadership styles of Florida's county extension directors: Perceptions of self and others. *Proceedings of the 27th Annual National Agricultural Education Research Conference.* 81-92.

Seevers, B., & Dormody, T. J. (1994). Predicting youth life leadership skills development among senior 4-H members: A tri-state study. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(3), 64-69.

Shinn, G. C., Briers, G. E., Christiansen, J. E., Edwards, M. C., Harlin, J. F., Lawver, D. E., Lindner, J. R., Murphy, T.H., and Parr, B.A. (2003). Improving student achievement in mathematics: An important role for secondary agricultural education in the 21st Century. Unpublished manuscript. Texas A&M University. College Station, TX.

Snyder, N. L. (1992). *Empowering leadership and achieving style: A study of gender differences between fraternity and sorority presidents*. Unpublished masters thesis, University of Maryland.

Spotauski, D. R. & Carter, R. I. (1993, Fall). Self evaluation of leadership practices and behaviors used by department executive officers in agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education,* 17-25.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York: The Free Press.

Townsend, C., & Carter, R. (1983). The relationship of participation in FFA activities and leadership citizenship, and cooperation. *Journal of the American Association of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, 24* (1), 20-25.

Wingenbach, G. J. & Kahler, A. A. (1997). Self-perceived youth leadership and life skills of Iowa FFA members. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 38* (3), 18-27.

Woodrum, W. & Safrit, R. D. (2003). Leadership practices of West Virginia University extension agents working with the 4-H youth development program. *Journal of Extension, 41* (3). Available at: http://www.joe.org/joe/2003june/rb3.shtml.

Zielinski, M. B. (1999). *A case study of gender in high school student government leadership and a test of Rotters' and Bandura's theories of social learning.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New York at Buffalo, Buffalo.

1. Name of Presenters: Frederick R. Rohs and Christine A. Langone, Professors,
   Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communication
   The University of Georgia, 109 Four Towers, Athens, GA 30602
   706-542-8828, frrohs@uga.edu.

2. Title: The Challenges of Measuring Leadership Development in College Students.

3. Track: Research

4. Description: This study sought to determine the change in level of understanding of leadership skills by undergraduate students in a college leadership course. The findings from this study together with other studies cited suggest that when employing self-report measures, the post/then approach provides a less conservative and more accurate means of assessing a student's knowledge and understanding of the subject than would the traditional pretest/posttest approach.

5. Bio(s); Frederick R. Rohs-professor and Graduate Coordinator for the Master of Agricultural Leadership (MAL) Program. Advises graduate students and teaches core courses in the MAL Program and Coordinates the 13 state Southern Extension Leadership Development (SELD) Program.
   Bio: Christine A. Langone, Professor and Program Coordinator for the Interdisciplinary Certificate in Leadership and Service at The University of Georgia. Advises graduate students and teaches Foundation of Leadership courses for both undergraduate and graduate students as well as teaching core courses in the MAL Program.

The Challenge of Measuring Leadership Development with College Students

Introduction

Measurement of change in student assessment to determine improvement in learning, behavior, or attitude has challenged educators for decades. Change scores have been used to assign grades, especially in classes with students of heterogeneous backgrounds and different previous instructional achievement levels, as an attempt to assure fairness and maximization of individual potential. Given the current strong interest in student-centered instruction, teachers may ask students to assess their own growth or change in learning and attitudes using pre- and post-instruction self-assessment measures (Lam & Bengo, 2003).

The pre-post measures design is plagued with confounding variables that can render the change scores invalid as measures of actual change in individuals (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Although recent effort has begun to address these extraneous variables or validity threats, for example, through logical argument based on careful review of the plausibility of each threat within the context of the research or evaluation (Eckert, 2000), conclusions about the internal validity of findings drawn from this approach is nonetheless speculative (Lam & Bengo, 2003). Further research is needed to support this approach in college classrooms.

Literature Review

Among the validity threats inherent in the pre-post measures design are those caused by the effects of self-reporting in the pretest. This pretest effect can also confound findings from quasi-experimental comparison groups research, if differential pretest effects between-groups are observed as an interaction between pretest and selection bias (Willson & Putnam, 1982). Since as far back as the 1950s, researchers have investigated and documented this pretest effect.

Welch & Walberg (1970) summarized findings from 10 studies on pretest effects conducted between 1949 and 1967. They found no pretest effect in four studies, treatment interference in three studies, and a pretest effect (increased posttest scores as a result of the pretest) in three studies. The authors concluded that pretest effects are less likely with cognitive tests than with affect measures, and less likely with long pretest-posttest intervals (6 months or more). Bracht & Glass (1968) obtained similar findings.

Willson & Putnam (1982) conducted a meta-analysis of results from 32 studies that investigated pretest effects. They found for cognitive tests, 81% of the groups with pretests performed better than groups without pretests. Pretest effects also occurred with attitude measures. Their meta-analysis found that for attitude measures, 62% of those pretested, on average, performed better than the non-pretested. Willson & Putnam's findings of a stronger pretest effect with cognitive measures than with affect measures, which they attributed to reactive interference of treatments in cognitive tasks, contradict the findings of Welch & Wallberg (1970) and of Bracht & Glass (1968). Willson & Putnam (1982) also found a large negative pretest effect with personality measures, reflecting a general change toward an undesirable psychological state.

The pretest effect represents a source of invalidity in research and program evaluation. Specifically, in cognitive measurements, a pretest can lower internal validity by introducing a practice or carry over effect, when participants doing the posttest recall their responses made in the pretest, thus inflating their performance on the posttest. Willson & Putnam (1982) suggested that a similar pretest effect occurs with attitude measures, because of "halo effects in which everyone feels better on second attitude testing" (p. 256). Such was the case in a study by Maltz, Gordon, McDowall, & McCleary (1980) which found that results obtained from pretest-posttest designs can lead evaluators to erroneously conclude delinquency programs as effective.

Besides the carry-over effect, pretests can introduce an opposite, interference effect, due to repetitive testing, which can also lower the degree of internal validity. In this situation, pretesting interferes with the participants' responses in the posttest (either in cognitive or affective), by causing the participants to feel bored, fatigued or both. While carry-over effects can inflate performance on the posttest, interference effects can deflate it (Lam & Bengo, 2003).

A pretest can also create sensitization and response-shift biases, which represent further threats to construct validity. Pretest sensitization bias occurs when the pretest stimulates the participant's curiosity and motivation, or orients the participant's attention toward certain aspects of the treatment, or program inducing the participant's position or attitude to be slanted in a particular direction (Hoogstraten, 1979).

Business, industry and society are telling colleges and universities that there is a grave need for leadership and human resource preparation for today's students to succeed in the work place (Brown & Fritz, 1993). Numerous studies have shown that employers, alumni, and students nationwide recognize the need for competence beyond technical skills. Alumni from the University of Georgia (CAES, 1998) and Texas A & M (1998) indicated that skills in people interactions, communication, problem solving, and conflict management, higher thinking skills/critical thinking, teamwork, leadership were skills related to professional success, and that their undergraduate experience was lacking in providing real life situations in the classroom to address the need for these skills. Employers also supported the need for skills in communication, problem solving and teamwork as reported in studies by the University of Nebraska and Pennsylvania State University (Andelt , Leverne & Bosshamer 1997; Radhakrishna & Bruening 1994).

Post secondary institutions throughout the nation have responded to this need by providing leadership education in many forms. Along with the need for leadership preparation comes the need to document program results for accountability and funding purposes.

A frequently used method of tracking learning in leadership programs is the self-report assessment measure. These introspective measures may vary from a listing of skills learned (Russell & Jones, 1995) or keeping a leadership journal (Dormody, 1996) to employing standardized assessment measures (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996) or similar rating scale. Youth organizations such as FFA and 4-H also have sought to measure their impact on a youth's leadership development. When such introspective measures are employed in the classroom, the conventional pretest/posttest method of evaluation is often used. In these instances differences between pretest and posttest ratings may appear to be non-existent when actually significant differences exist. The faculty need a more accurate measurement of behavioral change than the conventional pretest/posttest method.

One consequence of most leadership development courses is changing a person's awareness or understanding of the leadership skill being measured. For example, a class participant might feel at the beginning of a course that they are an "average" leader with "average" leadership skills. The course changes their understanding of leadership skills; after the course they understand their level of functioning was below average at the beginning of a course. Whenever such a shift in understanding occurs, conventional self-report pretest/posttest designs are unable to accurately gauge the impact of instructional programs.

Several studies (Howard & Dailey, 1979; Howard et al., 1979; Pohl, 1982; Sprangers & Hoogstraten, 1988; Rockwell & Kohn, 1989; Rohs & Langone, 1997; Rohs, Langone & Coleman, 2001) have documented the "response-shift bias" phenomenon as a source of contamination of self-report measures that result in inaccurate pretest ratings and seriously compromise any assumption of internal validity.

Evidence of response shift biases have been found in college classrooms dealing with knowledge of subject matter and the learning of basic helping skills (Howard et al., 1979; Pohl, 1982). Extensive literature reviews by Pohl (1982) indicate that often when self-report measures are used, there is a lack of findings of significant differences between pre and posttest measurements.

To correct this problem, Howard et al., (1979) recommends that at the posttest session participants are asked to respond twice to each item on the self-report measure. The first asks participants to report their behavior/understanding as a result of the program (post). The second asks participants to report their behavior before the program (then). Because "then" ratings and post ratings are made in close proximity, it is more likely that both ratings will be made from the same perspective and thus be free of response-shift bias.

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree of response shift in the self report ratings of leadership skills development by undergraduate students enrolled in leadership development course.

Methods

Data were obtained from 28 students enrolled in AGR300—an undergraduate course in agricultural leadership skills at the University of Georgia for students who want to learn more about leadership and decision making skills. The 10-week course covers such topics as leadership theory, stages of group development, group maintenance skills, listening and feedback skills, conflict management and several techniques relating to group decision making and consensus building. Throughout the course students participate in various exercises that allowed them to practice skills being discussed in the class.

The Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS), developed by Dormody et al., (1993), was used to measure students leadership skill development. The YLLSDS is a 30 item paper and pencil instrument which asks individuals to indicate on a four point scale (0=none, 3=a lot) the degree to which they possess each skill or characteristic. Total scale values can range from 0 to 90. For descriptive purposes, Dormody et al. (1993) suggested scale values of 0 to 30 as “no to slight leadership skills development” from 31 to 60 “moderate development” and from 61 to 90 “high development.”

According to Dormody et al. (1993), the YLLSDS was assessed for face and content validity by a panel of faculty from New Mexico State University and field tested with a stratified random sample of 262 New Mexico senior 4-H and FFA members. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was 98.

The YLLSDS was administered on the first day of class asking students how they would currently rate themselves on each of the 30 items (PRE). The YLLSDS was again administered on the last day of class asking students to respond twice for each item. First they were to report how they perceived themselves to be at the present (POST). Immediately after answering each item in this manner, they were asked to answer the same item again, this time in reference to how they perceived themselves at the beginning of the course (THEN).

Data were summarized and analyzed using SAS 608. Statistical tests (t-test for matched groups) were employed to determine if differences existed between the sets of scores testing evidence of response shift.

Results and Discussion

Ninety six percent of the students rated themselves as "high" in leadership skills on the posttest (Table 1.) However, their pretest self-report ratings also revealed they felt they were "high" in leadership skills development. The students "then" ratings revealed a different story. Students "then" ratings indicated that only 14% rated their leadership skills as high with 75% falling into the moderate category and 11% into the low level category.

Table 1. Pretest, then, and posttest levels of leadership skill development scores.

YLLSDS Scores	Pretest (x)		Then (y)		Posttest (z)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Low 0-30	0	.00	3	.12	0	.00
Moderate 31-60	5	.18	21	.75	1	.04

x = x = 70.0, SD = 10.8

y = x = 52.0, SD = 17.5

z = x = 70.0, SD = 8.2

No significant differences were found between the pretest and posttest means (Table 2). The posttest score (X =70.0) and the "then" score (X =52.0) were significantly different. Thus, students felt their leadership skills had improved since the beginning of the course with the post/then method. To determine the response shift in students self-report rating, "pretest" means were compared with their "then" means. The difference between the two means or response shift was 18.0 points in students with perception of their leadership skills development.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and test of significance of self-report leadership skill scores by condition.

Condition	Pre		Then		Post		T
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Pre/Posttest	70	10.8			70	8.2	NS
Then/Posttest			52	17.5	70	8.2	

*** = .001 significance level

This study provides evidence of the impact of response shifts on self-report ratings of leadership skill by students enrolled in the leadership class. The then/post procedure provided radically different results with which to evaluate the leadership class compared to the pre/post procedure. The response-shift effects, differences between the "then" pretest and the pretest, are treatment dependent. While the lack of a control group may limit this study, it should be noted that the danger of such an instrumentation effect cannot be eliminated by the use of a control group. The score on a given scale may have a different meaning for the "treatment" group than for those in the "control" group (Rohs & Langone, 1997). Response-shift theory provides a plausible explanation for these findings. An increase in the students' understanding of the phenomenon under consideration or an increased appreciation of their initial level of functioning on that dimension could have caused them to report leadership "then" scores which were lower than their pretest scores. However, other explanations are also possible. For example, these same results might have occurred if (1) students remembered their pretest rating and level of functioning and consciously overrepresented their posttest level rating or underrated their pre course level on the retrospective/then pretest to report a positive experience or (2) biased their reports to provide the instructors with more favorable results. However, the time period between the administration of the pretest and the posttest/then procedure (10 weeks) would not enhance the students' memory. Students were also asked on their posttest to record what they thought was their pretest scale score. No accurate reading occurred. The students were also told at both administrations that their responses were confidential and would not be taken into account when class grades were computed. Studies by Howard et al. (1979) also refute these alternative explanations.

