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Echoes of Leadership Education: Reflections on Failure, Forgetting and Our Future

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Abstract

Despite the popularity of leadership education on college campuses, little is known about what individual participants learn and remember. This longitudinal study examines the impact of a leadership education retreat through the eyes of six undergraduate college men. Entry and exit interviews, along with intensive one and two year follow-up interviews, were conducted. Cross case analysis reveals that leadership identity was reshaped by perceived personal failure during crisis. Longitudinal analysis suggests that students attribute improved leadership capabilities less to leadership education than to their own development and leadership experiences. This study questions the value of stand-alone or short-term leadership education models and suggests new curricular approaches to leadership education that incorporate potential future crucible experiences.

Introduction

In an era when leadership education supporters are trying to justify their inclusion on the college or high school campus, it is clear that claims of the efficacy and importance of this type of curriculum have not been adequately substantiated. The literature offers evidence that is sparse, weak, too general, and unable to prove programs' claims of impact on individual students over time.

A growing chorus of researchers are calling for more and better evaluations of the impact of leadership education programs and courses (Bell, 1994; C. Brungardt, 1996; C. L. Brungardt, 1997; Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 2000; Endress, 2000). In McMillon's review of leadership education programs, for example, she found that those providing leadership education programs felt they were successful, but there was not sufficient evaluation processes or documentation to support this claim (McMillon, 1997). McDade found that what little evaluation is done in the campus setting is almost completely addressed through self-reported, anecdotal commentary with virtually no empirical evidence (McDade, 1994). Another problem with recent assessment data is that it is almost always a programmatic evaluation with little comment on how these programs impact the lives of specific students (C. Brungardt, 1996; Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 2000; McDade, 1994).

In relation to academic settings, there is concern about the virtual nonexistence of investigations that look at the impact of academic leadership courses on individual students (C. L. Brungardt, 1997). Several researchers report that while single day or short programs were often ineffective on leadership behaviors of participants, when provided an extended and sustained class on leadership, students reported that their attitude and leadership behaviors were different after class (Cummins, 1995; Townsend, 2002). This belief in the stronger impact of a more extended academic exposure on student recollection of leadership theory, skills, and practice is supported by other studies (Endress, 2000; Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005). Endress found that completion of a leadership class enhanced the ability of the participants to engage in relational leadership. Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt reported one of the strongest cases for the positive impact of leadership education on students. In their extensive longitudinal study of 875 students at 10 colleges and universities, they found that leadership participants showed growth in civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, understanding of leadership theories, and personal and societal values (2001). Though it did not include individual student voice, this study was especially helpful for the field because it incorporated a longitudinal measure that gathered data at the time students entered college and again through their fourth year of college.

Of course, any excitement about the impact of leadership education is tempered by the results that show little or no impact. Several recent studies report the ineffectiveness of leadership education on college campuses (Cummins, 1995; Montgomery, 2002; Townsend, 2002). These have found there is little evidence that one-shot programs, while they often add awareness of leadership theory, practices, and styles, are effective in true learning and behavior changes (Faulkner, 1997; Townsend, 2002).

Many in the research community call for longitudinal studies that are qualitative in nature, especially the use of interviews before and after a leadership education experience. For conceptual and methodological reasons, longitudinal research remains uncommon in the leadership education literature (C. L. Brungardt, 1997; McDade, 1994; McMillon, 1997; Ployhart, Holtz, & Bliese, 2002; Pugh, 2000; Russon & Reinelt, 2004). One related concern is that those who measure the impact of leadership education do so within a specific framework at a point in time. Most scholars of higher education would argue that maturation in college occurs across a broad range of constructs and is developmental in nature (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Leadership educators do not usually measure the individual development of students and when they do, this measurement is often merely self-rating on a scale on very specific components of leadership. Laid out by the teacher, host academic institution, or leadership theorist, what they consider evidence of leadership can be limited and static.

Methodology

College men from the U.S. and Canada have participated in *The Institute for Men of Principle* on a midwestern campus since 1999. Each summer undergraduate members of the host fraternity gather for sessions of this leadership training institute. Each session runs for five days and includes about 60-80 participants. These students are selected to attend in a variety of ways. For the most part, the process is one of self-selection. *The Institute* is advertised in mailings, a website, and in personal recruitment efforts, and up to six members per chapter/college are allowed to attend one of three summer sessions. For those who do not self-select, these participants are often recruited by local alumni, former participants who currently are leaders within chapters, staff members of the fraternity, and university student affairs personnel who are aware of *The Institute*. Usually, the undergraduates have shown some leadership potential by holding an office in a chapter or on campus and they seek to accentuate their skills and abilities.

After permission was granted by the host fraternity to use the 2001 *Institute* as a site for research, all students scheduled to attend received an invitation, introducing this research and briefly describing the aim of the study--to garner their thoughts about leadership before and after *The Institute*. The requirements of participating were spelled out, which essentially included agreeing to arrive early and stay late so as to be able to participate in entry and exit interviews

Participants

Of the 60 registered participants in this session, six responded that they would like to be involved in the research, which was approximately the intended sample size. The low response rate was surprising and could limit findings. The students who approached me about why they did not volunteer for this study cited being too busy overall or that they were getting ready to take final exams at the time they received the invitation. Each of the six participants was an undergraduate office holder in his fraternity, with a variety of other leadership experiences in and out of school settings. They were all white males ranging from 20-22 years old at the time of the first round of interviews. Other than what is noted above, few similarities in appearance were observed. Some of the six students were tall, others short. Most of the participants had athletic builds, but some are slender. A few had the “look” of a leader, while others did not.

All of the students attending *The Institute* are members of the same social fraternity. Like other greek letter social fraternities, these young men have committed themselves to uphold certain values, norms, and practices. Integrity, wisdom, honor, brotherhood, mutual support, and academic achievement are common among almost all fraternities on North American campuses. Students in fraternities are generally responsible for the recruitment and training of new members, maintaining the chapter organization and operations, conducting educational ritual, caring for a property, and making a contribution to the greater community. This is, of course, in frequent contrast to the real or imagined fraternity experience. Beta Theta Pi, the fraternity that sponsors *The Institute for Men of Principle,* came to a position in 1997 where it wanted to address the large gap between what the founding values of the fraternity were and the behavior that so often was the norm in chapters on campus. *The Institute* is a cornerstone of the *Men of Principal Initiative* launched in 1999 designed to restore values of scholarship, ethics, and service and ethics to fraternal life. These values help shape notions of leadership and the curriculum offered.

Another contextual factor that impacts what the participants may bring to *The Institute* is their status as being late adolescents and early adults. Developmentally, many are at a stage where they are clarifying their identities on a number of different levels, only one of which is the role of leader. This process of identity formation influences leadership definitions and behaviors and is seen throughout the interviews.

The Institute

It is important to highlight that organizers of *The Institute* set a domain of what leadership constitutes and applies this conceptual understanding, mostly, to leading a collegiate fraternity. *The Institute* emphasizes the five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership presented by Kouzes and Posner (1995) in *"The Leadership Challenge"*: Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). No direct link or mention was made as to whether or not this approach to leadership fit other leadership contexts or theoretical models. There is a possibility that the undergraduates might walk away thinking this curriculum was meant to apply to multiple theoretical conceptions of leadership and to all varieties of leadership activities and contexts.

The Institute is designed so that large group sessions and small group sessions are rotated throughout. In addition, there are a host of experiential learning activities and journal writing assignments. Each participant is assigned a "chapter" and stays with that small group throughout the programming.

Knowing that following the participants I had interviewed would enhance my research, I had asked that those who were participating in the study be placed in the same small group. Five of the six were placed in *Institute* Chapter One for this purpose. One member was not because he was from the same university as another participant in this study, and the facilitators follow the practice of separating students from the same university. With permission from the facilitators and clarity about my role as observer, I was assigned to Chapter One. I made a presentation to all of the facilitators during their pre-*Institute* training session. During this I outlined the nature of my study and answered general questions. After this I met separately with the co-facilitators of Chapter One to further clarify my role as an observer. They expressed some concern about how I would be viewed in the group and asked if they could address the issue during the first meeting of the small group.

Data Collection – Round One

Arrangements were made for each of the six participants to arrive the night before the start of *The Institute*. The interviews were conducted at the international headquarters of the fraternity. This allowed for a quiet setting and privacy that was conducive for audio recording. These six entry interviews were conducted in the afternoon and evening and lasted from 45 to 75 minutes each. Each participant signed a consent form allowing for the taping of the interview and for the use of their actual names in all parts of this paper and any subsequent publications.

I observed participants through almost the entire five-day *Institute*. The only time I was not present was during one morning session when I was reviewing the audiotapes from the initial interviews. I took extensive notes, which I recorded in a field note journal. Some examples of these would include descriptions of the activities, comments from the participants that related to issues raised in the entry interviews, and personal reflections on group dynamics. I was careful throughout not to interfere in the dynamics of the activities, though I certainly sensed on the first day or two that they were sensitive to being observed.

After *The Institute* concluded I conducted four exit interviews, once again recorded off campus at the fraternity's headquarters. Because of flight schedules and other conflicts, the final two interviews were conducted the following two weeks. One was done in person in my office at The University of Michigan, and the other was an arranged phone interview.

Data Reduction and Analysis – Round One

Upon completion of the interviews, professional transcriptions were made. The next step taken before analysis was to clean up the transcriptions so they accurately reflected the words and references used. In addition, I transcribed my field notes. All the transcripts were further prepared by formatting the documents to leave large margins on the right side for analysis and notes. Once this was complete I began analysis. For data analysis, I used procedures recommended by Cresswell in *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions* (1999; 1998). The first step was to read the 155 single-spaced pages of interview transcripts from round one (interviews before and immediately after the retreat) without making notations. The range in length of the transcripts reflected individual speaking styles and the degree to which the participants felt particularly moved or emotional about a question. Examples of this are when the participants voiced criticisms of the lack of real-world applicability of the curriculum and the shared episodes and epiphanies that were part of their crucible of leadership.