Conclusions

The Then/Post analysis provided a drastically different set of conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the leadership class from the Pre/Post approach. The Then/Post data revealed the course produced major changes in the leadership skills of students versus a "no change" conclusion using Pre/Post data. Furthermore, the Pre/Then data indicate a "response shift" or change in the level of understanding of leadership skills by students took place during the course. Studies of college courses by Howard (1980), Bray & Howard (1980), Pohl (1982) have produced similar results.

Findings from this study suggest that the Then/Post approach provides a more accurate estimate of measuring change. Pre/Post methods remain popular, therefore further research is needed to assess the conditions under which a Pre/Post method would be more appropriate. Additionally, research is needed to identify and clarify the various casual determinants of the response shift. One factor may be the level of information students have at the pretest regarding the dimension, in this case leadership skills, on which they are asked to self-report.

To lessen response-shift bias "informed pretests" may be employed where a thorough description of the variable being measured is provided to the student prior to the administration of the self-report pretest. As with all research the adequacy of the measures used affects the quality of the findings. While this study employed the YLLSDS scale as a valid and reliable measure, our experience with leadership skills assessment has been that most self-report measures/studies do not. Integrating self-report, objective and behavioral measures, if possible, may help to provide a more complete assessment of change. Use of pretest, posttest and retrospective/then pretest self-report data will provide a more sensitive assessment of a students perspective of personal changes and skill development.

Researchers/leadership educators/evaluators knowledge of retrospective pretest and ‘response shift’ is currently far from comprehensive. While the literature and this study indicate that change measurements using the retrospective pretest method are often more accurate estimates of change, other variations or alternative forms of this method have been used. These include the ‘perceived change’ method which asks participants or students to estimate, after the class or program the amount and direction of change they have undergone. A further variation of the ‘perceived change’ method is the ‘post + perceived change’. The post + perceived change method asks participants to report their status at posttest time and to also estimate the amount and/or direction of change. Lam & Bengo (2003) report that such methods have been used to measure changes in schools, teacher practices, and student learning as a result of the introduction of large-scale achievement tests. A fourth variation of the retrospective method of measuring change is called the ‘post-only’ method. The post-only method obtains only posttest status data and estimate the general pretest rating for all the participants. This is done by reviewing the literature and/or making logical deductions involving some group consensual process.

The post + retrospective pretest method has received considerable attention from both researchers and program evaluators regarding it effectiveness in measuring change. Such is not the case with the other non-pretest methods. Only one study (Lam & Bengo, 2003) has attempted to compare the alternative methods previously mentioned and concluded that the post + retrospective pretest method was the best way to measure change and minimize response shift bias. Further research is clearly needed in this area.

Literature Cited

Andelt, L. L, Leverne B. & Bosshamer, B., (1997). Employer assessment of the skill preparation of students from the College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, University of Nebraska-Lincoln: implications for teaching and curriculum. *NACTA Journal*, 41 (4), 47-53.

Bracht, G. H., & Glass, G. V. (1968). The external validity of experiments. *American Educational Research Journal* 5:437-474.

Bray, J.H. & Howard, G.S. (1980). Methodological considerations in the evaluation of a teacher-training program. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 72 (1):62-70.

Brown, W.F. & Fritz, S.M. (1993). Determining the breath of leadership and human resource management development offerings in post secondary Departments of Agricultural Education. *NACTA Journal* 37 (3):11.

Brungardt, C. & Crawford, C. B. (1996). A comprehensive approach to assessing leadership students and programs: preliminary findings. *Journal of Leadership Studies* 3 (1):37-48.

College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences (1998). *1997 Program Review: An analysis of internal and external perceptions of 96 Program areas crossing teaching, research and service.* Athens, GA: University of Georgia CAES.

Cook, T. D. & Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Quasi-experimental design and analysis issues for field settings*. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Dormody, T. (1996). 30 question leadership journal. *Journal of Leadership Studies* 3 (2):75-81.

Dormody, T., Seevers, B.S. & Clason, D. L. (1993). The youth leadership life skills development scale: an evaluation and research tool for youth organizations. Los Cruces: New Mexico State University. (Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin No. 672).

Eckert, W. L. (2000). Situational enhancement of design validity: The case of training evaluation at the World Bank institute. *American Journal of Evaluation* 21: 185-193.

Hoogstraten, J. (1979). Pretesting as determinant of attitude change in evaluation research. *Applied Psychological Measurement* 3:25-30.

Howard, G.S. (1980). Response shift bias—a problem in evaluating interventions with pre/post self-reports. *Evaluation Review* 4 (1):93-106.

Howard, G.S. & Dailey, P.R. (1979). Response-shift bias: a source of contamination in self report measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 64 (2):144-150.

Howard, G.S., Ralpf, K.M., Gulanick, N.A., Maxwell, S.E., Nance, D.W. & Gerber, S.K. (1979). Internal invalidity in pretest/posttest self report evaluations and a re-evaluation of retrospective pre-tests. *Applied Psychological Measurement* 3:1-23.

Lam. T. C. & Bengo, P. (2003). A comparison of three retrospective self-reporting methods of measuring change in instruction practice. *American Journal of Evaluation* 24 (1): 65-80.

Maltz, M. D., Gordon, A. C., McDowall, D., & McCleary, R. (1980). An artifact in pretest-posttest designs: How it can mistakenly make delinquency programs look effective. *Evaluation Review* 4:225-240.

Pohl, N.F. (1982). Using retrospective pre-ratings to counter act response-shift confounding. *Journal of Experimental Education* 50 (4):211-214.

Radhakrishna, R. B. & Bruening, T. H., (1994). "Pennsylvania study: employee and student perceptions of skills and experiences needed for careers in agribusiness." *NACTA Journal,* 38: 15-18.

Rockwell, S.K. & Kohn, H. (1989). Post-then pre evaluation. *Journal of Extension* 27 (2):19-21.

Rohs, F. R. & Langone, C. A. (1997). Increased accuracy in measuring leadership impacts. *Journal of Leadership Studies* 4 (1): 150-159.

Rohs, F. R., Langone, C. A. & Coleman, R. (2001). Response shift bias: A problem in evaluating school nutrition training using self report measures. *Journal of Nutrition Education* 33 (3): 1-14.

Russell, M. A. & Jones, H. W. (1995). A leadership development course for animal industry careers. *NACTA Journal* 39 (4): 30-33.

Sprangers, M. & Hoogstraten, J. (1988). Response-style effects, response-shift bias, and a bogus pipeline: a replication. *Psychological Reports* 62: 11-16.

Texas A & M. 1998. "Results of student questionnaire." Presented to the Southern Region Ag Teaching Symposium, College Station, Texas, October 25-27.

Welch, W. W. & Walberg, H. J. (1970). Pretest and sensitization effecting is curriculum evaluation. *American Educational Research Journal* 7: 605-614.

Willson, V. L. & Putnam, R. R. (1982). A meta-analysis of pretest sensitization effects in experimental design. *American Educational Research Journal*. 19 (2): 249-258.

ALE Practice Presentation Proposal

1. **Name of Presenters:**
   M. Russell, J. Ayres, T. Egger, R. Ortega, R. Tormoehlen, and J. Peters

Mark Russell – *Primary Contact Person*
Professor of Animal Sciences, Purdue University
125 S. Russell St., # 112, West Lafayette, IN 47907-2042
mrussell@purdue.edu, 765-494-7677, Fax: 765-494-9347

Co-Presenter's names
Janet Ayres, Professor of Agricultural Economics, Leadership Specialist
KRAN, Department of Agr Economics, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907
ayres@purdue.edu, 765 49-44215 ; Fax: 765-494-9176

2. **Title of Presentation:**
   A Leadership Development Certificate Program: A New Collegiate Model

3. **Presentation track:** Practice

4. **Description:** The initial Leadership Development Certificate cohort of 54 students was in 2005. We will share the development process, preparation, and results of this experiential program in which students do a self-assessment and design a Personal Development Plan which outlines their goals through on-campus and off-campus activities, workshops, and classes.

5. **Professional Biographical Profile**

Mark Russell – Professor of Animal Sciences, is known as the "student development" specialist in Animal Sciences at Purdue University. Improving the curriculum to develop the students' ability to utilize the knowledge gained in college is his passion. He received a BS in Animal Sciences at Cornell University and his MS and Ph.D. at the University of Illinois. He has published over 25 abstracts and journal articles on employability skill, leadership development, multicultural skills, and international programming. He teaches Career Leadership, Serving Communities: Principles, Practice, & Process and International Education & Engagement, and recently returned from Poland, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic with 26 students.

Janet Ayres, Professor of Agricultural Economics, Leadership Development Specialist
Masters of Urban Planning from Cornell University and PhD from Purdue in Sociology focusing on community leadership. Research and Extension experience in leadership development for 26 yrs.; worked in over 250 rural communities; developed 10 state-wide leadership development programs; developed over 30 leadership curricula; work with community leadership programs throughout state; conducted over 100 staff development programs in leadership development; teach undergraduate course in leadership development.

6. **ALE Conference Proceeding Paper**

A Leadership Development Certificate Program: A New Collegiate Model

M. Russell, J. Ayres, T. Egger, R. Ortega, R. Tormoehlen, and J. Peters
Purdue University College of Agriculture

Introduction

Purdue University College of Agriculture responded to community leaders and employers of our graduates and determined in the fall of 2003 that we needed to help students intentionally develop their leadership skills and attributes. With stakeholder input, we obtained faculty approval to offer a certificate program, including the development of manuals and marketing materials, training leadership coaches, and beginning the two-year program. This is neither a major, minor, nor simply a collection of random extracurricular activities. We are thrilled to have 54 students in the pilot program and have the following learner objectives for this discussion:

1. understand the developmental process and faculty approval journey;
2. be able to describe the student requirements, philosophy, and skills and attributes involved;
3. connect the skills and attribute goals to the activities in the program; and
4. discuss the initial results and challenges in assessing and determining value of the program.

Background

Undergraduate and graduate students in most Colleges of Agriculture focus primarily on technical competence and for the most part are well prepared to be successful in their careers. Our employers and advisory committees have been telling us for years that our graduates do not have the "people skills" and ability/desire to serve others needed to meet their expectations. Thus in the fall of 2003 a group of faculty and the Associate Dean of Academic Programs began to research the leadership majors, minors, etc across the country. We invited 25 community and industry stakeholders to a brainstorming session in April 2004. This group designed leadership characteristics, experiences, and other expectations but with little order to their priorities. Using previous research of leadership development processes and the employability characteristics combined with other university models we refined the program and presented this to the faculty in the fall of 2004. Many revisions and clarifications were needed as college faculty needed to define leadership, coaches' role, how to measure growth, how to determine that the student was a "leader", and generally how to control a non-academic certificate program. In other words this social development program was difficult for economic and biological scientists to comprehend. In the spring of 2005 the faculty approved the certificate program with a faculty oversight committee and a steering committee of faculty, student service staff, graduate and undergraduate students. We relied heavily (with permission of the late Dr. Jeff Moss) on the University of Illinois program and the committee developed all the material before August.

Employers have clearly stated that graduates with a good understanding of leadership are more desirable. Technical competence is not enough. Thus the goals of the certificate include:

- Respond to direct feedback from employers, alumni, and exiting graduates;
- Encourage students to develop strong skills in community and organizational leadership;
- Prepare graduates that are active members in the local community;
- Enhance student's skills in being a productive team member; and
- Increase the number of students engaged in leadership development

How It Works

The certificate program is a student-led planning process which begins with a self assessment and then the selection of a leadership coach. Students can be undergraduate or graduate students, must be fulltime students, and must be in academic good standing with the university. Student must have four semesters before graduation to be eligible to begin the certificate program. The student selects a personal, interpersonal, group and community leadership skill or attribute from the eleven choices provided in their manual. We will provide handouts at the session that fully articulate the details but the skills and attributes selected are:

I. Personal Leadership Development

- A. *Becomes More Aware of Self*
- B. *Practices Ethical Behavior*
- C. *Sustains Leadership*

II. Interpersonal Leadership Development

- *A. Values Diversity*
- *B. Enhances Communication Skills*
- *C. Manages Conflict*

III. Group and Organizational Leadership Development

- *A. Develops Teams*
- *B. Leads Change*
- *C. Manages Projects*

IV. Community Leadership Development

- A. *Community/Service Learning Project*

Following completion of a personal assessment, the student with assistance from their coach completes Personal Development Plan, including how each of the following program requirements will be used to intentionally develop the selected skills and attributes:

- be an active participant in two non-classroom group or team settings on campus
- contribute to the goals of at least one off-campus community group
- participate in a minimum of four leadership programs, workshops or forums
- enroll in at least six credit hours of academic course offerings
- complete a Portfolio where they record their progress on the selected skills and attributes by participating in the requirements of the certificate

The student must obtain the coaches endorsement of the plan and there are three oversight times of faculty approval; the proposed plan, half-way progress report, and completed portfolio at the end. The requirement is not to simply do the required activities but to reflect on the activity and demonstrate in the portfolio how the activities specifically caused the student tot develop or grow in the identified skill or attribute. The re is no template for the reflection but enough thought must be reflected such that the coach believes the student has thought about how they were challenged by the experience and grew from the activity. The faculty committee makes recommendations to the Associate Dean of Academic Programs, and then Each spring semester (and possibly the fall semester in the future); the Leadership Development Certificate Committee will host a Certificate Completion Ceremony to honor the students who have finished their Certificates. All participants and coaches involved in the Leadership Development Certificate program are invited to attend the Completion Ceremony. A notation of the Leadership Development Certificate will be added to the diploma.

Results to date

The interest of faculty and student services staff has resulted in 23 leadership coaches involved with 59 sophomore and junior students starting the program in September. 54 students have submitted their Personal Development Plan and five have withdrawn/postponed progress on the certificate. Students already report that they are stepping up their involvement and we can see students discussing workshops, what can be used toward the certificate and more critical evaluation of potential classes to put in their academic plan as required or elective courses. The critical results of this pilot year are the revision and clarification of the coaches and the particpants' manuals. We are developing needed feedback forms, examples of Personal Development Plans, portfolios, and refining the process. The steering committee is learning to truly exhibit leadership in the process of enacting changing in the curriculum and in the details of the certificate program. Feedback was planned on a regular basis to participants but we have learned that feedback and guidance for the coaches is much more important in initiating a new program like this certificate. Defining and practicing the coaching role is new for many of the staff and faculty whole self enrolled. The advisory committee reactions have been very rewarding but the true value of the certificate to graduates in the employment marketplace is yet to be tested.

Conclusion/Recommendations

This unique certificate approach has attracted attention across our campus and in the agribusiness industry. We have contracted with Industry Leadership Partners who fund leadership forums, a collection of library books, industry tours, career fairs, industry seminars, and one-on-one interviewing and potential internships. This program has challenged students to stretch beyond their comfort zone and intentionally develop themselves. The challenge of revising our materials and the identified need to hire a leadership scholar will challenge the College in this area of interest and need. With a freshman class who heard about the Certificate program and could not start in 2005, we anticipate large interest on the part of students in the fall. Finding and training enough faculty and staff coaches will be the real challenge. We also have interest from the Schools of Engineering and of course Technology at Purdue to expand. Managing the program at a size that we can deliver with quality will be a challenge. The balance between faculty control and true industry engagement will be a challenge. There should always be a healthy tension between the professional education and a liberal education and for us that means finding an educational balance between the academic theory of leadership models and the experience of serving others and making a difference in communities. The community and industry interest ad reaction to this effort is already paying dividends.

Nicole L.P. Stedman, PhD
Assistant Professor
Department of Agricultural Education
Texas A&M University
119 B Scoates Hall
College Station, Texas 77843-2116
979.458.1213 (phone)
979.845.6296 (fax)
nstedman@aged.tamu.edu

Anthony C. Andenoro, PhD
Senior Employee Development Specialist
Human Resources Department
Texas A&M University
1111 Research Parkway, Suite 126.27
College Station, Texas 77843-1255
979.845.9703 (phone)
979.845.4188 (fax)
tandenoro@tamu.edu

LINKING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TO CRITICAL THINKING: BALANCING OUR CURRICULUM WITHIN LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

Presentation Track: Research

Session Description:
This research session will provide attendees with a new view of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking. Presenters will offer data supporting the relationship between the two and innovative ways to ensure that leadership educators are providing students with the necessary tools to be successful in today's workforce.

Bios:
Nicole Stedman, Assistant Professor, is a faculty member of the Agricultural Education Department. She came to Texas A&M in July, 2004 to teach Agricultural Leadership courses at the Undergraduate and Graduate levels. Dr. Stedman's Bachelors of Science, in Human Resource Development, Masters of Science, in Leadership, and Doctorate, in Leadership Education, are from the University of Florida in Gainesville. Prior to completing her PhD she spent four years working with youth through the justice system. Her current research interests include developing strategies for the teaching of leadership emphasizing Emotional Intelligence, Critical Thinking and change.

Tony currently serves as the Senior Employee Development Specialist for the Employee Development area of the Human Resource Department at Texas A&M University. A native of Cleveland, Ohio, Tony earned his Bachelor of Science degree in Communication from the University of Toledo, his Master of Science in Educational Administration from Texas A&M University, and his PhD in Leadership Development from Texas A&M University. He holds certifications in Professional College Teaching, Instructional Leadership Development, Diversity Education, and Administrative Leadership. His research interests include the link between Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking, student development and empowerment, the globalization of leadership curricula, and empowering leadership creativity and intelligence.

LINKING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TO CRITICAL THINKING: BALANCING OUR CURRICULUM WITHIN LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

Introduction

Educators are faced with the daunting task of producing relevant leadership curricula capable of assisting in the development of successful students amid the backdrop of ever-changing conditions, including technological innovation, shifting social pressures and demographic diversity, and organizational dynamics. This challenge, coupled with the current organizational mega trends detailing the need for a globalized curriculum and the expectation for graduates to possess international perspectives (Barrett, 2001), forces leadership educators to be dynamic in their approach to developing skills and competencies within leaders. This dynamic approach is not only critical for the development of our students, but critical for the future of industry, business and related fields.

Katz (1955) put forth the three-skill approach model, which explained that leaders must have a mix of technical skill, human skill, and conceptual skill. Reiterated by Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Owens Jacobs, and Fleishman (2000), leaders must exemplify three skills, problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge. In both of these models, it becomes evident that a leader must be able to do two things, work with and understand people and make good decisions.

Mixed methods and multi-media are becoming the standard and developing how students think is becoming as important as what students think. This philosophy translates into new opportunities for instruction and foundational approach for determining how educators can develop how students think. Two of the topical areas included in a foundational approach to leadership education are Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence.

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

Facione (1990) defines Critical Thinking as "purposeful, self regulatory judgment which results in the interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference as well as the explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which judgment is based" (p. 2). Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) furthered this concept citing that Critical Thinking is a "reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (p.5). It is vital for students aspiring to serve in leadership positions to develop the ability to think critically as they attempt to solve problems and make decisions that have organizational implications. However, thinking skills are not developed in an accidental fashion (Beyer, 1987). The ability to develop thinking skills is an intentional process inclusive of the catalytic instructor. Perkins (1985) noted that skillful thinking is unnatural as demonstrated by Rodin's sculpture "The Thinker". The sculpture depicts an individual thinking in a particularly uncomfortable position alluding to the idea that thinking can be difficult, confusing, and even unnatural (1985). Beyer explains that "thinking requires deliberate, continuing instruction, guidance, and practice to develop its full potential" (1987, p.2).

Understanding the idea that the use of Critical Thinking skills increases the probability of desired outcomes (Halpern, 1996), then developing Critical Thinking skills amongst students becomes a palpable charge for leadership educators. As graduates assume leadership positions, Critical Thinking becomes paramount as they attempt to face decision making circumstances without having any habitual or learned knowledge of how to make these decisions. Thus, it is imperative that Critical Thinking is a foundational element of leadership education.

In the past, the majority of research and practice within education was focused on the skills of Critical Thinking. This narrow focus contributed to a skewed view of Critical Thinking by characterizing it as an assortment of skills rather than a complex and intentional process allowing for reasoned and judicious decisions to be made (Paul, 1990). However, over the past decade Critical Thinking skills have been lessened in priority to the learner's disposition to Critical Thinking skills within the educational and psychological arenas (Ennis, 1996, Esterle, 1993; Facione & Facione, 1992; Paul, 1990; Siegel, 1988; Tishman & Andrade, 1996,). Together, the two factors provide educators with a much more holistic understanding of Critical Thinking and how to begin the process of empowering it. Plus, employers value both (Halpern, 1996), making them compulsory to higher education and vocational preparation. In fact when addressing education developmentally, it is suggested that skills and disposition are inherently linked and should be developed jointly (Kitchener & King, 1995). To assist educators in understanding this idea, Ennis (1994) and Perkins, Jay, and Tishman (1993) explain that much like a cup that breaks must have been breakable, if a person demonstrates a Critical Thinking skill, it can be substantiated that the person is disposed to using that skill (Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 2000).

To effectively understand disposition of Critical Thinking and its relationship to Critical Thinking skills it is important to operationalize a definition of Critical Thinking disposition. Critical Thinking disposition has been characterized as the consistent internal motivation to engage problems and make decisions by using Critical Thinking (Facione, Facione, Giancarlo, 1996). Unfortunately, this makes teaching Critical Thinking skills and increasing disposition to Critical Thinking more difficult for educators. Because motivation precedes learning, it is essential for educators to prioritize Critical Thinking as a means for success within the minds of their students. If educators enhance the internal motivation to acquire Critical Thinking skills within their students, they will effectively increase students' disposition to Critical Thinking.

Critical Thinking can be broken down into six core skills, interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and Self-Regulation (Facione, 1990). Although each of these are essential to the development of leadership students, for the purpose of this paper we will focus on the final core skill, Self-Regulation. Self-Regulation is important because it allows good critical thinkers to develop their own ability to think (Facione, 1990). This skill acts as a system of checks and balances allowing a student to review, challenge, and revise a decision that he or she has made and his or her decision making process. Facione explains that experts define Self-Regulation as:

> "Self-consciously monitoring one's cognitive abilities, the elements used in those activities, and the results induced, particularly by applying skills in analysis, and evaluation to one's own inferential judgments with a view toward questioning, confirming, validation, or correcting either one's reasoning or results" (1990, p.6).

The ability to self-monitor the decision making process becomes imperative for students aspiring to work in leadership capacities. It provides them with a foundation for empowering change, creating plans of action, addressing resistance, and visioning with their future organization and employees. Without a strong grounding in Self-Regulation, organizational decisions may become impulsive and rigid, leading to organizational stagnation and eventual failure.

Another tenet of leadership education is the development of emotional skills to enhance personal and organizational development. Langdon (1996) reported that there is an influx in the understanding of educators that emotional and social learning should be promoted in school

(Akers, Miller, Fraze, & Haygood, 2002). Jensen (1998) also notes that social and emotional education could be considered as the education's missing piece. Moreover, Akers et al. (2002) provides that development of Emotional Intelligence is fundamental to the philosophy of Agricultural Education. Emotional Intelligence is rooted in the work of Thorndike (1920) who explained that social intelligence is "the ability to understand and manage women and men, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations" (p. 228). Emotional intelligence can be broken down into two areas as outlined by Salovey and Sluyter (1997). The areas are the understanding of emotion and the understanding of intelligence. These two ideas are concretely united in an effort to delineate the idea of Emotional Intelligence (Akers, et al., 2002). Thus, educators are forced to explore creative means of delivering curricula which dispose students to Emotional Intelligence and develop specific areas of Emotional Intelligence. Akers et al. (2002) provides the foundation for teaching Emotional Intelligence within Agricultural Education. She explains that that success in the adult world depends on both academic ability and social and emotional skills (Goleman, 1995).

Maintaining that Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence are both part of the underpinning of leadership education, it is important to question if there is a connection between the two. Through the examination of these two concepts one can infer that Self-Regulation, as a skill of Critical Thinking, can be likened to certain aspects of the core emotional competencies of Emotional Intelligence. The four core competencies are as follows (Salovey & Mayer, 1990):

1. The ability to accurately perceive, appraise, and express emotion
2. The ability to access or generate feelings on demand when they can facilitate understanding of yourself and another person

3. The ability to understand emotions and the knowledge that derives from them
4. The ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

Self-Awareness emerged from these four core emotional competencies as a governing tenet for the development of Emotional Intelligence. Self-Awareness refers to the ability to recognize a feeling as it happens (Goleman, 1995). This ability is paramount for students exploring service in leadership positions. Goleman noted that "the ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding" (1995, p.43). He further asserts that if individuals fail to recognize their true feelings, it can be detrimental (Goleman, 1995). "People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they feel about personal decisions, from who to marry, to what job to take" (1995, p. 43).

This is highly transferable to the work environment as leaders try to manage the daily activities required of them in their organizational roles. The lack of Emotional Intelligence undermines both a company's growth and successes, and conversely the use of Emotional Intelligence can lead to more productive outcomes at the individual and organizational level (Weisinger, 1998). This is further confirmed by the overwhelming majority of employers who feel that Emotional Intelligence, and specifically Self-Awareness, is critical to success in business (Goleman, 1998). High Self-Awareness is the foundation from which all other Emotional Intelligence stems from (Weisinger, 1998). This coupled with the idea that employers expect employees to have high Emotional Intelligence, because it is highly correlated with positive social interaction (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schultz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2003) makes it blatantly apparent that the development of Self-Awareness must be a foundational pillar of the leadership curricula.

Through an examination of Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence it is apparent that there is a link between the two philosophies. Self-Regulation within Critical Thinking and Self-Awareness within Emotional Intelligence are indelibly tied together as individuals develop the ability to identify and manage their feelings regarding the decisions that they make. High level abilities in both of these skills would allow for individuals to make effective decisions, have the ability to readdress and revise those decisions, and manage his or her feelings to enhance effectiveness throughout the process. This connection and development of these skills are critical to the foundation of leadership education.

This paper provides the empirical evidence for the connection between Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence, a demonstrated importance of these abilities to post-graduate success in leadership positions, and solidifies a foundation for a balanced curriculum within Agricultural Education. The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition in undergraduates of a leadership development program.

Methods

This correlational study used a survey research methodology to explore the relationship between Critical Thinking disposition and Emotional Intelligence. With that, questionnaires were used to measure the specific constructs of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition. This design allowed the researchers to discover relationships existing between Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition using correlational statistics. A scattergram was used to initially determine if a relationship was plausible and the normality of the data (Figure 1).

Undergraduates enrolled in a leading change course at a large Land Grant University were used as the population for this study. Data were collected during the spring and summer of 2005 (N=200). There were 164 students who submitted their questionnaires for useable data for a total response rate of 82%.