The same coding process cited above was followed with the 14 pages of field notes. Next, I read the transcripts again and highlighted words and phrases that struck me as important, guided by concepts from leadership theory. In the next reading I wrote key words and phrases in the margin on the right side, then I constructed a concept map of my margin notes. This concept map served to help me create the emergent codes that were used in qualitative analysis using NUDist software. The process of coding was emic in that I allowed the themes to emerge, rather than creating them *a priori* based on the literature on leadership. My knowledge of the literature combined with key words and themes that emerged from the initial phase of analysis to produce the emergent themes that would serve as a core throughout. These include: Socialization (family, religion, role models, sports); Styles of Leadership (servant, superficiality, power); Therapeutic Aspects; Acquisition and Congruence of Role; Curricular Impact; and Fraternity. The codes of Development/Life Cycle and Crucible of Leadership were added after the follow-up interviews one year later.

One problem that surfaced in the initial round of coding was that I had not adequately segregated out power as a theme. I had hoped to reflect this dynamic in styles of leadership. By the middle of coding the second participant I realized I needed to add power, so I recoded what I had previously done.

Once the entire database was coded I began a systematic analysis of the data. I created a matrix for each participant reflecting his answers to each of the seven main questions before and after the experience. This allowed me to track how each participant was responding to the common questions. After studying the answers organized in this manner, I added a column to the right to monitor changes in answers and emergent themes before and after *The Institute*.

Through two intensive interviews and five days of field notes, I had uncovered many of the participants' attitudes and beliefs about leadership, related key relationships and life experiences that shaped their definition, and captured epiphanies about their life and world view as it related to leadership. I witnessed them learning about leadership concepts and watched them as their ideas evolved. I also had a sense of their motivations to lead and models of leadership they had learned. However, at this point in the data analysis, I became concerned that my entry point--the experience of each individual, might cause me to miss something had I looked at the data from the perspective of the emergent themes. If I entered the analysis via the themes rather than participants, might I uncover commonalities or inconsistencies? This led me to then create a data report of emergent themes that ran across the 12 interviews and field notes. I no longer was looking to the individual stories but rather the story of the common themes. I repeated the same process of analysis related earlier: reading through 155 pages of script organized by emergent themes, highlighted key sections, made margin notes of key words, and created a concept map of key words. After completing this process, though time consuming, I was confident that I had, indeed, captured with sufficient depth and understanding the emergent themes and changes within the context of the individual case study. I decided, then, to use the lens of the individual participant by presenting short case studies to illustrate the emergent themes and findings.

One Year Follow Up

In the months that followed my initial rounds of interviews, and as I thought about the nature of my study, the question that was left unanswered was, "What learning from the *Institute* experience actually sticks with the students?" "What impact would we find over time?" After consulting the extant literature in the field I discovered that we know virtually nothing about these questions. What became clear was the need for a longitudinal study of the impact of leadership education on students. In my study I would attempt to address the limitations cited in the field and set claims about the impact of leadership education against the deep narrative of six student participants. To do this, I approached the original six participants again and ask them to participate in one year and two year follow-up interviews. Believing things are lost in phone interviews, I made arrangements to conduct the second round of interviews at various locations around the country: Vancouver, Washington; Ann Arbor, Michigan; Nisqually, Washington; Dallas, Texas; Seattle Washington; and Knoxville, Tennessee. Once again, each participant signed a consent form allowing for the taping of the interview and for the use of his actual name in all parts of this paper and any subsequent publications. One participant asked that his last name not be used this time. He has an eye on a political career and did not want to take any chances that things he was about to reveal would be used against him in any way in the future. These follow-up interviews were conducted between June 2 and June 22, 2002, roughly 13 months after each had originally attended the *Institute.* The six interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes each. They took place in a variety of private locations to ensure minimal interruptions or distractions.

In each interview I returned to the key questions I had asked during round one before and after the *Institute.* By doing so I would be able to directly compare how the participants talked about their experiences 13 months earlier. I, however, attempted to cast a wider net this time by asking them to talk at length about their leadership experiences in the past year. The first three questions focused on their specific experiences as a leader and the following five focused on their remembrances of *The Institute*.

The interviews were then sent off for transcription and the 157 single-spaced pages were coded and analyzed in the manner described earlier. After initial analysis of the transcripts I made changes to the coding structure. The key change in analysis was that I added codes for Developmental/Life Cycle references, and stories about a Crucible of Leadership. Each of these were new and consistent themes that appeared in round two of the interviews. All participants spoke at length about their belief that growing up and maturing were the key ingredients to becoming a better leader. Each of the participants also experienced a crisis or crucible in their leadership in the year following *The Institute* that had a dramatic impact on how he spoke about leadership and his image of himself as a leader.

Two Year Follow Up

I followed the same procedure in the final round of interviews as in the previous round. I again interviewed each of the participants in person during the months of February and March of 2003. These interviews took place in Salem, Oregon; Ann Arbor, Michigan; Pullman, Washington; Chicago, Illinois; and Cincinnati, Ohio. Permission slips were also collected again at the start of each session. This represented, on average, a 21-month span between the first interview in Oxford and the final one. I also let each of the six participants know that the possibility exists for me to follow them for future study.
At this point I followed the same procedure as before and had the interviews professionally transcribed. Following this I cleaned up the transcripts, coded the 135 pages of single-spaced interviews, and analyzed the data across coding themes for comparative purposes. This methodological process facilitated my desire to present each of the six participants as individual case studies within a multiple case study approach.

I asked the participants to take a 15-minute break at the end of each two year follow-up interview. During this time I reflected on the themes I had observed in each over time. This was an opportunity for me to reflect with the students and share some of my key observations. I was able to garner their reactions to my general perceptions and discuss their ideas as well. This exercise served as a cursory member check.

Methodological Paradigm

This study follows recommended procedures for case study research. I acknowledge that there are facets of multiple case study research design (data collection, coding and analysis, establishing trustworthiness) that overlap with grounded theory as discussed in the literature (E. Guba & Lincoln, 1981; E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Strauss, 1998). I stop short of claiming grounded theory, however, because I do not claim substantive or context-specific theory. It is my hope in future research to come to grounded theory once I have expanded my investigation in a variety of contexts. This idea of turning case study into grounded theory is appropriate in the qualitative paradigm (J. W. Creswell, 1998).

Cross Case Analysis And Discussion

What will follow are six cases that highlight the coherence of experience the participants had around the themes that emerged in the interviews. First, I present *The Crucible of Leadership* as experienced by each participant. This section represents the key crisis in leadership that each student experienced. I expected to see that the experience of leading would transform these young men, as Burns suggests (Burns, 1996). I, however, did not expect that the transformation would hinge around a key failure that became an opportunity for self-reflection and growth. Recently, Bennis reported this same phenomenon while studying older successful leaders in America (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). Each of these leaders experienced a significant crucible as a leader that had a lasting impact on his views of leadership and his image of self as a leader.

Next, I look at how each student speaks about the *Impact of The Institute* over time. Pugh (2000) and others have reported early upward bumps in self-assessed leadership scales taken immediately following a leadership retreat. This study was not designed to address these issues. I present these cases as *telling cases*, borrowing generally from several researchers in the field of discourse analysis (Gee & Green, 1998; Mitchell, 1983, 1984). When I present a case, it is for the purpose of broad comparison and possible presentation of grounded theory rather than deep ethnographic analysis. By doing this I attempt to make theoretically visible what had not necessarily been visible before.

In order to highlight the experiences of the participants across the emergent themes, I present two tables. The first table (1.1) *The Crucible of Leadership* represents the unifying phenomenon that each of these students experience—a crisis and perceived failure in their leading that caused them to evolve in their thinking about leadership and their style of leadership. The second table (1.2) summarizes the *Impact of The Institute* on the participants based on how the students described the experience. These tables are arranged thematically across each of the six participants (Tyler, Brad, Dan, Kevin, Mike, and Nick). They contain critical summative information from the appropriate interviews. The table representing *The Impact of The Institute* was drawn from all four interviews. *The Crucible of Leadership* table includes information from the one and two year follow-up interviews.

The Crucible of Leadership

Table 1.1

Cross Case Comparison – The Crucible of Leadership

Tyler	Brad	Dan	Kevin	Mike	Nick
-Chapter alcohol crisis during Sophomore year -Lost credibility as leader and withdrew; almost quit -Decided personal goals were higher than group goals at the time -Eventually re-engaged and became a contributor -Teamed up with rivals with different leadership style; learned from each other	-Two accused sexual assaults during "his" chapter party Sophomore year -Leader can't just be worker, must improve organization -As President he succumbed to peer pressure and lost integrity -Realized he couldn't control group; received hate mail -Withdrew as leader, working on personal goals -Didn't feel guilt then, does now	-Personal injury led to removal as fraternity officer -Became alienated and separated; Junior year "breakdown" -Kicked out of university; reinstated -Connected with dad and reminded he must be grounded as a person first -Now takes comfort in informal leadership positions; allows him to connect without all the pressure	-President during major fight at fraternity during Junior year; police and university involved -Feeling overloaded led to collapse; did not reach out for help -Couldn't deal with all the stress; "house of cards" crumbled -Crash helped him relax and realize he can't do it all himself -Became less rigid in beliefs about leadership, life and religion	-Chapter alcohol crisis Sophomore year -Choosing sides meant losing friends; replayed old family dynamic -Major confrontation with coaches about his role on football team -Became alienated and disillusioned; withdrew -Learned how and when to challenge authority; reliance on emotion was not helpful as a leader	-Father died 16 days before one-year follow up interview -Learned to really cherish his father's style of leadership; unselfish and non-judgmental -Impacted by show of love at funeral -Wants to fill his father's shoes -Learned to care more about people as a leader; didn't really do so as a younger leader

The idea that leaders are shaped by defining moments in their life is not a new one. Countless biographies and autobiographies provide evidence that one's views of leadership can crystallize and change with key life experience. Leadership researchers Warren Bennis and Robert Thomas (2002), in *Geeks & Geezers: How Era, Values, and Defining Moments Shape Leaders*, studied highly successful leaders under thirty-five and over seventy years of age. They report that all successful leaders were shaped by one major event or epiphany—crucibles of leadership. This corresponds to the findings in this study as each of the six participants reported a personal failure as a leader during a crisis or crucible of leadership that reshaped their views. Tyler withdrew from the fraternity and almost quit—eventually reengaging in a new way. Brad withdrew his final semester and had virtually nothing to do with the fraternity. Instead, he worked on personal and career goals. This was true of Dan and Kevin as well. Dan was removed from leadership roles and eventually reengaged in a more informal way. Kevin collapsed and was forced to employ a more collaborative model. Mike's crucible enabled him to adopt a different leadership style altogether and team up with former adversaries to create a much more effective model. Nick's crucible led him to appreciate and incorporate relational and nurturing facets of leadership.