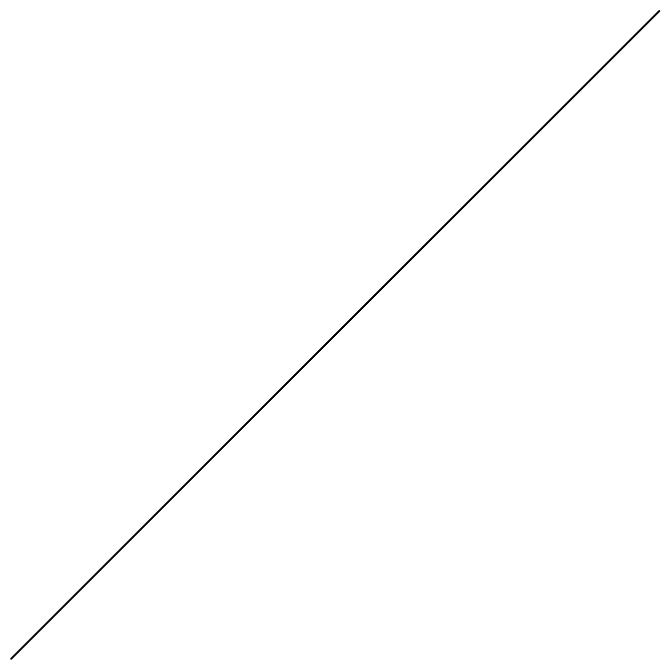


Figure 1. Scattergram of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking Disposition Scores (n=164).

Instrumentation

As stated previously, the researchers used two questionnaires to collect data. These were the EMI and an abbreviated Emotional Intelligence Instrument.

In order to measure Critical Thinking disposition the EMI instrument was used (Ricketts & Rudd, 2005). The EMI was developed by Ricketts and Rudd (2005) to measure three identified scales, Engagement, Cognitive Maturity and Innovativeness. The EMI consisted of 26 questions measured on a Likert-type scale. The 26 questions were broken down into the three factors or scales; Engagement consisted of 11 questions, Cognitive Maturity 8 questions, and Innovativeness 7 questions. Although the questionnaire had already underwent reliability testing by the developers, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for each subscale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for Engagement was .78, Cognitive Maturity was .68, and Innovativeness was .75. These coefficients were acceptable for the purposes of this research due to the nature of measuring Critical Thinking disposition (Ricketts & Rudd, 2005).

Emotional Intelligence was measured using an abbreviated version (Daft, 2002) of the Developing Your Emotional Intelligence instrument developed by Weisinger (1998). This 25 question instrument contained five subscales of Emotional Intelligence Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions, Motivating Yourself, Empathy, and Social Awareness. Five questions measured each subscale. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for each subscale. The coefficients for the scales were: a) Self-Awareness, .71, b) Managing Emotions, .72, c) Motivating Yourself, .74, d) Empathy, .76, and e) Social Awareness, .76. Included on the Emotional Intelligence instrument was a short demographic questionnaire, which included 4 questions. These were gender, race/ethnicity, major and approximated GPR.

In order to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between the constructs of Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed using SPSS® Statistical Software for Windows ®. Researchers chose the product-moment correlation coefficient *r* because of its ability to determine the magnitude of relationship between scores of two measures (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003).

Researchers identified the following limitations of the study: a) the generalizability to other populations outside of the study, b) the abbreviated nature of the Emotional Intelligence instrument, and c) the self-reporting and self-perception nature of the instruments.

Findings

The researchers were guided by one research objective because the intent of the study was to establish baseline data exploring the relationship between the constructs of Critical Thinking disposition and Emotional Intelligence. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed for subscales of Critical Thinking disposition as reported on the EMI and Emotional Intelligence as reported on the abbreviated Developing Your Emotional Intelligence instrument, as well as the total scores for Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed using all returned questionnaires (n=164).

The magnitude of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for the subscales of Emotional Intelligence and subscales of Critical Thinking disposition were determined using the following parameters: r= 1.0, perfect; r= 0.99 – 0.7, very high; r=0.69 – 0.50, substantial; r= 0.49 – 0.30, moderate; r= 0.29 – 0.10, low; and r= 0.09 – 0.01, negligible (Miller, 1998).

Review of the correlational matrix showed significant positive correlations between all the subscales of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition. With that, Managing Emotions was found to have low to moderate positive correlations with the subscales of Critical Thinking disposition. These were with Cognitive Maturity, r=.25, p<.05; Engagement, r=.17, p<.05; and Innovativeness, r=.33, p<.05. The correlation with the combined Critical Thinking score was r=.30, p<.05.

Self-Awareness was also found to have low to moderate significant positive correlations with each subscale. These were with Cognitive Maturity, r=.27, p=<.05; Engagement, r=.22, p<.05, Innovativeness, r=.26, p<.05 and total Critical Thinking disposition score, r=.32, p<.05.

The third subscale analyzed was Motivating Yourself and was found to have low to moderate significant positive correlations with the subscales of Critical Thinking disposition. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for these were, Cognitive Maturity, r=.29, p<.05, Engagement, r=.44, p<.05, and Innovativeness, r=.46, p<.05. The correlation coefficient for the total score was, r=.49, p<.05.

Empathy was also found to have low to moderate significant positive correlations with Critical Thinking disposition scores on the three subscales. These were Cognitive Maturity, r=.39, p<.05, Engagement, r=.29, p<.05, and Innovativeness, r=.20, p<.05. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for the total Critical Thinking disposition score was r=.36, p<.05.

The fifth subscale shown to have low to moderate significant positive correlations with the Critical Thinking disposition subscales was Social Awareness. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were Cognitive Awareness, r=.33, p<.05, Engagement, r=.36, p<.05, and Innovativeness, r=.22, p<.05. The total Critical Thinking disposition score had a coefficient of r=.37, p<.05.

Lastly, the total score of Emotional Intelligence was analyzed for relationship magnitude and direction with the subscales of Critical Thinking Disposition. These Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were found to be moderate significant and positive. These were Cognitive Maturity, r=.43, p<.05, Engagement, r=.42, p<.05, and Innovativeness, r=.43, p<.05.

When analyzing the relationship existing between the two computed scales of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking Disposition, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was significant, substantial and positive, r=.53, p<.05. This coefficient showed the relationship of the two constructs in whole, reiterating the relationships found among the subscales. These findings are represented in Table 1.

Table 1. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for Subscales of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking Disposition (n=164)

Scale	Cognitive Maturity	Engagement	Innovativeness	Critical Thinking Disposition
Managing Emotions	.25	.17	.33	.30
Self-Awareness	.27	.22	.26	.32
Motivating Yourself	.29	.44	.46	.49
Empathy	.39	.29	.20	.36
Social Awareness	.33	.36	.22	.37
Emotional Intelligence	.43	.42	.43	.56

**Note*: all significant at p<.05

Conclusions and Recommendations

Readers should approach the following conclusions and recommendations with caution due to the limitations discussed previously. Because the intent of this study was to establish baseline empirical data linking Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking, through the measurement of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition subscales, using data collected from undergraduates in a college of agriculture at a large Land Grant University conclusions and recommendations will be drawn for this population.

Although one can liken the difference between Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking to the difference between the heart and the head, the literature supports the notion that Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence are linked through identified behaviors such as Self-Awareness and Self-Regulation (Facione, 1990; Goleman, 1995). However, there has been significant lacking in identifying through empirical findings that a relationship does exist. The findings substantiate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition.

The relationship identified between the two constructs of Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking disposition through the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient indicates that the relationship not only exists, but is one of significant moderate strength and positive direction (r=.53, p<.05). Even though the data does not imply causality, we can begin to explore the impact that these two constructs impart on one another. It may be that as one demonstrates a certain disposition to Critical Thinking that his/her Emotional Intelligence increases, or that if one shows a certain ability for Emotional Intelligence that (s)he also has a natural inclination to critically think.

So, what does this mean as we embark on strengthening our leadership education curricula for students entering the workforce? To refer back to Perkins (1985) depiction of skillful thinking there is an underlying message to educators; teaching one to think critically is not an easy task. However, combining Critical Thinking and Emotional Intelligence together, might yield an easier transition. Yet, placing both of these teachable practices in leadership education is an appropriate fit. The model proposed by Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et. al. (2000) provides a strong basis for leaders needing to demonstrate both Emotional Intelligence (social judgment skills) and Critical Thinking (problem-solving skills).

Tishman (1996) agreed that the workforce is seeking individuals with both Critical Thinking skills and a positive disposition toward Critical Thinking. Goleman (1995) and Weisinger (1998) both addressed the importance of Emotional Intelligence to the workplace and the need for employees with this attribute. Some of the greatest benefits to both students and the future employers they will serve, will stem from provide students with real case scenarios allowing them to practice these skills. This reinforces Beyer (1987, p.2), who provided that the Critical Thinking is fully developed only under, "…continuing instruction, [and] guidance…"

Jensen (1998) went on to further explain that too often social and emotional education goes missing, leaving an opportunity to develop students in these areas. In Agricultural Education, leadership programs provide a natural fit to reinforce these skills (Akers, 2002). If we are challenged as a profession to prepare individuals for the working world and addressing the needs of employers, then it seems impervious that a strong emphasis be placed on Emotional Intelligence and Critical Thinking. If we are able to combine these two ideas in curricula than we have a much higher probability for reaching students, for changing them, and for developing them into leaders.

References

Akers, C., Miller, K., Fraze, S., & Haygood, J.D. (2002). Critical curricular needs of Emotional Intelligence in agricultural education. *Proceedings of the National Agricultural Education Research Conference, Las Vegas, Nevada, 29.*

Barrett, R. (2004). Mega trends for the future of work: building a successful corporate climate. Retrieved September 8, 2004 from http://richardbarrett.net/download/future_of_work.pdf

Beyer, B.K. (1987). *Practical strategies for the teaching of thinking.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Ennis, R.H. (1994). Assessing Critical Thinking dispositions: Theoretical considerations. *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association. New Orleans, LA.*

Ennis, R.H. (1996). *Critical thinking*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Esterle, J. & Clurman, D. (1993). *Conversations with Critical Thinkers*. San Francisco, CA: the Whitman Institute.

Facione, P.A. (1990). *Critical thinking: A statement of expert consensus for the purposes of educational assessment and instruction*. Millbrae, CA: California Academic Press.

Facione, P.A., & Facione, N.C. (1992). *The California critical thinking dispositions* *inventory*. Millbrae, CA: The California Academic Press.

Facione, P.A., Facione, N.C., Giancarlo, C.A. (1996). The motivation to think in working and learning. In E. Jones (Ed.), *Defining Expectations for Student Learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Facione, P.A., Facione, N.C., & Giancarlo, C.A. (2000). The disposition toward critical thinking: Its character, measurement, and relationship to critical thinking skill. *Information Logic, 20*(1), 61-84.

Gall, M..D., Gall, J.P., & Borg, W.R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ.* New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Halpern, D.F., (1996). *Thought and knowledge: An introduction to critical thinking*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Jensen, E. (1998). *Teaching with the brain in mind*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Katz, R.L. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, 33*(1), 33-42.

Kitchener, K. & King, P. (1995). *Developing Reflective Judgment*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Langdon, C.A. (1996). The third annual phi delta kappan poll of teachers: Attitudes toward public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan, 78*, 30:244-250.

Lopes, P.N., Brackett, M.A., Nezlek, J.B., Schultz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. (2003). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*.

Miller, L.E. (1998). Appropriate analysis. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 39*(2), 1-10.

Mumsford, M.D., Zaccaro, S.J., Harding, F.D., Owen Jacobs, T., & Fleishman, E.A. (2000). Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*(1), 11-35.

Paul, R. W. (1990). *Critical thinking: What every person needs to survive in a rapidly changing world.* Rohnert Park, CA: Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Critique, Sonoma State University.

Perkins, D. N. (1985). Postprimary education has little impact on informal reasoning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 77*(5), 562-571.

Perkins, D., Jay, E., & Tishman, S. (1993). Beyond abilities: A dispositional theory of thinking. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *39*(1), 1-21.

Ricketts, J.C. & Rudd, R.D. (2005). Critical thinking skills of selected youth leaders: The efficacy of critical thinking dispositions, leadership and academic performance. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 46*(1), 32-43.

Rudd, R., Baker, M., & Hoover, T. (2000). Undergraduate agricultural student learning styles and critical thinking abilities: Is there a relationship? *Journal of Agricultural Education, 41(*3), 2-12.

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9(*3), 185-211.

Salovey, P. & Sluyter, D.J. (1997). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: BasicBooks.

Siegel, H. (1988). Educating reason: Rationality, critical thinking, and education. New York, NY: Routledge.

Thorndike, E.L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Magazine, 140*, 228.

Tishman, S. & Andrade, A. (1996). *Thinking dispositions: A review of current theories, practices, and issues.* Cambridge, MA. Project Zero, Harvard University.

Weisinger, H. (1998). *Emotional intelligence at work: The untapped edge for success*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Nicole LP Stedman
Assistant Professor
Texas A&M University
MS 2116
College Station, TX 77843-2116
nstedman@aged.tamu.edu
979-458-1213

Felix Arnold
Graduate Student
Texas A&M University
MS 2116
College Station, TX, 77843-2116
farnold@aged.tamu.edu
979-458-2085

Craig Rotter
Student Development Specialist
Texas A&M University
MS 1253
College Station, TX 77843-1253
crotter@tamu.edu
979-845-2235

Exploring Leadership Skill Development of Freshmen in
a Leadership Living Learning Community

Presentation Track: Practice

Description:
Striving to make a difference in the leadership development of freshmen transitioning into a university is certainly rugged terrain. This presentation highlights the role of learning communities for transitioning freshmen and lessons learned after the first year of a Leadership Living Learning Community in a large university.

Presenter Biographies:
Nicole Stedman, Assistant Professor, is a faculty member of the Agricultural Education Department. She came to Texas A&M in July, 2004 to teach Agricultural Leadership courses at the Undergraduate and Graduate levels. Dr. Stedman's Bachelors of Science, in Human Resource Development, Masters of Science, in Leadership, and Doctorate, in Leadership Education, are from the University of Florida in Gainesville.

Felix Arnold is from Pearsall, TX. He graduated from Texas A&M University in May of 2005 and entered graduated school as a Master's student. He expects to graduate from graduate school from Texas A&M University in May of 2007. He is writing a thesis on the effects of peer mentoring on the leadership, living, learning community that is located on the campus of Texas A&M University.