A key experience impacted the organization of meaning around leadership for each of these young men. It is also evident that all six participants paid a heavy price for being a leader. Leaders have long been conflicted by competing values and the needs of a variety of constituencies. Student leaders are no different. In the end, all became more flexible and collaborative. Clearly a transformation had taken place in each. This relates to the work of Burns (1996) in that true leadership has a transformational effect on the leader, the follower, and the organization. The transformational impact that each of these students had on their organization and followers is not conclusive. There is no question, however, that these six participants were transformed as leaders in college. The next section investigates the degree to which this can be attributed to the fact that they attended *The Institute*.

Impact of The Institute

Table 1.2

Cross Case Comparison – Impact of The Institute

Tyler	Brad	Dan	Kevin	Mike	Nick
-Supported things he already knew; knew the concepts -Clearer vision afterwards with more confidence -Reported on near spiritual experience -Remembered experiential activities two years later -Learned	-Taught humility by experiential activities and the ropes course -Learned that he has to bring followers along -Sees competitive style doesn't always work -Doesn't remember all five leadership practices but does know he needs to grow	-Liked seeing different styles; drawn to quieter styles -Felt he received more resources; mainly fellow leaders -Remembered *The Knot* and other experiential activities -Resented those back home; hard to apply leadership	-Needed to become more of a friend and less of a dictator -Knew the concepts, now had terms to go with them -Individuals must have a connection with the values of the organization -Able to change culture of presidential leadership	-Gave him more styles to choose from -Enjoyed connection with other leaders -Needed to "encourage the heart" more and listen more to followers -Connected him to deeper or religious aspects of leading -Leader needs	-Surprised different styles worked -Tried to incorporate more in year one but just accepted self as he is -*Institute* reaffirmed things he already had been taught -Experiential activities showed him importance

Institute was not like the real world -Failed in every goal as a leader in year following Institute; succeed in year two -Has same definition at end but is more effective -Credits life experience for positive changes in leadership style, not participation in *The Institute*	as a leader; does think back on *Institute* from time to time -Have to be solid yourself, then help others and organization do the same -Leadership is deep inside you; not superficial -Did not impact long-range goals but changed perspective -Credits changes in style to developmental dynamics, not *The Institute* -*Institute* not like real world -Falls back into old style if not careful	principles there -*Institute* could not have helped him with ordeal—had to learn it by experience -*The Institute* gave him other options; could lead in a different manner -Life experiences more important than the impact of *Institute* -Realized old style left him alone and is self-defeating	from dictator to more democratic servant -Frustrated trying to lead back home -Realized need to get back to his core -If *Institute* helped it was more with applying things I learned there to life more than fraternity -Being a leader is on-the-job training -Leadership is already bred into you, *Institute* gives you a clean shine	zero conflicts between self and aims of organization -Credits mostly his high school teacher and things he learned there -Institute is like repeating CPR certification; remembers experiential activities -Doesn't prepare you for real-world conflict back home -Didn't change me; driving force still there -Maturing, dealing with divorce, and personal growth is responsible for helping him as a leader	of more democratic leadership style -In final interview credited *Institute* with affirming he can lead and doesn't have to dominate -Connection to principles of organization -Frustrated when home because couldn't lead that group -More like father while leading now; listens and gets to know people on a personal level -*Institute* can't change what 22 years have made

While analyzing the impact of *The Institute* over time two phenomena seem significant. The first is that, while there was a range of attribution offered immediately following the retreat (some reported new understandings while some claimed it gave them names for things and concepts they already knew), with time the participants gave credit for their growth as a leader to maturation and experience rather than *The Institute* itself. This was evidenced in four areas: the sense that leadership needs to be grounded in something substantial and personal; that being exposed to different styles of successful leadership was helpful in providing future options as a leader; that memorable experiential activities provided valuable lessons on leadership; and that newly-formed relationships and friendships with other leaders at *The Institute* were important resources for future consultation and support.

During the interviews following *The Institute,* the students all reported feeling more connected to an inner core that made them feel more confident and less fearful as a leader. They also learned the importance of integrity and fidelity to deeply held beliefs. Immediately after *The Institute* they tended to credit the experience for this understanding. By the time of the final interviews, the participants all cited growing up and becoming more mature as the reason they were more comfortable and more grounded as a leader.

Another common response to *The Institute* is that all six enjoyed seeing a variety of styles of leaders and leadership. They discovered that they did not have to lead all the time or that they could lead in different ways—often less personally demanding and more successful in achieving group goals. A key component of *The Institute's* curriculum, each student was eager to incorporate some of these into his thinking about leadership and his future performance as a leader. All six participants ended up doing exactly this, but the longer time passed since *Institute*, the less credit was given to their attendance. All six students remembered most of the experiential activities, even two years after *The Institute*. These were, by far, the most-remembered curricular components. They all ended up incorporating most of these curriculum objectives (collaboration, inclusiveness, sharing of power, enabling others to act) into their future leading, but did not credit *The Institute*. The students reported that the success of these activities (especially the ropes course) was due to the fact that they were forced to take a good look at their strengths and weaknesses. Each suffered in performing tasks at *The Institute* from a weakness in their leadership style and was obligated to adjust their approach in order to proceed successfully through the activities.

All participants reported extensive learning at *Institute* immediately following the experience. Two years later, the remnants of this learning could still be seen, but it was attributed to other factors. What is inconclusive is whether or not the educational experience had significant impact or none at all, or whether it was one of a number of educational and experiential influences that impacted student learning. It is fair to ask whether or not students just forget what they learn or forget to connect their current notions of leadership to the curriculum.

The second phenomenon that stood out was the sense of anger and disillusionment that each participant felt when he returned to his home organization. In interviews one year after *The Institute*, each claimed that the experience did not prepare them for what he had to face when leading back in his own environment. They found the setting in Oxford, Ohio, conducive to learning and leading—a captive audience of interested students came together to learn how to lead better. The dynamics were very different back home, as all of them met resistance and/or apathy in their attempts to lead and change their organization. What was fascinating is that in the final round of interviews two years after the leadership training, the students all asserted that *The Institute* could not have really helped them with his crucible of leadership. Each felt that experiencing the crisis, whether in their organization or their personal life, and learning from the difficulties was the only way to develop new or better styles of leadership. When I pressed them for possible ways of incorporating preparation for a crucible into the curriculum of *The*

Institute, none of them offered any suggestions. In fact, they discouraged me from even trying to do so—fiercely loyal to the need for young leaders to "go through" something as the critical piece to their learning.

Analysis of the data is inconclusive as to how much learning is really being taken up by students over time. Claiming *The Institute* did not change them much during the final interviews, the students credited experiences as a leader and personal development and maturation as the keys to their evolution as leaders. This is consistent with the work of Astin and others contributing to our understandings of higher education student development (Astin, 1984, 1993). Each student, however, did change as a leader and some of the ways that they changed can be traced to things they said about leadership immediately following *The Institute*.

Discussion

Limitations

Although measures to establish trustworthiness were followed, there are several limitations to this study. Each of the six participants was self-selected in this study. By interviewing only those who volunteered, I might have a skewed sample of students. Would the other 54 participants have responded differently? What was behind their eagerness to participate and how might that have impacted their answers?
All of the participants were white males who had chosen to be members of the same international fraternity. In a real sense, these descriptive factors reflect a level of privilege that might impact their access to leadership roles, abilities as leaders, and their ability to talk about their leadership experiences. The perceived culture of fraternities might also tend to attract young men that already have a certain leadership style or personal characteristics. High-achieving student leaders might disproportionately join fraternities, thus calling into question claims of developing leaders. It is not uncommon for athletics to be a key component of fraternity life and all six participants had extensive athletic experiences. This study leaves open the question of whether or not race, gender, age, and specific collegiate affiliations has an impact on the crucibles one faces and impact of leadership over time. Another limitation is the fact that I did not attempt to triangulate or verify claims that the participants made about their leadership. I had no real way of knowing how they led or how they changed as leaders. This study was very much about how the participants describes their life as leaders, and made no attempt to actually determine whether what they claimed was true.

Implications for Leadership Education

These findings suggest crucible experiences have a significant impact on learning to be a leader. Less clear is the role of formal leadership curricula and how these interact with leadership experience and individual maturation over time. The participants posit that mere exposure to leadership opportunities is paramount. If this is true, time might best be spent creating opportunities for students to lead and fail as part of an effective curricular model. In every case the students reported that they learned to lead from a core or place of greater personal integrity by making mistakes. If this is true, how do we help our student leaders prepare for a crisis ahead of time? Is it possible to practice “crucibles”?

Is mere involvement in leadership experiences the most effective, as the work of Townsend (2002) suggests and these six participants assert, or are personal development and maturation the key factors in leadership development? Is it a combination? If so, then what is the role of leadership classes or retreats? If connecting co-curricular experiences to academic classes shows promise in positively impacting student leadership, as reported earlier (Cress 2001), then how do we provide that link? How do we help students remember? A great deal more money, resources, and holistic curriculum planning is needed to develop leaders than what is currently being done.

Many parents, teachers, coaches, university student affairs professionals, schools and colleges have a great deal invested in believing that participation in any number of leadership camps and courses is having a positive result—that they are creating leaders. If stand-alone experiences have little impact over time or if participants report little impact, how can these be used to scaffold future learning? Several participants of *The Institute* that took part in this study stated that leadership training should begin in grade school and continue after *The Institute*. This would suggest the need for more long-term and comprehensive academic programs. Related to this, how can those who provide leadership education classes document learning and success over time? If more is being learned at leadership retreats and classes than is being attributed, what new research designs need to be employed to support this notion?