Craig Rotter completed his Ph.D in Agricultural Education at Texas A&M University in 2004, with an emphasis in collegiate leadership development. He has served as the Coordinator of Leadership Development within the Department of Residence Life at Texas A&M University since 2001. He has presented professionally at regional and national conferences. Dr. Rotter's passions include cultural change and personal effectiveness. He is currently focused on the development of learning communities and the implementation of academic/student affairs integration models.

Exploring Leadership Skill Development of Freshmen in a Leadership Living Learning Community

Introduction

Today, there is an increasing need to establish expectations for college students early in their undergraduate experience. Stakeholders, including employers and parents, have emphasized this (Smith, MacGregor, Matthews, & Gabelnick, 2004). The learning community is an approach bridging disciplines and increasing interaction between diverse students, increasing student retention, and offering an enhanced academic relationship between students and faculty.

At Texas A&M University, the Freshmen Leadership Living Learning Community (L3C) is a new freshmen-year initiative designed to produce reflective, intentional, self-aware learners who are academically engaged, who have made a successful transition from high school to college and who are fully integrated within the university community. In order to create a quality academic learning community for freshmen students, partnerships were developed between the Department of Residence Life and the Department of Agricultural Education. The Department of Agricultural Education is home to the Agricultural Development which emphasis is leadership education.

The Leadership Living Learning Community emphasizes a common connection between students, leadership. One of the primary purposes of the L3C is to make an impact on students' personal leadership development. Instructors for the course used a mix of methods to accomplish this: a) specific curriculum designed to develop leadership, b) co-curricular activities, and c) a personal leadership development workbook.

Learning Communities

Over the past twenty years, the concept of learning communities has grown, developed, and shown to be an interdisciplinary approach to undergraduate education (Smith et al., 2004).

The most consistent driving factor in the development of academic learning communities in institutions of higher education has been the desire to bring together faculty, staff, administration and students to create an enhanced learning environment intended to prepare students for work and life.

In 2001, the National Survey of Student Engagement reported positive correlations between learning communities and five benchmarks: diversity experiences, gains in personal and social development, practical competence, general education, and overall satisfaction with respect to the undergraduate college experience.

Because of these strong correlations, Texas A&M University has sought to establish learning communities designed to address the freshmen college student initiative. The overarching intent of freshmen learning communities in larger institutions is to simulate the feeling of a smaller college.

In 1998 (¶7), the American Association for Higher Education, the American College Personnel Association, and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators developed a joint task force identifying the importance of powerful relationships and a shared responsibility for learning. The group identified first that, "learning is fundamentally about making and maintaining connections: biologically through neural networks; mentally among concepts, ideas, and meanings; and experientially through interaction between the mind and the environment, self and other, generality and context, deliberation and, action." Within the elaboration of this concept the task force members recognize the role that living/learning opportunities play in supporting freshmen college students.

Tinto (1998) provided there exists four different styles of learning communities in higher education. These were linked courses, freshmen interest groups, cluster or federated courses, and coordinated studies. With that, a learning community can also be residential or non-residential, academically-oriented, or simply by interest. Shapiro and Levine (1999) describe a residential learning community to be a living space that incorporates intentional academic programs.

More important than the structure of learning communities is the impact on institutions of higher education using them. Learning communities offer opportunities for faculty, staff and student development, as well as, spur the development of better teaching methods (Smith, MacGregor, Matthews & Gabelnick, 2004). However, the learning communities provide students with the opportunity for greater academic success and satisfaction (Shapiro & Levine, 1999; Tinto, 1999; Zhao & Kuh, 2004).

Recent research suggests the greatest impact is on student persistence, or decision to stay in school through graduation (Gabelnick, MacGregor, Matthews, & Smith, 1990; Pike, Schroeder, & Berry, 1997; Tinto, 1998). This is important when considering the degree of success that students have when making the transition from high school into their undergraduate school.

In 2001, the National Survey of Student Engagement reported positive correlations between learning communities and five benchmarks: diversity experiences, gains in personal and social development, practical competence, general education, and overall satisfaction with respect to the undergraduate college experience.

Instructors designed the L3C to support a broad range of student needs while focusing on one specific interest, leadership. With that, the intent of the L3C was to provide students with an environment that fostered their personal leadership development.

Leadership Development

So, why leadership? Leadership education has one goal, "to provide opportunities for people to learn the skills, attitudes, and concepts necessary to become effective leaders" (Huber, 2002, p. 27). However, most agree that leadership is often learned by experience (Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola-Merlo & Richver, 2004).

Dewey (1938) provided that true learning is best achieved when we are able to combine academic learning with experientially-based learning. Learning communities offer a unique way for students to experience academic content, while providing them with support (Zhao & Kuh, 2004).

Hirst, et al. (2004) concluded leaders learn when presented with challenging work, solving complex problems, leading a team, but additionally, that they foster communication and enhance team performance. Solving problems, leading teams, and communicating are important attributes of a leader and have been found in research assessing student leadership development (Brick, 1998; Rotter, 2004; Townsend & Carter, 1983). These concepts allowed for the application of the Tuckman and Jensen Group Development Model (1977).

How it Works

At Texas A&M University, there has been a developing concern for enhancing the first year freshmen experience. With that, the university has created the Learning Community/Freshmen Year Experience Steering Committee. The committee has set into place a standard for learning communities within Texas A&M University, including pedagogical outcomes, peer mentoring, internationalization/globalization/diversity, and curricular/co-curricular partnerships.

There are seven key components addressed by the Leadership Living Learning Community. They are: development of first year students' transition and integration within the larger university community; intentional integration of learning; creation of meaningful engagement between students and faculty; creation of opportunities for interaction with diverse students, staff, and faculty; emphasis on holistic learning outcomes in empowered, informed, and responsible learners (AACU, 2002); development of students' ability and construction of new knowledge and knowledge of self in relationship to a larger community; and development of social and academic support networks which will support their transition into and through the learning experience (Texas A&M University, 2005).

The Freshmen Leadership Living Learning Community experience is a one year commitment of first year freshmen students residing in on campus housing. The university offers this optional program specifying the key benefits, as outlined in this paper, to incoming freshmen.

Students choosing to participate in the Freshmen Leadership Living Learning Community live in on-campus residence halls, register for courses designed for their cohort, and participate in a diverse set of co-curricular activities centered on their academic learning. The programs offered to students are the result of a partnership established between the Department of Residence Life and the Department of Agricultural Education. By linking these two departments there is the opportunity to provide students with a safe environment, in which to live, learn and become engaged with their leadership development.

Faculty developed the structure of the L3C using Tuckman and Jensen's (1977) small-group development model. The model, which is a five step process, includes Forming (testing and dependence of the group), Storming (intragroup conflict), Norming (development of group cohesion), Performing (functional role readiness) and Adjourning (group termination). Faculty were able to develop an academic syllabus, including co-curricular activities, which complemented the Tuckman and Jensen model.

The text *Learning to Lead* (Bennis and Goldsmith, 2003) provided the academic content. The co-curricular activities followed the pedagogical principle of experiential learning and reflection. The structure of the activities supported both the Tuckman and Jensen model (1977) and the Bennis and Goldsmith (2003) text.

By following this teaching methodology, faculty provide students with an academic component, a residential/community component, and a real experience. All three of these combine to create a holistic approach to education for first year freshmen in the Leadership Living Learning Community.

Results to Date

After the first year of the L3C the instructors have made some general observations about the program.

Program Participation

Applications were sent to every student accepted at Texas A&M University for the Fall 2005, who also accepted on-campus residence. Of these 3000 contacted, 84 applied. Of the 84 applications, 62 were accepted. All of the 62 students were from Texas. Of these, there were a total of 38 female residents and 24 male residents. One factor that was unaccounted for in the application and screening process was the number of credits a student would be entering the university with. Of the students enrolled in Fall 2005, 9 came in with no credits, 6 came in with 12, and one student reported a total of 63 credit hours.

At the end of Fall 2005 semester the program experienced students dropping the program for a total of eight. There were four who dropped the program after the first week, these students reported they were unaware of the number of activities planned and were afraid of missing classes. These students were on a pre-professional track. At the close of the semester, the student carrying 63 credits dropped, due to the increasing course load as a Junior. Prior to the beginning of the Spring semester three more dropped for various reasons.

Program Activities

The class met on a weekly basis for a 50 minute class period. During the course of the semester, topics were covered from the Bennis and Goldsmith (2003) text. As topics were covered in-hall workshops were designed specifically to complement the content and facilitated by graduate students in the Agricultural Education Department.

In addition to the classroom content, co-curricular activities were developed. The following summarizes each of the experience and the facilitation process.

In week one, students were guided through the Forming phase of Tuckman and Jensen's small group development model (1977). In this phase, students became acquainted with one another and creating relationships with other students. With that, the Ropes Course was chosen as a means to facilitate dialogue and trust among the students.

Academically students are being exposed to terminology and the role leadership will play in their futures, Chapter 1 of Bennis and Goldsmith (2003). Students are beginning to reach a common level of understanding, which will stabilize through the course of the semester.

Week two presented the challenges the Storming phase. This phase is often accompanied with feelings of insecurity and anxiety about the newly developing relationships. This phase covered three chapters of the course text, but the umbrella emphasis was for students to begin a self-awareness and self-recognition process. These two concepts associated with Emotional Intelligence provided students with tools to become better team mates, better leaders and better learners.

The activities included an E"RAS"E (Encouraging Respect, Acceptance, and Support through Education) program, to assist students in understanding the role of diversity in leadership and facing their own thoughts and feelings about diversity. The L3C partnered with the Office of International Programs to sponsor an Eating International Potluck. The intent of this program was to heighten their exposure to international cuisine and culture. At program conclusion students were asked to reflect on their experience.

The second planned activity for this phase was the StrengthsQuest™. StrengthsQuest™ leads each student in a discovery of his or her natural talents, and to unique and valuable insights into developing those talents into strengths. The student becomes better equipped to succeed, and to make effective decisions that enable him or her to balance the demands of class work with extra-curricular activities, job, and family (Gallup, 2005).

Half-way through the Fall Semester students entered the Norming phase. This phase, characterized by group development and cohesion, is often called the "Harmony" phase. At this time, students explored topics related to communication, trust and integrity. The first cocurricular activity students participated in was a day long trip to Austin, the state capital. Students were visited by the Former Speaker of the Texas House of Representatives, Pete Laney, along with two other state representatives.

The second day-long trip was to the Johnson Space Center in Houston. This trip specifically addresses the long history of the space program and what it has meant to maintain the vision of the space program, even through difficult times. Upon return students were asked to reflect upon their experience.

The fourth phase was Performing. It was at this time that student began to exhibit the merits of working through each of the phases. They had ample time to become acquainted, develop relationships, work on open honest communication and trust. The cocurricular activity for this segment focused on the George Bush Presidential Library. The library was selected due to its fit with the chapter addressing, "Realizing intention through action." President Bush's life depiction showed a gentleman who worked hard and strived to be a leader. This allowed students to see that our fullest potential to develop as a leader is often a result of many small wins. After the tour, students had guided discussion reflecting on their thoughts and feelings.

In concluding the semester, students worked through the final stage of Tuckman and Jensen's (1977) small group development model, Adjourning. This phase concludes the relationship which ended in a celebration. The final academic curriculum addresses evaluating success and creating evaluations. Students learned techniques and strategies for evaluating success of leadership and reflected on what the L3C experience meant to them in their quest for leadership. A banquet was held honoring and celebrating the accomplishments of all the students and faculty.

The second semester, Spring 2006, allowed for a much different application of the program. The students having completed one semester of courses and one semester of their leadership development curricula were faced with a new challenge. The task the instructors set before them was that of practice. All 54 students who selected to stay in the L3C, were enrolled in a class focused on peer mentoring. Using the text, Students Helping Students (Ender &

Newton, 2000), the one-hour a week curriculum was alternated with a hands-on mentoring project.

A partnership was developed with a local elementary school and the 54 L3C students were paired with younger girls and boys for a mentoring project. The L3C students had the opportunity to work with students either in school or as part of a soccer team. This experience allowed them to practice mentoring with the intent to prepare them for peer mentoring during their second L3C year, if they so chose.

Applications for year two are being prepared and the program is currently in the process of making adjustments in order to meet the needs of the second year students. The following section will provide for additional discussion.

Conclusions and Recommendations

There is nothing quite like the first year of a new university initiative. Looking back and taking all the learning opportunities in stride, the instructors do feel the first year was a success. Some of the first conclusions made about the success of the program deal primarily with retention of student participants. In the initial development of the L3C instructors planned for near 100 students. After completing the first year the instructors realized the complexity of the program, including co-curricular activities would have been difficult to accomplish with such a large number.

Second, the text book chosen, although seemingly appropriate at the time of selection was said by students to be, “too juvenile.” With that, the workbook nature of the text did not lend it self well to the freshmen students. Feedback also noted that the scenarios used throughout the text were not relevant and difficult to translate into something appropriate for the age of the students.

What was found was that the students enjoyed activities which provided them the opportunity to socialize and interact. From the Ropes Course to the International Potluck and the day-long excursion, the students seem to gain more from these experiences than anything provided in the book. However, it was noted by the instructors that the reflections of their experiences did reiterate the content being discussed in class from the text.

Another key area that was not examined fully enough during the planning phases was the use of Resident Hall Assistants and additional evening programming taking place in the residence halls. Instructors and staff feel short in this area, leaving the students with a great area of need. This is being taken into consideration for planning year two.

Baseline data is currently being collected to provide additional information as to the quantifiable success of the program. This includes leadership development using the Leadership Skills Inventory (Townsend, 1983), GPR calculation, persistence and campus involvement.