From a curriculum design perspective, by far the most-remembered aspects of *The Institute* were the experiential activities. In addition, the lessons of these activities were remembered for the most part. Did these work more for our participants because they are athletic males or does this kind of activity work for all students? Also, while the students remembered the activities, they did not necessarily adjust their behavior to match lessons learned from the activity until they were forced to do so in a crisis.

From a social justice perspective, is leadership education going to be mandatory across educational settings? If not, what kind of gap are we creating? Are we providing selective leadership programs for the pre-disposed or those whose family life has somehow prepared them for the role?

Future Research

Perhaps the next step in leadership education research is to look deeply into the lives of students and document learning about leadership across the lifespan. It is imperative that we also investigate where and how students attribute their learning in a variety of leadership contexts and cultures. We must also approach integrated notions of leadership that blur traditional theoretical boundaries. This will, indeed, take a great deal of resources. What may emerge is a new model of leadership education that is highly individualized. Within this model, students would be encouraged to reflect on antecedent variables, assess the positives and negatives of their current leadership styles and practices given those variables. They would then decide if they want to change or improve as a leader and select from a curriculum and life experience plan for their specific needs. At regular intervals reflection, feedback, evaluation, and training would continue across the lifespan of the leader. This study suggests that new models must recognize that students do not come to us as blank slates and that learning about leadership is ongoing within and outside of the classroom.

In our efforts to determine the impact of leadership education, it is critical that we commit to a more complex process and cast a wide net. Linear theoretical frames and evaluations that are just snapshots in time will no longer suffice. Any picture that ignores what has preceded the leadership education experience distorts the image. Any view that omits what follows, what takes, and how people change over time is lacking as well. This study has responded to calls for a rich, qualitative, longitudinal approach in investigating new understandings of leadership and efforts to teach leadership to students.

As student leadership education fights for legitimacy it will need to prove its worth. Until that time, honest appraisal will call into question whether leadership education is a passing fad or a legitimate endeavor in the educational setting. University mission statements often claim that they are developing leaders. What I would suggest is that these schools may or may not be doing what they claim and if they are, it might not be accomplished in the way they think. We have not yet answered key questions about the impact of leadership education courses and initiatives on individual students. If we are intentional in our efforts to teach leadership to students, we must fairly measure the impact. If we claim we are doing leadership education, we best not take too much credit—just yet.

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Research Themes, Authors, and Methodologies in the *Journal of Leadership Education*: A Five-Year Look

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Research Themes, Authors, and Methodologies in the *Journal of Leadership Education*: A Five-Year Look

Abstract

The Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE) *is a new and primary outlet of leadership education research and professional scholarship—a claim verified by a survey of professionals in the field of agricultural education. The purpose of this study was to assess five years of* JOLE *to determine primary and secondary research theme areas, frequent primary and secondary research themes by year, prolific authorship, and research methods and types reported, using a mixed-methods design. Analyzed in this study were 45 articles with research methodologies published in* JOLE *from 2002 through 2006. Seventeen primary research theme areas and 23 secondary research theme areas were identified. The compilation list of primary and secondary research themes and frequent themes identified by year are reported. There were 83* JOLE *authors identified; Christine Townsend (8.9%) was the most prolific author. A majority of the articles (64.4%) employed quantitative research methods, and historical methodology (20.0%) was the most common data collection measure. Research themes appear cyclic and add little to solving an apparent lack of research continuity. Research must continue to determine cycle depth and the influence on research in leadership education as an integrated specialization area of agricultural education. This research may be used comparatively with priorities areas identified in the* National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007-2010 *to determine where future research must be incorporated.*

Introduction

The mission of agricultural education included charges to develop abilities in effective leadership as early as 1976 (Brown & Fritz, 1994). In 1989, the Strategic Plan for Agricultural Education identified the need to "amplify and expand the whole person concept of education, including leadership" (National Summit on Agricultural Education, p. 4). It is a charge of agricultural education to provide leadership education (Brown & Fritz, 1994).

According to Gardner (1990), leadership at all levels in society needs to be developed. Kouzes and Posner (1987; 1988) indicated that leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices, and effective leaders are constantly looking for ways to improve themselves and their departments. Universities have recognized the need and benefits that formal leadership instruction can offer in the classroom and in extracurricular programs (Hays, 1999).

Post-secondary institutions are fulfilling the need for leadership development via curricular and co-curricular offerings, and often leadership development is found in departments of agriculture (Fritz & Brown, 1998). The content of leadership courses hinges on several important considerations: students' comfort level with the concept of leadership, identification of leadership elements, acceptance of leadership as a process, greater awareness of the practice of leadership, establishment of leadership purpose, development of a personal leadership approach, enhancement of analytical skills, and sharing new and emerging leadership theories (Lewis, 1995; Watt, 1995; Wren, 1994). Leadership education also encompasses agricultural educators who recognize the need to implement strategies to be leaders and/or effectively educate students to develop into leaders who are able to effectively guide and direct future industry (Birkenholz &

Schumacher, 1993). Leadership by its nature is multidisciplinary, and leadership education often flows over into other disciplines. In the *National Research Agenda [NRA]: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007-2010,* leadership education is identified as one of the five integrated specialization areas that drive agricultural education today (Osborne, n.d.).

Leadership scholars have warned organizations to ensure their survival in rapidly changing times by becoming learning- or knowledge-based organizations that foster growth and creativity (Bridges, 1996; Senge, 1990). Successful organizations in the 21st century will be discernible by their ability to learn together (Senge, 1990). The changing organizational structure of higher education relies on greater faculty input and reflection in decision-making (Ellsworth & Iorizzo, 2001).

Since the 1990s, rapid growth in research and publishing activities under the broad umbrella of agricultural education has resulted in enormous growth of agricultural literature (Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1995), and new research outlets have been created. The *Journal of Leadership Education* (*JOLE*) was created in 2002. Mannebach (1990) indicated that changes have occurred at an unprecedented rate in agricultural education. Research needs to be conducted regarding leadership needs in agricultural education to prioritize future research, training and development (Spotanski & Carter, 1993).

With many leadership education programs housed in university departments of agricultural education, it is increasingly important to find ways to collaborate with and within these units while strengthening our own unique research agendas. In 1993, Newcomb recognized the need for increasing collaborative efforts in agricultural education programs at the university level. He encouraged universities to broaden programs by offering leadership education, agricultural communications, extension education, and international development, and further add depth to teacher education programs. It seems natural that if leadership units are housed in agricultural education departments that initiatives should be formed to incorporate leadership development and education courses into agricultural education programs. However, if leadership education research is not perceived to be at a level equal to agricultural education research, it may be challenging to further form and build successful collaborations in the five integrated specialization areas outlined in the *NRA*. The *NRA* was created as a guide for developing futuristic research (Osborne, n.d.). Yet, how can we be sure where we are headed with research, and if the direction is adequate and appropriate, if we are unclear as to where we have been?

The need for this research is grounded in research by Ball and Knobloch (2005); Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007); Crunkilton (1988); Doerfert (2003); Knight (1984); Miller, Stewart, and West (2006); Newcomb (1993); Radhakrishna and Xu (1997); Tucker (2004); and Whiting (2002). Knight wrote that a discipline's journals and magazines are good indicators of research priorities in the discipline. Radhakrishna and Xu found that research journal articles are indicators of the profession's scientific activity, philosophy, and application. Ball and Knobloch indicated that it is critical for practitioners to examine the knowledge base of the field to allow the profession to reflect upon actions and ultimately improve the discipline. Crunkilton identified the need for agricultural researchers to know where research can and should go in the pursuit to develop empirical knowledge. Doerfert, Tucker, and Whiting called on researchers to examine their discipline, focus research, create cohesion, and develop goal-oriented visions. Miller, Stewart and West identified the need to review literature to maintain a clear sense of the discipline's research agenda. Baker, Shinn and Briers indicated the need to examine core knowledge objects and knowledge domains. The expressed need to focus disciplines, examine their knowledge base, and review their literature creates a call for the use of a holistic approach to examine research in leadership education and the other integrated specialization areas as outlined in the *NRA*.

Due to the infancy of *JOLE*, it is imperative to incorporate a holistic examination of the critical components of leadership education research. This examination will allow the discipline to deepen its understanding of the current state of research and take a futuristic approach to knowledge pursuit, development and examination. The integrated specialization area of leadership education can examine many components: research theme areas, variety in research theme areas by year, prolifically-published authors, and types of research being conducted. Because a discipline's journals are indicators of research priorities (Knight, 1984), by analyzing research journal articles it should be possible to analyze dimensions of leadership education in *JOLE*. Understanding research occurring in leadership education can assist the agricultural education discipline and other integrated specialization areas in identifying past literary contexts, and determining if past research initiatives are fulfilling research needs as identified in the *NRA*. This study assisted in the creation of a leadership education research baseline by determining the experience-base of research occurring in *JOLE*.

Conceptual Framework

The future of leadership education depends on many variables, and application and acquisition of new knowledge via research is extremely important (Dyer, Haase-Wittler, & Washburn, 2003).Yet, the quality of research in agricultural education, including the integrated specialization area of leadership education, has been questioned for decades, and in some cases it has been identified as inferior to other disciplines (Buriak & Shinn, 1993; Dyer et al., 2003; Radhakrishna & Xu, 1997; Silva-Guerrero & Sutphin, 1990; Warmbrod, 1986).

The conceptual framework of the study (Figure 1) was grounded in work by scholars in five integrated specialization areas associated with agricultural education. Several researchers have completed various components of journal analysis in agricultural education: familiarity and quality of journals and importance of faculty publishing (Miller et al., 2006; Radhakrishna, 1995; Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1993); research theme areas (Buriak & Shinn, 1993; Dyer et al., 2003; Miller, Stewart, & West, 2006; Moore, 1991; Radhakrishna & Xu, 1997; Silva-Guerrero & Sutphin, 1990); prolific authors (Harder & Roberts, 2006; Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1995; Radhakrishna, Jackson, & Eaton, 1992); and statistical methods used (Bowen, Rollins, Baggett, & Miller, 1990; Dyer et al., 2003; Mannenbach, McKenna, & Pfau, 1984).

This study examined articles with research methodologies published in *JOLE* from its inception in 2002 to 2006. The study assessed primary and secondary research theme areas, authorship, and research methods and types using a content analysis approach. This research is the first step in identifying a research experience-base framework in leadership education, using the premier leadership education journal, as identified in a field study. Conceptually, this research examined leadership educations' current research role in *JOLE*. The experience-base, from this research, can then be used as a framework to suggest future research strategies when compared to the *NRA*.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

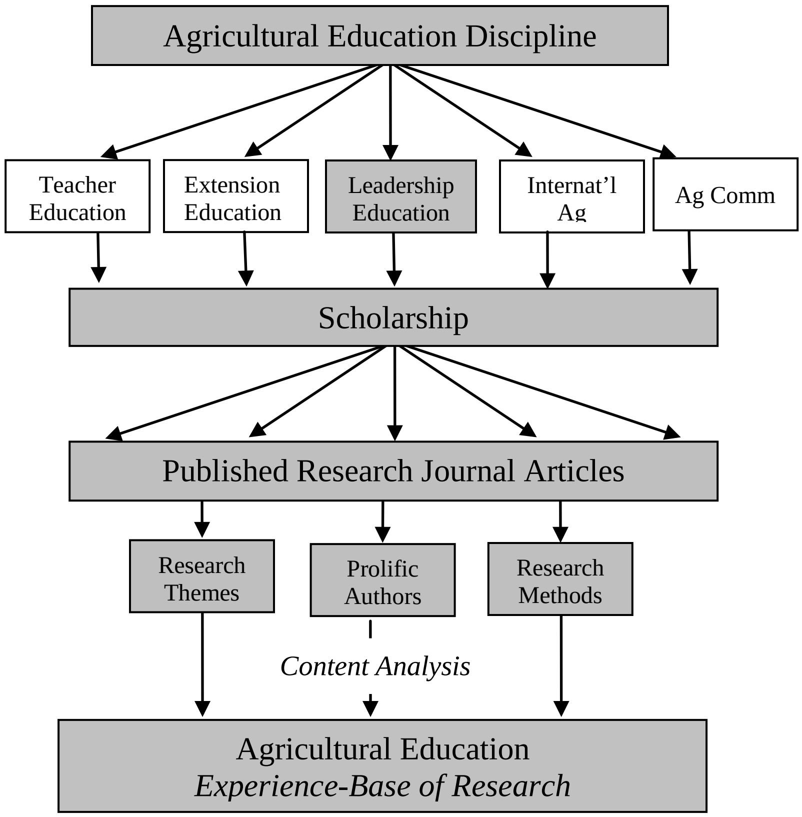

Figure 1. Conceptual base of the study.

Purpose and Objectives

The purposes of this study, which was part of a larger study, were to review research published in the *Journal of Leadership Education* from 2002 to 2006 and to examine the status of the journal to provide a base from which to direct future research. *JOLE* is a research journal with authors who are university and college faculty-based as well as practitioner-based. The specific objective was to describe and synthesize published research in *JOLE* during the five year period by (a) identifying primary and secondary research themes in published research articles; (b) identifying primary and secondary research theme areas among research articles published by year; (c) identifying the most prolific authors; and (d) identifying research methods and designs.

Research Methods and Procedures

This study employed a mixed-methods content analysis design. Content analysis as a research method has existed for decades, and the best content-analytic studies use mixed-methods methodology (Weber, 1990). Content analysis can be used to give researchers insight into problems or hypotheses that can then be tested by more direct methods. Content analysis is a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Berelson, 1952; Krippendorf, 1980; Weber, 1990).

Content validity was maintained using both previous research as a guide and a field study to focus the research. Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007) identified 104 individuals as active agricultural education research authors. A field questionnaire was developed and sent to 96 of those authors with valid email addresses. The contacted authors were asked to identify premier journals and to validate or add to research theme categories. Research theme categories were created based on previous content analyses of journals in the specializations of leadership education, teacher education, extension education, international agricultural education, and agricultural communications. These categories were provided to the pilot study, and it was the respondents' responsibility to compress or expound on research theme areas. The pilot study identified 37 research theme areas for the five specialization areas identified in the *NRA*. Dillman's (2000) Tailored Design Method was used, and 62 of 96 possible respondents completed the questionnaire, yielding a 65% response rate.

Research journal articles from 2002 to 2006 in the identified premier journal, the *Journal of Leadership Education*, were used as the frame for the study. The main focus of each article (knowledge-base) was coded as the primary research theme area. The most prevalent supporting theme (conceptual-base) was identified as the secondary theme of each article. The principal investigator and a peer independently reviewed the material and formed a checklist of information required during the review of each journal article. The researchers compared notes and reconciled differences on their initial checklists via negotiations. Researchers used a consolidated checklist to independently apply coding. The researchers then checked for agreement in coding; if reliability was not acceptable, then the previous steps were repeated. Once reliability had been established, the coding was applied on a large-scale basis. The final stage was a periodic quality control check (Weber, 1990). Inter-coder reliability was completed, with at least 10% overlap for the reliability test. Final reliability was calculated using a random sample of 5% of the analyzed articles. Reliability was assessed using Spearman's rho. Reliabilities met or exceeded the minimum standard of .70 (Bowen et al., 1990; Tuckman, 1999).

Findings

The *Journal of Leadership Education* was identified in the field study as a premier research journal by 41% of the respondents. All *JOLE* articles with research methodologies published (N=45 articles) from 2002 to 2006 were analyzed. Primary research themes identified in *JOLE* are shown in Table 1. There were 17 primary research themes identified in *JOLE* in the five-year content analysis. The most frequently identified primary research theme was leadership development (31.1%). The second most frequent primary research theme was leadership education, identified in 24.4% of the *JOLE* research articles. Those primary research theme areas identified in *JOLE* research articles 6.7% or fewer times are identified in the table.

Table 1

Primary Research Themes Identified in the Journal of Leadership Education *2002–2006 (N = 45)*

Research Theme	*f*	*P*
Leadership Development	14	31.1
Leadership Education	11	24.4
Service & Experiential Learning	3	6.7
Youth Leadership & Development	3	6.7
Volunteer Development & Leadership	2	4.4
Academic Programs	1	2.2
Career Development & Assessment	1	2.2
Communication Management	1	2.2
Diffusion of Innovation	1	2.2
Evaluation	1	2.2
Formal & Informal Teaching Approaches	1	2.2
Instructional & Program Delivery Approaches	1	2.2
Leadership Management	1	2.2
Needs Assessment	1	2.2
Professional Development	1	2.2
Research (methods and models)	1	2.2
Teacher Preparation & Competence	1	2.2

Secondary research themes identified in *JOLE* are displayed in Table 2. There were 23 secondary research theme areas identified. The most frequently identified secondary research theme area was leadership education (17.8%). The second most frequently identified secondary research theme areas were academic programs and leadership development, identified in 8.9% of the articles. Those secondary research themes identified 6.7% or fewer are identified in the table.

Table 2

Secondary Research Themes Identified in the Journal of Leadership Education *2002–2006 (N = 45)*

Research Theme	*f*	*P*
Leadership Education	8	17.8
Academic Programs	4	8.9
Leadership Development	4	8.9
Evaluation	3	6.7
Organizational Development & Leadership	3	6.7
Accountability	2	4.4
Diversity (culture, ethnicity, gender)	2	4.4
Formal & Informal Teaching Approaches	2	4.4
Skill Development & Competencies	2	4.4

Table 2 (continued)

Research Theme	*f*	*P*
Youth Leadership & Development	2	4.4
Career Development & Assessment	1	2.2
Community Development & Leadership	1	2.2
Critical Thinking	1	2.2
Curriculum & Program Development	1	2.2
Framing	1	2.2
Globalization & Internationalization	1	2.2
Information Sources & Technology	1	2.2
Instructional & Program Delivery Approaches	1	2.2
Leadership Management	1	2.2
Needs Assessment	1	2.2
Processes, Principles, & Styles of Learning	1	2.2
Quality of Life & Life Skills	1	2.2
Volunteer Development & Leadership	1	2.2

Table 3 shows the most frequently-occurring primary research themes by year. Theme details, frequencies, and percentages can be seen in the table.

Table 3

Most Identified Primary Research Themes in Journal of Leadership Education *by Year (N = 45)*

Year	Research Theme	*n*	*f*	*P*
2002	Leadership Education	11	5	45.5
2003	Leadership Development	5	2	40.0
2004	Leadership Development	11	4	36.4
2005	Leadership Development	11	4	36.4
2006	Leadership Education	12	5	41.7

Table 4 outlines the frequently used secondary research themes, identified in the *JOLE,* by year. Theme details, frequencies, and percentages can be seen in the table.

Table 4

Most Identified Secondary Research Themes in Journal of Leadership Education *by Year (N = 45)*

Year	Research Theme		*n*	*f*	*P*
2002	Academic Programs				
	Leadership Education		11	2	18.2
2003	Diversity (culture, ethnicity, gender)	(5-way tie)			
	Globalization and Internationalization				
	Leadership Education				
	Needs Assessment				
	Organizational Development and Leadership		5	1	20.0
2004	Leadership Education		11	2	18.2
2005	Leadership Education		11	2	18.2
2006	Leadership Education		12	3	25.0

The prolific authors identified in *JOLE* are identified in Table 5. No distinction was made between lead and supporting authorship. There were 83 authors (duplicated count) identified in the 45 analyzed *JOLE* articles. Christine Townsend was the most prolific author in the journal, authoring or co-authoring 4 of the 45 articles (8.9%). Additional prolific *JOLE* authors are identified in the table.

Table 5

Prolific Authorship in the Journal of Leadership Education *2002–2006 (N of Authors = 83, N of Articles = 45)*

Author	*f*	*P* of Authors	*P* of Articles
Townsend, Christine D.	4	4.8	8.9
Crawford, C. B.	3	3.6	6.7
Fritz, Susan M.	3	3.6	6.7
Hoover, Tracy S.	3	3.6	6.7
Barbuto, John E., Jr.	2	2.4	4.4
Bruce, Jacklyn A.	2	2.4	4.4
Culp, Kenneth, III	2	2.4	4.4
Dooley, Kim E.	2	2.4	4.4
McCormick, Michael J.	2	2.4	4.4
Rohs, Frederick R	2	2.4	4.4
Strohkirch, C. Sue	2	2.4	4.4
Webster, Nicole S.	2	2.4	4.4
White, Belinda Johnson	2	2.4	4.4
Williams, Jennifer R.	2	2.4	4.4

Research methods used in *JOLE* are identified in Table 6. Quantitative research methods were the most common (64.4%), followed by qualitative (28.9%); the least often used research methods were mixed qualitative and quantitative methods (6.7%).