References

American Association for Higher Education. (1998, June). Powerful partnerships: A shared responsibility for learning (A Joint Task Force on Student Learning Report). Retrieved December 18, 2003, from http://www.aahe.org/teaching/tsk_frce.htm.

Anderson, J. (2004). Learning community and first year experience matrix (draft). Office of Institutional Assessment and Diversity, Texas A&M University.

Bennis, W. and Goldsmith, J. (2003). *Learning to lead: A workbook on becoming a leader* (3rd ed.). New York: Basic Books.

Brick, T.A. (1998). A national survey of ffa member's self-perceived leadership skills. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas.

Gabelnick, F., MacGregor, J., Matthews, R.S., and Smith, B.L. (1990). Learning communities: Creating connections among students, faculty and disciplines. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Hirst, G., Mann, L., Bain, P., Pirola-Merlo, A., & Richter, A. (2004). Learning to lead: The development and testing of a model of leadership learning. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 311-327.

Huber, N. S. (2002). Approaching Leadership Education in the New Millennium. *Journal of Leadership Education, 1(*1). 10 pages. http://www.fhsu.edu/jole/issues/JOLE_1_1.pdf.

Pike, G.R., Schroeder, C.C. & Berry, T.R. (1997). Enhancing the educational impact of residence halls: The relationship between residential learning communities and first-year college experiences and persistence. *Journal of College Student Development, 38*(6), 609-621.

Rotter, C.A. (2004). Self-perceptions of leadership skills & attitudes of sophomore student leaders. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas.

Shapiro, N.S. & Levine, J.H. (1999). *Creating learning communities: A practical guide to winning support, organizing for change, and implementing programs.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Smith, B.L., MacGregor, J., Matthews, R.S., and Gabelnick, F. (2004). Learning communities: Reforming undergraduate education. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Texas A&M University. (2005, January). A conceptual framework for learning communities at TAMU (draft).

Tinto, V. (1998). Learning communities: Building gateways to student success. *National Teaching and Learning Forum, 7*(4). Retrieved on February 28, 2006 from http://www.ntlf.com/html/lib/suppmat/74tinto.htm

Townsend, C. D., & Carter, R. I. (1983). The relationship of participation in FFA activities and leadership, citizenship and cooperation. *Journal of the American Association of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, 24*(1), 20-25.

Tuckman, B. and Jensen, Mary Ann. (1977). Stages of small-group development revisited. *Group & Organizational Studies, 2*(December), p.419-427.

Zhao, C.M. & Kuh, G.D. (2004). Adding value: Learning communities and student engagement. *Research in Higher Education, (45)*2, 115-138.

RESEARCH PRESENTATION PROPOSAL
2006 Annual Conference
Association of Leadership Educators, Inc.

1. Presenters and Contact Information:

Dr. Louann Waldner
Consultant & Trainer
A.D.D.I.E Group
3621 N. Carson Street
Visalia, CA 93291
Phone: 559.627.2607
Email: louannwaldner@aol.com

Dr. Bill Weeks
Professor, Ag Education
Oklahoma State University
458 Ag Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: 405.744.5129
Email: bill.weeks@okstate.edu

2. Title: Exploring the Connection between Organizational Culture and Leadership Using an Established AgriBusiness

3. Presentation Track: Research

4. Advertising Description:
This presentation offers results of a study which was designed to explore the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and four organizational culture constructs within an agricultural business. Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were used to order the data and examine the relationships.

5. Biographical Sketch:

Louann Waldner works a consultant and trainer for the A.D.D.I.E. Group which works with education and business clients on analyzing their human performance needs and then developing and implementing appropriate interventions. **Bill Weeks** is a professor of leadership and agricultural education at Oklahoma State University and served as Dr. Waldner's doctoral advisor.

6. Paper for Proceedings: See attached.

Exploring the Connection between Organizational Culture and Leadership Using an Established AgriBusiness

C. Louann Waldner
William G. Weeks

Department of Agricultural Education, Communications & Youth Development
Oklahoma State University

Introduction

Leadership is one of the most studied and analyzed aspects of working organizations (Bass, 1990, Trice & Beyer, 1993). It is featured in almost every textbook on organizational behavior (McFillen, 1977). Still, despite the numerous studies regarding leadership within organizations, scattered attention has been given to the role of leaders in the cultures of organizations (Schein, 1992; Trice and Beyer, 1993; House and Aditya, 1997). According to House and Aditya, the majority of research in leadership is concerned with leaders and followers, practically ignoring the situation (organization and culture) in which the leaders function.

The prompting by researchers to focus on organizational variables in leadership research is not a new fad. In 1977, Melcher wrote "leadership studies are unlikely to be of any additive value until they take into account organization variables" (p. 99). He added that organizational researchers should spend more time studying leadership models and leadership researchers should spend more time evaluating organizational models. In 1993, Trice and Beyer essentially indicated the same thing writing that most organizational culture analyses pay only minor attention to leadership while the analyses of leadership has never focused squarely on organizational cultures. Still, even with the prompting for research in this area, the hypotheses and propositions that describe the relationship between organizational culture and leadership are often not specific and the evidence to link the two is insufficient (Den Hartog, Van Muigen & Koopman, 1996).

The present study addressed the link between the constructs of leadership and organizational culture with an emphasis on Schein's (1992) observation that an established culture can begin to define leadership. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to learn about and describe the behaviors of leaders in an established organization and correlate their behaviors with the respective culture of their organization.

A correlational study cannot answer the question of whether the culture defines the leadership of the organization or whether the leadership established the culture. In other words, it cannot answer the question: "Is organizational culture a determinant of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors or vice versa?" However, the study does confirm or disconfirm other research regarding the relationship and provides additional insight into the relationships between the two constructs.

Literature Review

The concepts of transactional and transformational leadership as well as organizational culture have received much attention in the literature. Still many contend the linkage between the two constructs has not been systemically explored (Den Hartog et al., 1996; Trice & Beyer, 1993). The small body of research linking the two constructs focus on how leaders establish or change cultures (Trice & Beyer, 1991). In general, situational analysis of transformational and transactional leadership is lacking (Bryman, 1992).

Which Comes First, Culture or Leadership?

Does culture determine leadership behaviors or do leadership behaviors determine the culture? Leaders have been credited as the creators, transformers and managers of organizational cultures (Schein, 1992). However, over the years researchers have argued that the situational setting and organizational variables are crucial determinants of actual leader behavior (Fiedler, 1996; House & Aditya, 1997; Melcher, 1977; Singer & Singer, 1990). Bass & Avolio (1993) contend that an organization's culture develops in large part from its leadership while the culture of an organization can also affect the development of its leadership.

The search and identification of those traits, behaviors or situations that increase a leader's effectiveness has been a major concern for practitioners and researchers alike for the past several decades (House, 1971; see also Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). Schein's (1992) research on culture indicated that a new organization's culture is impacted by the leader or leader' of the organization. On the other hand, leaders entering organizations in which the culture was already established did not typically impact the culture in the same way. In the latter cases, it appears that the established culture began to define the leadership (Schein).

Person-Situation Debate

Do individual dispositions significantly influence behavior? Or, are situational forces alone sufficient to predict and explain behavior? Some theorists suggest that behaviors are consistent across situations (House, Shane & Herold, 1996) while others argue that behaviors are largely a result of the situation dictating the action taken (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). Still, some behavioral scientists contend that behavior is a function of the interaction of the person and situational characteristics (Lewin, 1951; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987; Terborg, 1981).

Early organizational researchers (Stodgill, 1948; Fleishman, 1953; McClelland, 1985) focused much effort on whether individual characteristics could be reliably used to measure and select individuals for leadership and various other roles in the organization. Individual dispositions (e.g. personality, values, motives, abilities) have been measured and related to organizational effectiveness (Epstein & O'Brien, 1985; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; McClelland, 1985; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1978; Staw & Ross, 1985).

Certainly, in the study of leadership, identifying traits associated with effective leadership is well documented in almost any text written about leadership (Bass, 1990; see also; Nahavandi, 2003; Northouse, 1997; Yukl, 1989).

Stodgill (1948) was one of the first researchers in the trait era who cast doubt on the validity of trait research (Bass, 1990). In his 1948 review of the literature he cast doubt on research findings that concluded personal factors to be the only determinant of leadership behaviors. His review suggested that personal factors associated with leadership are situation specific. Although Stodgill later revaluated his position on the significance of traits (in combination with the situation), his 1948 review is partially credited with the decline of trait-focused research and initiation of research on behavior and style (Bryman, 1992).

In contrast to traits theorists, situational theorists suggest that leadership is all a matter of situational demands. Situational theorists postulate that situational factors determine who will emerge as a leader. In other words, leadership does not reside in a person but was a function of the occasion. This situational view suggests that individuals such as Mahatma Ghandi, although very devoted to a cause, just happened to be at right place at the right time (Bass, 1990). In more recent years, there is a better understanding of how situations and behavior are related, with empirical evidence adding to the early theories and beliefs (Fiedler,1972, 1993; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Hill & Hughes, 1974; House &. Mitchell, 1974; Vroom & Jago, 1978).

Examples of more recent theories that incorporate situations into the framework are contingency theories. Contingency theories are based on the premise that the performance of an organization or group depends not only on the leader but the situation. The view suggests that there is no one best way to lead; but rather the type and style of leadership that are effective will depend on various situational contingencies (Nahavandi, 2003). Fiedler's contingency model is the oldest, most widely recognized and most highly researched model (Nahavandi, 2003) and was the first to specify how situational variables interact with leader personality and behavior (House & Aditya, 1997). In terms of leader effectiveness, the model suggests if the leader's style matches the situation, the leader will be effective and if the leader's style does not match the situation, the leader will not be effective.

In the early 1970s, interest in leadership traits reemerged with more theoretical justification for the study of individual dispositions as predictors for individual behavior. In particular this new focus helped to clarify when and how traits are likely to explain individual behavior (House & Aditya, 1997). For instance, Mischel (1973) introduced the concept of "strong" and "weak" situations with strong situations characterized as those with strong behavioral norms and clear expectations of the type of behavior that is rewarded or punished. He observed that people's expression of dispositions are more likely suppressed in strong situations, but expressed in weak situations. The strength of the situation was not considered during early leader trait studies.

Bem and Allen (1974) suggested that certain people are more likely to express certain traits than others. In other words, predicting behaviors is dependent on the person. House & Aditya (1997) added to that thought by hypothesizing that people high in self-monitoring are less likely to express themselves or their dispositions in certain situations because they are very aware of situational cues. However, if the person is low in self-monitoring, they are more likely to display their disposition regardless of the situation or situational cues. This theory is confirmed by Atwater & Yammarino (1992) who concluded that self-awareness should be considered in attempts to predict leader behavior and performance.

The 1970s resurgence of trait theory research again brought up the person-situation debate that was hotly contested in the early years of trait research (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1996; Shane, Herold, and House, 1996). However the debate has been considered useful in that it "has served as a corrective influence on two extreme views that were prominent during different time periods" and "has served to focus attention on the person as someone who actively selected and shapes situations" (Pervin, 1989, p. 352).

The interactional perspective of psychology which grew out of the person-situation debates in the late 1960's and early 1970's emphasizes that characteristics of people and of situations should be studied as joint determinants of individual attitudes and behaviors (Terborg, 1981). According to Pervin (1989), most personality psychologists today are interactionists although most still disagree about what interaction process to emphasize or whether the situation or disposition would provide the most return-on-investment for research studies.

Theoretical Basis for Study

The above summary of the person-situation debate does not give a specific theory that conclusively explains the determinants of leadership behavior. However, it does provide the evidence and framework for looking at both the person and the situation when trying to understand behaviors.

Coined the "new leadership approach" by Bryman (1992), the concept of transformational, inspirational and charismatic leadership emphasizes values, vision, and management of meaning. The emphasis on values, vision and meaning links this approach to organizational culture (Den Hartog et al, 1996) which has been described as "a set of core values, behavioral norms, artifacts and behavioral patterns which governs the way people in an organization interact with each other and invest energy in their jobs at the organization at large" (Van Muijen, Koopman, Dondeyne, De Cock & De Witte, 1992, p. 250).

Bryman (1992) indicates a problem with the "new leadership approach" is that too little attention has been given to situational analysis. Avolio and Bass (1995) concurred indicating that even though there is considerable evidence that leaders described by their followers as more transformational are likely to be more effective, "the situation and/or context in which the leader's behavior is embedded need to be included and systematically examined" (p. 201). According to Trice & Beyer (1991), a problem with organizational culture research is that the small amount research on the part that leadership plays in organizational culture is more often about how leaders establish or change cultures versus its role in cultural continuity or maintenance. The current study, however, explored the relationship between the situational construct, organizational culture, and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors within an established business.

Methods

Measures

Both culture data and leadership data were collected. Organizational cultures were measured using the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (OCAI) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)which classifies the survey participants' perceptions of the culture as a clan, adhocracy, market or hierarchy. Leadership behaviors were measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5X (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ is a measure of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors as well as passive/avoidant behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Population Measured

A census of employees from a regional agribusiness with multiple branch offices was conducted. Branch managers served as the "focal" leaders about whom leadership data were collected. The employees under the branch managers as well as the branch managers' colleagues and supervisors also were surveyed to gather information about the leadership style of the focal leader. In total, there were fifty-one responses used to calculate the MLQ scores for each of the eight focal leaders at the eight branch offices. The responses included eight self-ratings, eight ratings by individuals at a higher organizational level, eight ratings by individuals at the same organizational level and twenty-seven ratings by individuals at a lower organizational level. Thirty-seven out of a possible forty-two employees in the population responded to the MLQ (twenty-seven lower; two higher; eight self and same).

All employees in each branch office were surveyed to ascertain the organizational culture of their respective branch office. Thirty-five out of forty individuals in the population responded to the OCAI.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, ranges) were used to describe the leadership behaviors of the focal leaders and the culture of each branch office. Correlation analysis was performed to explore the relationships between organizational culture and leadership (transformational and transactional).