Research methods used in *JOLE* were identified. Quantitative research methods were the most common at 64.4% (29 out of 45 articles), followed by qualitative in 28.9% (13 out of 45 articles); the least often used research methods were mixed qualitative and quantitative methods (6.7%; 3 out of 45 articles). Research designs used in the 45 analyzed articles published in the *JOLE* are outlined in Table 6. Historical designs were the most frequently used research design (20.0%). Surveys were used in 15.6% of the published analyzed research. Additional research designs and procedures, in *JOLE* research articles, are identified in the table.

Table 6

Research Method Types Used in the Journal of Leadership Education *2002–2006 (N = 45)*

Method Type	*f*	*P*
Historical	9	20.0
Surveys	7	15.6
Correlation	5	11.1
Experimental	5	11.1
Evaluation	5	11.1
Case Study	3	6.7
Content Analysis	2	4.4
Interviews	2	4.4
Open-ended Questions/Reflections	2	4.4
Holistic	1	2.2
Interviews with Referential Adequacy Material	1	2.2
Interviews and Observations	1	2.2
Observations and Document Analysis	1	2.2
Survey and Focus Groups	1	2.2

Conclusions

The *Journal of Leadership Education* was identified as a premier journal for reporting leadership education research. Research in *JOLE* is adding to the scope and topography of discovery occurring in the field. In articles published, variety in research theme areas was seen. The breadth of research theme areas identified appear to contribute a lack of continuity in discovery, with 17 research themes identified as primary themes, and 23 research themes identified as secondary themes in the 45 analyzed articles. Leadership development and education dominated the primary research theme areas, both in category and by year. Leadership education was also the most frequently identified secondary research theme area. Secondary research theme variety was seen in 2002 and 2003; however, leadership education dominated from 2004 to 2006. Research themes were cyclic, moving between primary and secondary, and moving out of primary and secondary for a time before cycling back in. An example of this phenomenon is the theme area “leadership education.” It is seen as the most frequent primary and secondary research theme in 2002. Then it is the most frequent secondary theme in 2003 through 2006 and, again, as the most frequent primary theme in 2006. These apparent research cycles may be indicators of the breadth of research occurring in the field. But are they indicators of research depth? Frequent research themes may be indicators of what leadership educators’ value in terms of research priorities.

Few researchers contribute programmatically or consistently to leadership education research as seen in *JOLE*; Townsend reported research in slightly less than one article per year, and others much less. *JOLE* is a research journal with authors who are faculty and practitioner-based; yet, research publications in *JOLE* are clearly dominated by faculty rather than practitioners. Unlike other research journals in the agricultural education field, *JOLE* does not require membership for publication acceptance. This allows anyone to publish in the journal and may reduce author domination. Quantitative research employing historical methods were most prevalent in leadership education. Based on research methods and designs, leadership education research lacks diversity of research methodologies and scope and, perhaps, depth and quality -- if one assumes that depth and quality are indicated by methods that move toward cause and effect relationships.

This study was an attempt to establish an experience-base in research occurring in leadership education. It is critical to create an experience-base in order to complete a comprehensive and holistic examination of a benchmark, such as the *NRA*. Ball and Knobloch (2005) and others have indicated the explicit need to improve the agricultural education discipline, and leadership education research adds to the discipline. We must make every effort to understand how the field of leadership education affects agricultural education.

Discussion and Implications

Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007) issued a specific call to examine the knowledge domains of agricultural education. Miller, Stewart, and West (2006) identified the need to review literature to maintain a clear sense of the discipline’s research agenda. Doerfert (2003), Tucker (2004), and Whiting (2002) outlined the need for creating research focus, cohesion, and goal-oriented vision. This study was an attempt to assist with each of the above identified areas. The frame for this research focused on leadership education’s role in agricultural education.

This research identified excessive variety in research theme areas when looking at the minimal number of published research articles in *JOLE*; 23 research themes identified within the five years of analyzed articles. Excessive variety in research themes may be due to leadership educators and researchers’ attempt to find their place. Although leadership education and development as academic programs and research are expanding, leadership education programs and research have struggled to find a home in academic units and research agendas. Leadership education may still be searching to find where it fits in the context of agricultural education and other disciplines. Many faculty contributing research to *JOLE* are not housed in academic units or universities associated with agriculture. However, *JOLE* was identified as a premier journal in the agricultural education discipline. Although leadership education programs have increased over the past two decades in academic units, the discipline still has relatively few faculty members conducting research in surfeit contextual and knowledge base areas based on the *JOLE* analysis. The relatively small number of faculty members attempting to cover the numerous research priority areas of the discipline may be adding to research breadth, but it is unclear how this variety affects discipline depth. It is also highly likely that *JOLE* is not the only premier leadership education journal, but it was identified in this study as a premier journal.

Furthermore, this research discovered that relatively few researchers add consistently to the scope and topography of leadership education research; no authors dominated the journal. Because researchers bring with them a variety of interests in both research topics and strategies, this finding is an important component in research stability and diversity. Would leadership educators and researchers benefit from prolific authors assisting graduate students, new faculty, and practitioners interested in developing and producing personal research initiatives? Can we better utilize prolific authors by highlighting their areas of expertise and using them as specialists? Would this allow us to move from a generalist approach in examining knowledge to becoming research area (theme) experts?

Knight (1984) and Radhakrishna and Xu (1997) indicated that published research journal articles are indicators of the profession's current state. Although this research supports Knight and Radhakrishna and Xu, it also provides a note of caution and an evident need for more variety in research methodology and design in leadership education research. The findings of this study indicate that a majority of research in leadership education used historical and survey research methods. If research occurring in *JOLE,* over the past five years, is indicative of all research in leadership education, there is a clear need to focus research themes while improving and diversifying methodological research strategies beyond historical and survey research. Criticisms have been made regarding research rigor and diversity in agricultural education; leadership education is often grouped in this field of study, and its research may be contributing to those critiques. There is a need to engage in more rigorous research methodologies to answer the "why" questions in addition to the "what is."

In 1993, Newcomb identified the need to transform university agricultural education programs and encouraged universities to broaden programs by offering leadership programs, extension education, agricultural communications, and international development, and to add depth to teacher education programs. As faculty members in leadership education continue to forge new alliances and integrations with agricultural education, it is clear that our research must be at or above the current level of research in agricultural education. This study was a first step in determining the current state of research in leadership education. This research attempted to outline research priorities, strategies, and designs used during the past five years; it calls for a comparison of the identified experience-base to a futuristic framework, such as the *National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007-2010* (Osborne, n.d.). Although research work in leadership education feeds into multiple leadership journals, our peers and others associated with agricultural education identified *JOLE* as a premier journal. If these individuals are looking at *JOLE* to assess our current level of research productivity and rigor, would they be pleased?

Recommendations

The *Journal of Leadership Education* should expand the breadth/number of researchers consistently publishing articles. The journal might create thematic issues to reduce research fragmentation; it should also increase the number of research articles for each issue. Leadership education as a profession and as practice must continue to reflect upon those actions that ultimately improve the field. It is imperative that professionals in leadership education improve research methodologies while increasing continuity in research theme areas. This study calls for future research to examine the essence of leadership education and its roles in understanding human dimensions of agriculture. It is imperative for us to understand if today's research is adding to the depth of our "well" of research and not merely to the breadth. Our research should strive for depth, richness, and impact. We must continue to deepen our "well" of knowledge and not just expand our "pool." As an area of practice, do we have the volume and quality of theoretical underpinnings and fundamental works needed to support us as we expand the broadness of our "well"? Or do we need to continue to move deeper before we expand in width? Reflections regarding efforts to improve and diversify the discipline must continue. Additional research must be completed to expand research themes identified in this study. Broader research themes would assist leadership education in determining how research is incorporated into agricultural education and other specialized integration areas, as well as in other disciplines and research initiatives.

A pattern appears to exist in the primary and secondary research themes identified in this study. Further research should be conducted to determine the degrees of research theme cycles, meaningfulness of cycles, and how cycles affect leadership education both as an area of scholarship and as an area of practice. Leadership education researchers must diversify their methodological research portfolios to include variety in research methods and designs. Additional research should be completed to determine the depth and rigor of historical and survey methods used in our research. Research must continue to determine whether current research methodologies are serving the leadership education and the agricultural education discipline, in an effort to advance its scholarship. Further research must be completed to provide methods and standards for exceptional and rigorous research in leadership education.

Reflections regarding efforts to improve and integrate leadership education into agricultural education departments or units must continue. Additional research must be completed to determine the level of breadth and depth of research themes identified in this study, and how/if these themes are affecting research occurring in the integrated specialization area of leadership education. Current leadership education research (experience-base) must be compared to emerging research priorities for leadership education. By using a benchmark, such as the *National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication 2007–2010* (Osborne, n.d.), leadership education can better determine if past research is supporting emerging research priority areas and determine where adjustments must be made.

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1. Name of presenters

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2. Title of presentation

Using a Grounded Theory Approach to Explore Moral Imagination with Leadership Students

3. Presentation track

Research

4. 50-word description

Moral imagination is described as the ability to challenge operative mental models in order to discover new ways of framing ethical problems and providing resolutions. This presentation will present findings from a qualitative research project exploring moral imagination with students enrolled in a graduate level organizational leadership program.

5. We decline the poster session in the event the proposal is not accepted

6. Biographical profile of the presenter(s)

Barbra K. Enlow, M.A.
Barbra Enlow, a Partner/Owner of Kleimann Communication Group (KCG), has over 10 years experience working with government organizations to improve the way they work and communicate. She specializes in linking communication process and information design to organizational development strategies. Her work focuses on one primary goal: simplifying the complex nature of government information. To do this, she has developed comprehensive training curricula and has directed large-scale, national usability projects. She has also developed a collaborative work-group model to allow the Internal Revenue Service to create clear, award-winning notices. Ms. Enlow has a Masters in Organizational Leadership from Gonzaga University and is currently a doctoral candidate in Leadership Studies at Gonzaga.

Adrian B. Popa, Ph.D., M.P.A.
Dr. Adrian B. Popa joined the Department of Organizational Leadership at Gonzaga University as an assistant professor. Dr. Popa received his Ph.D. and a Master of Public Administration from University of Utah, where he also worked as a research analyst involved in grassroots community leadership development, international student exchange programs, program

evaluation, teaching, and consulting with state and federal public agencies. His research interests and specializations center on leadership in public organizations, efficacious methods of online education, and leadership ethics. Dr. Popa is also Principal Investigator on several research projects that focus on moral imagination, online leadership education, and leadership in film. He currently teaches Organizational Research and Organizational Ethics at Gonzaga University.

7. Paper for ALE Conference Proceedings

Introduction

Moral imagination is described as the ability to challenge operative mental models in order to discover new ways of framing ethical problems and providing resolutions (Werhane, 1999). This presentation provides qualitative results from a qualitative longitudinal study of moral imagination with students enrolled in a graduate leadership program. The course curriculum is grounded in the construct of moral imagination with the objective of cultivating moral imagination in leadership students. This qualitative study gathered 100 narrative responses from students as part of their course reflections. Narrative questions explored various facets of moral imagination that pertain to consciousness of moral identity, ways of knowing and identifying creative solutions, and balancing personal and organizational obligations. Qualitative content analysis revealed three emerging factors that contribute to moral imagination: Value of personal understanding; Ethical decision making as a social process; and Negotiation of the Personal-social link. Results indicate that the course is contributing to their increased awareness of ethical dimension in organizations, understanding of how ethical decisions are made, and creativity of developing ethically viable solutions. Participants in this research session will learn not only about study findings but also about future implications of leadership ethics curriculum.

Literature Review

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

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

An organizational ethics course was designed with the primary goal and purpose of fostering moral imagination. The course is divided into four phases that focus on specific competencies tied to varying dimensions of moral imagination. The course begins by challenging students to explore and identify their worldview and work towards developing an appreciation for diverse worldviews. Students have the opportunity to explore their lifespan development and identify how situations, circumstances, culture, family, and other influential milestones that contributed to their construction of a worldview. Students learn skills to identify their responses to ethical problems. The course is designed to help students monitor their growth and progress in transitioning from expressive responses to responses grounded in deductive reasoning, critical thinking and logic that lead to creative and viable solutions. A goal of this course is to achieve a balance in philosophical thought, introspection, and contemplation to help students organize their future responses to ethical problems. In addition, students learn to focus on the values of constituents to appreciate their diversity, and learn to balance personal virtues with values of constituents.

In the second phase of the course, emphasis is placed on methods to develop the competency of identifying personal values and virtues that inform leadership and conduct within the organizational setting. Module video clips present content of how life experiences impacted the worldviews of C.S. Lewis and Sigmund Freud. Discussions allow opportunity for self-reflection and clarification of wavering and/or constant worldviews. Course readings complement dialogue and charter a path for self-reflection. Emphasis is placed on gaining competency to balance personal virtues with values of constituents and allow that symbiotic relationship to inform leadership practice. Video clips describing life events that impacted Lewis and Freud serve as a case study example for students to introspectively reflect and discuss events that have confirmed or changed their worldview.

The third phase of the course challenges students to reflect on and consider the construct of community as a new metaphor for the organizational setting. Students gain the capacity to identify how personal worldviews impact or dictate professional relationships, recognize development of personal attitudes and behaviors, identify the impact of personal views on forgiveness and reconciliation, and develop strategies that contribute to a sense of community in organizations. Video clips provide a background for discussions relating to the role of worldviews in decision making. Course readings introduce students to methods and practices of cultivating shared values and to strategies of maintaining community cohesiveness.

In the final phase of the class energy is devoted to opportunities for students to reflect on morality in the organizational setting and to practice techniques for solving ethical dilemmas. Students learn to identify the presence and role of morality in the organizational setting and recognize how pluralism impacts interpretation of organizational ethics. Students develop a strategy to solve ethical problems and recommend a course of action. Module video clips encourage dialogue about the significance of morality and ethical standards in organizations and the impact of worldviews on interpreting ethical problems. Lastly, course readings in the latter part of the course introduce Coopers (1998) ethical decision-making model to equip students with techniques for identifying and resolving ethical dilemmas.

Theoretical Assumptions and Hypothesis

An organizational ethics course that engages students in studying and analyzing two juxtaposing worldviews may contribute to awareness of their own personal worldview, appreciation for other worldviews, creating a sense of community as a metaphor for organizations, and collaboration with others to create morally viable solutions to ethical dilemmas. The lives of Lewis and Freud as presented by Nicholi (….) serve as two juxtaposing worldviews that not only provide a platform for openly identifying with and discussing varying worldviews but also models for understanding how moral living is constructed by various events experienced throughout life. The lives of Lewis and Freud are not presented as mere models for adaptation rather as timeless worldviews to identify with in discussing difficult moral choices experienced in organizational settings. Students learn about life events, relationships and other psychosocial factors that contributed to moral reasoning and cognitive development in both Lewis and Freud.

The assumption that leadership students can learn organizational ethics by studying other worldviews is grounded in the theoretical foundation of social learning or modeling theory (Bandura, 1977) that emphasizes the importance of the relationship between the observer (student) and the model (e.g., C.S. Lewis or Sigmund Freud) in developing certain imitative behaviors. In addition to learning moral behavior through observation of others, the course is also grounded in a theoretical assumption that graduate students experience variant stage of moral reasoning based on opportunities to develop and challenge cognitive schemas constructed throughout life that lead to narratives and our sense of morality in the world (Kohlberg, 1981)

Given these theoretical assumptions and context of moral development, both social and cognitive learning theories have various implications for organizational leaders. Trevino, Hartman, and Brown (2000) found that being perceived as an ethical leader contributes to organizational practices and ethical principles that guide the behavior of employees. In addition to this social learning implication, Kouzes and Posner (2002) found that sharing personal values and moral dimensions with constituents contributes to both credibility and increased moral reasoning capacity of followers. Both social and cognitive learning theory contribute to the design of course curriculum that contributes to competencies of challenging operative mental models in order to discover and apply new ways of framing and creatively thinking and making decision. Werhane (1999) describes the moral imaginative process as an “ability to envision and evaluate new mental models that create new possibilities, and the capability to reframe the dilemmas and create new solutions in ways that are novel, economically viable, and morally justifiable” (p.93).

Purpose of Study

It is pertinent to explore and study the role of ethics and moral imagination in leadership as evidence indicates that morality of leaders influence how we form decision, responses to colleagues, and commitments to personal and organizational goals (Ciulla, 1995; Trevino et al., 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Organizational values promoted by ethical leadership serve as a credible compass to inform decision-making and empower employees as they encounter ethical decisions. Developing moral imagination expands understanding of self, others, institutions and organizational culture. Being imaginative enlarges the capacity to challenge mental models in order to reframe ethical problems as a means for discovering new solutions. Overall, the imaginative process leads to innovative ways of thinking that steers students away from existing and habitual ways of thinking and operating. Our purpose in this study was twofold: (a) to evaluate whether the use of social and cognitive theoretical assumptions in teaching organizational ethics impacted moral imagination of leadership students, and (b) to develop a greater understanding of moral imagination. Given what is known about moral imagination, we hypothesized that students would become more aware of their worldviews and dominant cognitive operating models, but wanted to explore through open-ended narratives their active role in scaffolding and applying the moral imaginative process in organizational settings. The overarching goal was to test theoretical assumption of moral imagination as well as attempt to contribute and perhaps discover exclusive factors that further refine understanding of moral imagination.

Methodology

Design

A qualitative research method was used to examine the perceived impact of ethics curriculum on moral imagination and the utility of moral imagination. A grounded theory (Straus & Corbin, 1998) approach is the underpinning paradigm and appropriate method for studying and contributing to theoretical understanding of moral imagination. The focus in the grounded theory approach is placed on the process of integrating interactions of various variables related to a construct in order to contribute to a theory about that process.

Participants and Instrumentation

Secondary data from graduate organizational ethics courses was used. A purposive sample of 4 ethics courses provided 60 narrative reflections to summative questions. Four open ended questions focused on theoretical content related to moral imagination. Using secondary data analysis fits the purpose of our study given the iterative nature of grounded theory, goals of the study, and theoretical objectives of the ethics curriculum that are grounded in moral imagination. Although the four ethics courses were taught by different instructors, design and curriculum content was identical across all courses. The sample represented a heterogeneous group of graduate students enrolled in a leadership and communications programs. Graduate students in these two programs are middle age adults, mid- career, and represent a wide range of positions and industries.

Narrative questions were integrated in a blackboard discussion thread at the end of the course as a final process for reflection and mutual interaction. The goal of these summative reflections was to provide an opportunity for students to reflect on competencies gained throughout the course that contribute to moral imagination. Questions were informed by early theoretical writings on moral imagination by Werhane (1999) and Yurtsever's moral imagination scale (2006). Questions focused on consciousness of ethical identity, decision making, balancing personal and organizational values, and self-sufficiency in making ethical decisions (see Table 1).

Table 1 – Narrative Questions

- Briefly explain whether you have become more fully conscious of personal values and personal identity

- How is awareness contributing to your responses and ethical decision making in the organizational setting
- How do you ensure that you have made a good ethical decision while balancing personal and organizational values
- How have you become more aware, self-sufficient, and more willing to act from personal values in support of organizational vitality, progression, or change

Procedures and Analysis

As noted above, this study employed an inductive methodology, grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), to analyze narrative responses. Grounded theory involves comparative analysis of data as well as continuous gathering additional data through iterative rounds of data collection and analysis. The purpose of such an iterative approach is to allow for ongoing data analysis, comparison, and triangulation. As data were compared and analyzed, themes emerge and are used to construct theory concerning the phenomenon in question; “In discovering theory, one generates conceptual categories or their properties from evidence, then the evidence from which the category emerged is used to illustrate the concept” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 23). The overall goal of the chosen methodology is to clarify emerging theoretical relationships and meaningful themes within the data (Abrahamson, 1983).