Magnitude versus statistical significance is used to describe the reported correlation coefficient (r value) (Miller, 1998). Pedhauzer (1997) indicates the importance of using tests of significance in proper perspective of the overall research endeavor. “Of what use is a statistically significant finding if it is deemed to be substantively not meaningful?” (Pedhauzer, 1997, p.26). Figure 1 (Davis, 1971) will be the basis for the correlation descriptions and discussion. The coefficient of determination (r^2) will be used to interpret the data in an effort to find the “substantive meaning” as described by Pedhauzer (1997) or “practical significance” as described by Miller (1998).

R	**Adjective**
1.0	Perfect
0.70-0.99	Very High
0.50-0.69	Substantial
0.30-0.49	Moderate
0.10-0.29	Low
0.01-0.09	Negligible

Figure 1. Descriptive representation of the correlation coefficient.[a]

---

[a] Davis, J.A. (1971) Elementary Survey Analysis. Englewood, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Findings

Demographic Data

All eight focal leaders (branch managers) were male with a mean age of 49 ranging from 38-57. They averaged 26.6 (ranging from 15-34) years in the workforce with an average of 25 years of service with their current employer. Six of the eight focal leaders had spent their entire career employed with their current employer although they were not asked if that career had been spent in their current branch office. Average years served in a managerial role was 13.5 ranging from 1-28 years. Seven of the eight had earned a Bachelor’s degree and one had earned the degree of Masters.

Raters at a lower organizational level included 15 men and 12 women with job responsibilities ranging from clerical and secretarial to professional and administrative duties.

Leadership and Culture Scores

The means, standard deviations and ranges for each factor of the Full Range Leadership Model are outlined in Table 1. The means were calculated from the thirty-seven MLQ scores obtained from the employees at the each of the branch offices (n=8).

The focal leaders' mean overall transformational score was higher than the transactional score (2.19 and 1.87, respectively). In addition, the highest mean scores for the focal leaders in this study were the transformational factors: Idealized Influence (Attributable) (M=2.33) and Individualized Consideration (M=2.31) as well as the transactional factor Contingent Reward (M=2.29).

Table 1
Full Range Leadership Scores as Measured by the MLQ (N=8)

Scale	M	SD	Range	Min	Max
Transformational	2.19	.37	0.83	1.70	2.71
Idealized Influence (Attributable)	2.33	.48	1.03	1.69	2.72
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	2.23	.33	0.94	1.75	2.69
Inspirational Motivation	2.10	.44	1.56	1.38	2.94
Intellectual Stimulation	1.97	.28	0.90	1.59	2.49
Individualized Consideration	2.31	.47	1.38	1.54	2.92
Transactional	1.87	.31	0.98	1.31	2.29
Contingent Reward	2.29	.38	1.30	1.46	2.76
Management-by- Exception (Active)	1.44	.29	0.87	2.03	2.16

Table 2 describes the mean culture scores as well as standard deviations for the eight branch offices within the population. Based on population means, hierarchy and clan were the two predominant organizational cultures in the population. When compared with the mean scores from each branch office (Table 3), four branch offices had hierarchy as their top culture while three others had clan at the top.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for OCAI (N=8)

Scale	M	SD	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Clan	30.12	7.54	25	18.33	43.33
Adhocracy	13.60	3.50	10.33	9.17	19.50
Market	24.17	4.53	15.58	18.17	33.75
Hierarchy	32.12	6.51	19.65	23.89	43.54

Note. A total of 34 employees responded to the OCAI.

Table 3
Mean Organizational Culture Score for Each Branch Office

Culture	Branch Offices							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Clan	30.00	29.17	43.33	33.17	18.33	19.79	33.00	34.17
Adhocracy	9.17	10.83	13.33	19.50	17.92	9.58	14.53	13.89
Market	22.50	24.72	19.44	22.83	33.75	27.08	18.17	24.86
Hierarchy	38.33	35.28	23.89	24.50	30.00	43.54	34.31	27.08
	N=2	N=3	N=6	N=5	N=2	N=4	N=7	N=6

Table 4 shows the relationship between the four organizational cultures and the five factors of transformational leadership. As outlined in figure 1, the magnitude of the relationship between clan culture and the factors of transformational leadership can be described as low to substantial. The clan culture is moderately related to the overall transformational score (r=.439) as well as the factors of Idealized Influence (Attributable) (r=.487) and Individualized Consideration (.357). A substantial relationship (r=.640) between culture and Idealized Influence (behavior) was also observed accounting for

41% of the variance in the relationship (r^2=.410). The total amount of variability shared between transformational leadership and clan culture was approximately 19%.

There was a negative correlation between the market culture and the transformational leadership factors with magnitudes ranging from moderate for Intellectual Stimulation (r=-.377) to very high for Idealized Influence-behavior (r=-.815). Overall, 48% of the variability was shared between the overall transformational score and the market culture.

Inconsistent with findings in other studies, a negative correlation between adhocracy culture and all five transformational leadership factors was found.

From a practical standpoint, there is little shared variability in the relationships between the hierarchal culture and transformational leadership factor scores.

Table 4
Simple Statistics and Correlation Analysis
Relationship of Transformational Leadership and Organizational Culture

Scale	N	M	SD	r by Scale			
				Clan	*Adhocracy*	*Market*	*Hierarchy*
Transformational	8	10.93	1.7555	.439	-.371.	-.693	.173
Idealized Influence (Attributable)	8	2.33	.477	.481	-487	-.714	.201
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	8	2.23	.325	.640	-074	-.815	-.135
Inspirational Motivation	8	2.10	.443	.249	-.390	-.424	.216
Intellectual Stimulation	8	1.97	.278	.191	-.036	-.377	.061
Individualized Consideration	8	2.31	.465	.357	-.446	-.671	.292
Clan	8	30.12	7.543				
Adhocracy	8	13.60	3.499				
Market	8	24.17	4.527				
Hierarchy	8	32.12	6.514				

N=8 branch offices (in total 37 employees)

Data in Table 5 reveal a low to negligible magnitude relationship between the transactional factors and the clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy cultures. Very little variability in these relationships was shared with no real practical significance existing.

Table 5
Simple Statistics and Correlation Analysis
Relationship of Transactional Leadership and Organizational Culture

Scale	N	M	SD	r by Scale			
				Clan	*Adhocracy*	*Market*	*Hierarchy*
Transactional	8	3.731	.579	-.047	.158	-.148	.072
Contingent Reward	8	2.295	.389	.101	.117	-.199	-.042
Management-by-Exception (Active)	8	1.440	.298	-.224	.155	-.028	.195

Discussion of Findings

The leaders studied in this project were mid-level managers. These leaders exhibited a range of full range leadership behaviors with various frequencies for the various behaviors. Overall, the leaders in this study exhibited a slightly higher overall transformational leadership score when compared with the overall transactional leadership score. However, it is important to note that among the individual factors, Contingent Reward (a transactional factor) is among the highest. Since transformational leadership has been shown to add to the effects of transactional leadership (not replace it) (Bass, 1985), training to increase the understanding of transformational leadership factors as well as Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception, could prove useful in improving effectiveness, satisfaction and performance. In a study of top performers versus ordinary managers in a U.S. corporation specializing in express delivery, Hater and Bass (1988) found that the individuals independently identified as “top performers” were rated higher on transformational leadership (by subordinates) than were the randomly chosen group of ordinary managers.

The predominant culture for each branch office is illustrated in the competing values framework (the theoretical model from which the organizational culture data was based) diagram shown in Figure 2. Hierarchy and clan were the two predominant organizational cultures in the population as determined by overall mean scores. As shown in Figure 9, seven of the branch offices studied are categorized as internally focused (Branches 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 & 8) while one is externally focused (Branch 5). Furthermore, five of the branch offices categorized their work environment as emphasizing stability and control (Branches 1, 2, 5, 6 & 7) over flexibility and discretion (Branches 3, 4 & 8).

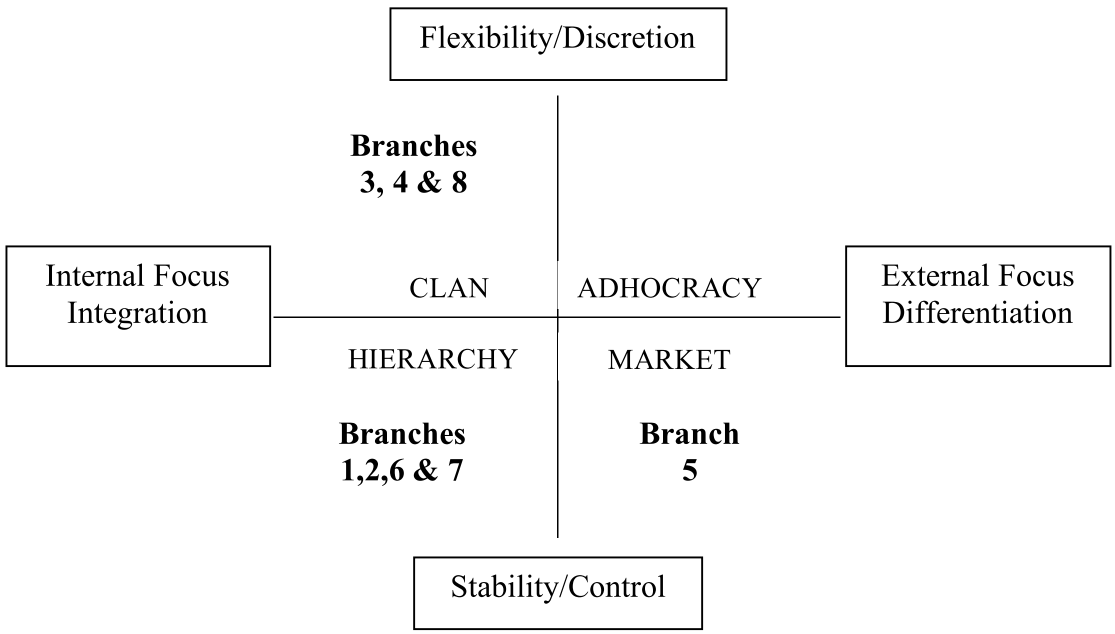


Figure 2. Categorization of the branch cultures within the competing values framework.

The leaders in this study had an average tenure in the current organization of 26 years with a range of 10-34 years. Average years in management were 13.5 with a range of 1-28. According to Quinn and Cameron (1999), the trend is for companies, over time, to gravitate toward the hierarchy and market cultures. Their studies have found that once an organization moves to the bottom half of the quadrant where the focus is stability and control, it is hard to move them to an adhocracy or clan culture (top quadrants emphasizing flexibility/discretion) without a great amount of effort and leadership. Although none of the branch offices in this study emphasized an adhocracy culture, the clan culture was the top culture identified by three of the organizations (Branches 3, 4, & 8; see Figure 9). Schein (1985) suggested that often culture manages management more than management manages culture. The current study is unable to shed light on if culture influenced the leader or if the leader influenced the culture. However, in light of the previous discussion it is worth noting the leaders of the branches that identified the clan culture as their dominate culture (Branches 3, 4 & 8) had 10, 22 and 28 years of management experience.

Quinn and Cameron's (1999) research would suggest that a more mature organization would gravitate to the lower quadrants. The results of this study show three branch offices (with managers with 10, 22 and 28 years of experience) to be in the top quadrant. A qualitative study is merited to discover if the leaders of these branch offices had spent their management years creating their clan culture or if they simply inherited and maintained that culture. As discussed by Trice and Beyer (1991), the social mechanisms through which leadership operates to create cultural innovation or change are not the same as those use to maintain that culture.

Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Clan Culture

There was a positive relationship between the clan culture and all of the transformational leadership factors including the overall transformational score. Den Hartog et al., (1996) also found a positive relationship between a supportive culture and transformational leadership in their study of 330 employees in five organizations.

Bass (1985) speculated that transformational leadership will most likely surface in organic organization versus mechanistic organizations. As described by Burns and Stalker (1961), mechanistic organizations have a formalized structure where members are expected to conform rather than innovate while organic structure members are expected to be innovative, creative and the climate is characterized as warm and trusting with a structure that is often unclear. A clan culture closely resembles an organic organization. It is often characterized as a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. Leaders are often mentors, attention to human development is emphasized and success is often defined by the relationships developed internally and with customers (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). As shown in Figure 9, an organization with this culture focuses on internal maintenance and flexibility.

The results of this study agree with suppositions made by Bass (1990) that the clan culture provides more potential for transformational leadership. Teasing out the individual transformational factors only furthers the understanding of the relationship. The specific transformational leadership factors of Inspirational Motivation and Intellectual Stimulation are related, but with a low magnitude accounting for only 6% and 3.6%, respectively, of the variation in the relationship whereas Idealized Influence (Attributable), Idealized Influence (Behavior) and Individualized Consideration accounted for 48% , 64% and 35.7% of the variation in the relationship, respectively. Given the characteristics of a clan culture, this differentiation between the factors Intellectual Stimulation versus Idealized Influence and Individualized Consideration is not surprising. Intellectual Stimulation represents the thoughtful aspects of the leader rather than the emphatic and developmental. Idealized Influence represents followers trust in the leader. Followers identify with the leader and the leader uses this to help develop the followers. Finally, leaders with higher Individual Consideration pay attention to the follower's needs and show empathy for their desires and development (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Adhocracy Culture

The adhocracy culture in this study was negatively correlated with all the transformational factors. The correlation between the adhocracy culture and overall transformational score and the factors of Idealized Influence (Attributable), Inspirational Motivation and Individualized Consideration were all moderate in magnitude but in a negative direction.

Contrary to the findings in this study, other researchers have found a positive relationship between the adhocracy culture and transformational leadership factors. Den Hartog et al., (1996) found a positive correlation between transformational leadership and culture with an innovative orientation while Pennington, Townsend & Cummins (2003) found a positive significant relationship between adhocracy and the two of the five leadership practices defined by Kouzes and Posner (1997). One possible explanation for this result could be related to the cultural stage of the organization in this study. Trice and Beyer (1991, 1993) propose that organizations are either in cultural maintenance or cultural innovation. The organizations in this study could be characterized as very stable organizations that do not undergo very much change. This is evidenced by the low turnover in the leaders' studied. The fact that the adhocracy culture was the least dominate culture in all eight organizations, gives rise to the supposition that the organizations in this study fall into a more cultural maintenance stage versus a cultural innovation stage.

In regards to leadership, Trice and Beyer (1991, 1993) propose that different types of leadership are needed at different stages of the process of formation, change and maintenance of culture. The major difference between leadership that produces cultural innovations from that which maintains existing cultures appears to be the nature of the vision and mission that the leader communicates to potential followers (Trice & Beyer, 1991). Even though the leaders in this study are more transformational than transactional, the transformational characteristics related to communicating a vision and mission (Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation) are still relatively low (in the range of sometimes to fairly often). Thus, even though the leaders are practicing some transformational leadership behaviors, they are still in an organization where entrepreneurship and risk-taking are not valued (low adhocracy culture).

Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Market Culture

There was a negative relationship between all five transformational leadership factors and the market culture. This is in agreement with Pennington et al., (2003) who found a negative relationship with all five of Kouzes and Posner's leadership practices. The magnitude of the relationships vary from moderate to very high with 48% of the variability shared between the overall transformational score and the market culture. The shared variability between the market culture and the individual factors is as follow: 51% for Idealized Influence (Attributable), 66% for Idealized Influence (Behavior), 45% for Individualized Consideration, 18% for Inspiration Motivation and 14% for Intellectual Stimulation.

The market culture focuses on external factors and the need for stability and control. Organizations with this culture are described as results-oriented with competitive and goal-oriented people who focus on winning and define success as the amount of market share achieved (Cameron & Quinn,1999). In contrast, a transformational leader attempts to focus on development and not just performance including being attentive to individual and organizational needs (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Hierarchy Culture

The relationships between the hierarchy culture and the components of transformational leadership have negligible to low correlations accounting for 1.8% to 8.5% of the variation in the relationship. The low to negligible correlations are consistent with the findings of Den Hartog et al., (1996) who found that a culture with a rules orientation correlated higher with transactional than transformational leadership. An organization with a hierarchal culture is concerned about stability, formal rules and policies and predictability whereas transformational behaviors are characterized as more adaptative (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003).

Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Clan Culture

The relationship between clan culture and transactional leadership was negligible. This result is consistent with Bass's (1985) speculation that transactional leadership is more likely to appear in mechanistic organizations than in organic organizations. An organization with a clan culture more closely follows the characteristics of an organic organization where the goals and structure are flexible and members are highly educated and innovative (Singer & Singer, 1990).

Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Adhocracy Culture

There was a very low correlation between the adhocracy culture and transactional leadership. Only 2.5% of the variability is accounted for in the relationship. For all practical purposes, there is no relationship in which to discuss. However, since adhocracy is described by flexibility, discretion and external maintenance and transactional leadership is favored in stable and orderly environments, it is easy to see why the relationship is basically non-existent.

Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Market Culture

There was a negative relationship between market culture and transactional leadership components. This result is contrary to the literature where Den Hartog et al., (1996) found that both transactional and transformational leadership were significantly related to a goal oriented culture with transactional leadership having a higher correlation coefficient.

Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Hierarchy Culture

Contrary to Den Hartog et al., (1996), the hierarchy culture did not correlate higher with transactional than with transformational leadership. In fact, transactional leadership accounted for 0.5% of the variability while transformational leadership accounted for 3%. Although both relationships were low to negligible with no practical significance, it was surprising that the transactional leadership was not more correlated with the hierarchal culture.

Summary of Discussion

Figure 3 is a summary of the relationships between organization culture and full-range leadership behaviors including whether the result was expected or not expected based on the findings in the literature.

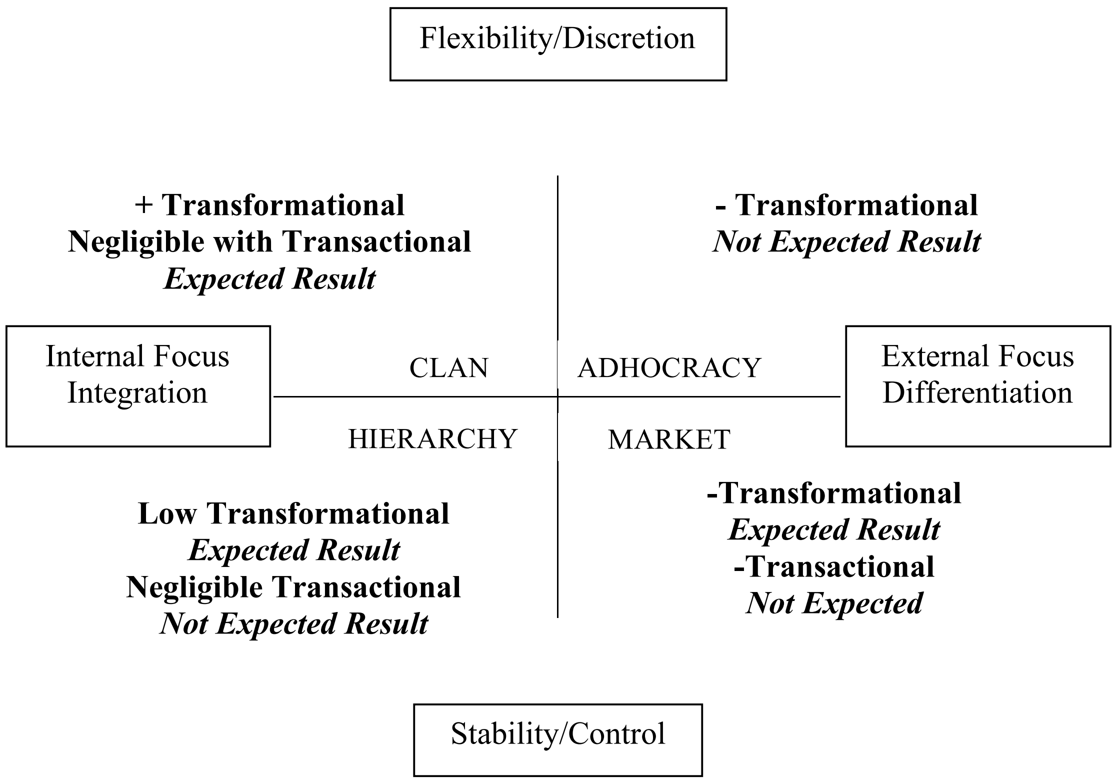


Figure 3. Summary of the relationships between organization culture and full-range leadership behaviors using the competing values framework.

In agreement with other studies, there was a positive relationship between the clan culture and all of the transformational leadership factors including the overall transformational score. Contrary to other research studies, the adhocracy culture in this study was negatively correlated with all the transformational factors. There was a negative relationship between all five transformational leadership factors and the market culture. The correlations between the hierarchy culture and the components of transformational leadership were negligible to low. Contrary to the literature, there was a negative relationship between market culture and transactional leadership components and a very low relationship between transactional leadership and the hierarchy culture. Finally, there was an unexpected positive relationship between passive/ avoidant leadership and both the adhocracy and market cultures in this study.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this study agree with suppositions made by Bass (1990) that the clan culture provides more potential for transformational leadership. Idealized Influence (Behavior), Idealized Influence (Attributable) and Individual Consideration are the specific components most highly correlated with the clan culture. It is recommended that practitioners focus attention on those specific components of a leader's behavior if they are interested in helping leaders create a clan culture.

This study found a negative relationship between adhocracy and transformational leadership. More research is needed to explore why the results of this study are contrary to other research findings that have found a positive relationship between the adhocracy culture and transformational leadership. A specific hypothesis by this researcher of why there might be conflicting results is related to the cultural stage of the current organization. Trice and Beyer (1991, 1993) propose that organizations are either in cultural maintenance or cultural innovation. The organization in this study is very stable with very little changes occurring and could be classified as an organization in cultural maintenance. Perhaps the members of an organization in cultural maintenance do not value the risk taking and entrepreneurial behaviors associated with the adhocracy culture, and; therefore, do not equate behaviors needed to create an adhocracy culture as transformational. A recommendation for future research is to consider the cultural stage of an organization as a mediating factor.

The results of this study show three branch offices (with managers with 10, 22 and 28 years of experience) in the top quadrant of the competing values framework (specifically, clan culture). A recommendation for further research with the current organization is a qualitative study to discover if the leaders of these branch offices spent their management years creating a clan culture or if they simply inherited and maintained that culture. As discussed by Trice and Beyer (1991), the social mechanisms through which a leadership operates to create cultural innovation or change are not the same as those use to maintain that culture.

In order to understand the on-going interactions between leaders and culture, this author recommends a line of study that focuses on how individuals shape their environments. Understanding the type and degree of the relationship between certain leadership behaviors and organizational culture is a start. However, to understand whether transformational leader behavior creates a certain culture or whether the culture brings out leaders that are more transformational, a qualitative study, preferably longitudinal, is recommended. The specific conclusions, hypotheses and recommendations listed will help guide future research.

REFERENCES

Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1992). Does self-other agreement on leadership perceptions moderate the validity of leadership and performance predictions? *Personnel Psychology, 45*, 141-164.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1995). Individual consideration viewed at multiple levels of analysis: A multi-level framework for examining the diffusion of transformational leaders. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*, 199-218.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire manual and sampler set.* Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden, Inc.

Bass, B. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly, 17,* 112-122.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 207-218.

Bem, D. & Allen, A. (1974). On predicting some of the people some of the times: The search for cross situational consistencies in behavior. *Psychological Review, 81*, 506-520.

Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations.* London: Sage.

Burns, T. & Stalker, G. M. (1961). *The management of innovation.* Chicago: Quadrangle Books.

Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework*. New York: Addison Wesley.

Davis, J.A. (1971). *Elementary survey analysis.* Englewood: Prentice-Hall.

Davis-Blake, A., & Pfeffer, J. (1989). Just a mirage: The search for dispositional effects in organizational research. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 14*, 385-400.

Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muigen, J. J., & Koopman, P. L. (1996). Linking transformational leadership and organizational culture. *The Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*, 68-83.

Epstein, S. & O'Brien, E. J. (1985). The person-situation debate in historical and current perspectives. *Psychological Bulletin*, *98*, 513-537.

Fiedler, F. E. (1972). Personality, motivational system, and the behavior of high and low LPC persons. *Human Relations, 25*, 391-412.

Fiedler, F. E. (1996). Research on leadership selection and training: One view of the future. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*, 241-251.

Fleishman, E. A. (1953). The measurement of leadership attitudes in industry. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *37*, 153-158.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 16, 250-279.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources.* (5^{th} ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hill, W. A. & Hughes, D. (1974). Variations in leader behaviors as a function of task type. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *11*, 83-96.

House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*, 321-338.

House, R. J. & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management, 23*, 409-473.

House, R. J., Shane, S. A., & Herold, D. M. (1996). Rumors of the death of dispositional research are vastly exaggerated. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 21*, 203-224.

Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Lewin, D. (1951). *Field theory in social science.* New York: Harper & Row.

McClelland, D. (1985). How motives, skills, and values determine what people do. *American Psychologist, 40*, 812-825.

McFillen, J. M. (1977). The organizing and managing of organizational behavior: A review of first edition organizational behavior texts. *Academy of Management Review*, *2*, 355-359.

Melcher, A. J. (1977). Leadership models and research approaches. In J.G Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge* (pp. 94-108). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Miller, L. E. (1998). Appropriate analysis. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *39*(2), 1-10.

Mischel, W. (1973). Toward cognitive social learning reconceptualization of personality. *Psychological Review, 80*, 252-283.

Nahavandi, A. (2003). *The art and science of leadership* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Northouse, P. G. (1997). *Leadership theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

O'Reilly, C. A., III & Roberts, K. H. (1978). Individual differences in personality, position in the organization, and job satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 14*, 144-150.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioral research.* (3rd ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Pennington, P., Townsend, C., & Cummins, R. (2003). The relationship of leadership practices to culture. *Journal of Leadership Education, 2*(1), 1-18.

Pervin, L. A. (1989). Persons, situations, interactions: The history of a controversy and a discussion of theoretical models. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 14*, 350-360.

Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Josey-Bass Inc.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology, 40*, 437-453.

Shane, S. A., Herold, D. M., & House, R. J. (1996). Situational determinism--one step forward, two steps back? *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 21*, 343-345.

Singer, M. S., & Singer, A. E. (1990). Situation constraints on transformational versus transactional leadership behavior, subordinates' leadership preference, and satisfaction. *Journal of Social Psychology, 130,* 385-396.

Staw, B. M. & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70-469-480.

Stodgill R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology.* 25, 35-71.

Terborg, J. R. (1981). Interactional psychology and research on human behavior in organizations. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 6*, 569-576.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1991). Cultural leadership in organizations. *Organization Science, 2*, 149-169.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). *The cultures of work organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Van Muijen, J. J., Koopman, P. L., Dondeyne, P., DeCock, G., DeWitte, K. (1992). Organizational culture, the development of an international instrument for comparing countries. *Proceedings of the 2nd European Congress of Psychology.* 249-258.

Vroom, V. H. & Jago, A. G. (1978) On the validity of the Vroom-Yetton model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63, 151-162.

Yukl, G. A. (1989). *Leadership in organizations* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Singapore: Pearson Education.