The study used three levels of coding as outlined by Strauss & Corbin (1998): 1) Open coding; 2) Axial coding; 3) Selective coding. Data sets were open coded at the conclusion of each course. Two raters coded responses independently using memos to denote impressions, thoughts, and self-instructions for inquiry (p. 223). As raters came together to compare and discuss findings, the data was translated into more coherent and comprehensive analytical narrative. The codes are, thus, woven together into an integrated whole representing the theory which has emerged through the process of data collection and analysis (pp. 240-241).

Results

Qualitative content analysis revealed the following three major themes:

- Value of personal understanding in approaching ethical decision making.
- Ethical decision making as a reflection of social process.
- Negotiating the personal-social link in ethical decision making.

Value of personal understanding in approaching ethical decision making.

Overall the course elicited a strong examination of roots, values, and identity. By analyzing their own worldviews as well as reflecting on the lives of Lewis and Freud, students began to see the way that personal development informs personal values and ethical approaches. Their narrative responses reflected our theoretical assumption that moral living is constructed by various events experienced throughout life.

> I have come to understand myself better in that I know why I make the decisions I make. The decisions I make are based upon a set of standards and values that have evolved and developed throughout my life. (Summer 07, B, R2)

> I am more cognizant of the way values are formed by society and imprinted upon us via family and peers during our early years. (Spring 07, B, R9)

Through personal understanding, students were more able to cogently describe their own worldview in order to better understand the personal virtues and values they bring to their work as organizational leaders. Students reported that a key outcome of the course was an ability to better articulate and express their worldview and values.

> Having to state and verbalize our personal identity has been empowering. (Spring 07, B, R15)

> This course has done a great service by helping me put words to the thoughts and emotions generated in discussions and experiences related to ethical decision making (Summer 07, B, R13)

Potentially related to better articulation of values is the development of higher levels of confidence and courage in dealing with ethical issues. Students reflected positively on their ability to apply personal values within an organizational setting toward positive ethical outcomes.

> By being aware of why I have the personal values that I have, it makes it that much easier to stand up and defend something. (Spring 07, A, R8)

> What I am most proud of is the fact that I am no longer willing to just accept something ‘because’ I am not willing to give in simply because it’s a decision from upper management. (Spring 07, B, R6)

> I think I am braver…because of this class and the awareness I feel, I think I am now ready to take even more chances morally in an organizational setting. (Spring 07, B, R16)

Another outcome of personal understanding was the ability to define personal methods of decision making and move beyond purely ‘habitual response.’ In this way, students expressed a transition from purely expressive responses to ethical situations to more conscious, deliberative responses. In particular, students articulated the need for intentionality and deliberation in order to make sound ethical decisions.

> I find myself being more intentional in developing and practicing decision making as stepping stones to responding versus reacting. (Spring 07, B, R5)

> I have become more aware but slower to act. (Spring 07, B, R2)

> Like any heightened sensitivity, it has already caused me to pause prior to acting. To consider the ramification of my responses and to more fully consider the various perspectives in play. (Spring 07, B, R9)

Ethical decision making as a reflection of social process.

Although most students saw within themselves an "ethical perspective" – or a dominant, personal method of viewing and evaluating ethical dilemmas – the course offered a chance to see and value *other* perspectives. By experiencing this broad mix of perspectives within the course setting, many students expressed a shift in consciousness towards understanding others. At the same time, by opening to other ways of addressing ethical issues, students challenged their own cognitive schemas constructed throughout life leading to a broader understanding of ethics within a community setting.

> It has opened my eyes to different avenues when making decisions (Spring 07, A, R6)

> It has re-energized me in thinking about the ways in which my personal views impact my responses and my decision making…Having this awareness has helped me to seek more to understand other viewpoints, to ask questions, and to ensure I understand why decisions are made or why someone reacted the way they did (Summer 07, A, R4)

Students also expressed a heightened awareness of and ability to engage in constructive dialogue with constituents when making ethical decisions. In this way, student responses reflected ethical decision making as more than simply a personal choice but rather an outcome of social meaning and negotiation.

> By understanding myself better, I can listen to others with conflicting views…I am able to find more common ground with others, working with what we have in common instead of what separates us. (Summer 07, B, R11)

> If we seek counsel in the process of decision making and are 'vulnerable' enough to share the personal values athat motivate our desire to see one outcome over another then I feel open debate of the issues can occur…being heard and having a voice while being honored in that process is key, whether your view prevails or not. (Spring 07, B, R11)

Finally, students reported an increasing ability to 'reframe' ethical decisions. In particular, students reported using a model of ethical decision making that incorporated the use of other perspectives and/or mental models to reframe the existing situation and produce a creative response.

> Reaching beyond my own thoughts and perspective helps me to see situations in a different light and helps me to understand decisions in a broader context (Summer 07, B, R4)

> I try to view problems and decisions from multiple vantage points, including from a point in time years after the decision is made. I've always tried out of habit to imagine varying outcomes when making big decisions, but now I recognize the importance of doing so in a methodical and thorough fashion. (Spring 07, B, R9)

Negotiation of the personal-social link in ethical decision making.

As students expressed ethics in terms of a social process, certain tensions inherent in this process were also uncovered. In particular, student responses demonstrated that ethics is more than purely internal reasoning, and therefore, involves necessary negotiation with others within a larger social system.

A notable subset expressed both concern and caution in making personal ethical choices that may diverge from prevailing social expectations. These responses emphasize 'yielding' personal values to that of the larger organizational culture. Such responses demonstrate the role of ego strength in ethical dilemmas – or how much a person can or will support personal values in the face of conflicting responses. They also demonstrates the importance of locus of control in ethical decision making – or how much internal control a person believes he/she has on outcomes (Rotter, 1966).

> I believe that I must yield my personal values and ascribe to corporate shared values…so when making ethical decisions, the first place to ensure that my decisions are ethical is to our corporate values. (Spring 07, A, R13)
>
> I am able to balance the personal views because when I am at work, it does not matter what I think, it matters what the organization tells me to think. (Summer 07, A, R3)
>
> When working for an organization whose values were not always consistent with mine…I have sometimes felt that I needed to compromise my own values for the benefit of the organization. (Summer 07, B, R5)

Another issue raised frequently by students regarded the role of "Goodness of fit" between organization and person in terms of expression of core values. Students emphasized the necessary alignment of organizational values and personal behavior. Such attitudes further solidify a connection between person and environment in ethical decision making.

> If the organizational values did not run parallel to mine, I would not be working here today (Spring 07, B, R7)
>
> Understanding what my personal views are will help to ensure that my decisions are not made solely on my personal values but the values of the company (Spring 07, B, R15).

> If I have chosen my job wisely, then my personal and organizational values hopefully are in alignment with one another. If they are in continual conflict, then perhaps I need to look for work elsewhere. (Summer 07, B, R15)

Such responses demonstrate that for personal values to be effective, they must reflect the larger social and organizational goals and purposes.

Discussion

In this exploration of student narratives, three dominant themes emerged – each of which furthers our understanding of the construct of moral imagination.

Value of personal understanding.

Johnson (1993), in his exploration of moral imagination, noted that a moral decision making is an imaginative process that requires reflection on personal worldviews (p. 2). This process brings a person in contact with their own frames of a given situation, other possible framings of the situation, and their own traditionally-forged definitions of moral concepts. This constructive imaginative activity is based on perception, personal experience, and individual understanding of dominant moral concepts (p. 2). Students in this study emphasized the critical nature of both examining and understanding their personal worldview in making ethical decision making., Through this understanding, students expressed a better ability to articulate and express values and represent them in decision making. At the same time, personal understanding led to higher reported levels of competency in ethical decision making.

Ethical decision making as a social process.

In contrast to ethical frameworks that emphasize personal ethical agency at the expense of social relationships, our analysis found that the social process forms the core of ethical decision making. Students emphasized the need to draw from multiple perspectives in order to inform sound ethical decisions. They also affirmed the role of dialogue to elicit and uncover alternative outcomes. Such strategies affirm Werhane's (1999) theory that ethical decisionmaking must challenge personal operating models, identify the limitations of existing schemes, and construct a new reality that has alternative outcomes (p. 404). Through the combination of social connection and imaginative thought, an individual can connect with other possible mental models and create new ones. Bohm (1996) called this type of dialogue "the continual emergence of a new content that is common to both participants…two people are making something in common, i.e. creating something new together" (p. 3). Students reflected such an understanding, emphasizing again and again the way that connecting to others offers an opportunity to 'reframe' decisions and create alternative visions of the future.

Negotiation of the personal-social link in ethical decision making.

The connection of personal worldview to the surrounding social culture creates a 'tension' expressed by many students in terms of how personal values can or should be expressed within a larger social environment. While some students emphasized yielding to larger organizational values, others focused on the requirement of fit between person and social environment. Such responses reflect a contention that a person's values "is interwoven with one's cultural horizon, a set of 'symbol systems, values, beliefs, and histories which define a community" (Fesmire, 2003, p. 12). These responses also demonstrate the constant personal negotiation of values within a larger social setting. As Wenger (1998) noted that: "by living in the world, we do not just make meanings up independently of the world, but neither does the world simply impose meanings on us. The negotiation of meaning is a productive process" (Wenger, 1998, p. 54). Values and ethical norms, therefore, are constantly negotiated on the basis of personal engagement within a larger social environment.

Conclusion

This presentation will describe results from a qualitative longitudinal study of moral imagination with students enrolled in a graduate leadership program. The course curriculum is grounded in the construct of moral imagination with the objective of cultivating moral imagination in leadership students. Through 60 narrative responses from students as part of their course reflections, we derived information to inform a construct of moral imagination that pertain to consciousness of moral identity, ways of knowing and identifying creative solutions, and balancing personal and organizational obligations. Using a grounded theory approach, we uncovered three overarching themes from student narratives: Value of personal understanding; Ethical decision making as a social process; and Negotiation of the Personal-social link. These themes inform the ongoing development of theory around the construct of moral imagination and provide narrative data to articulate the role of moral imagination in the lives of organizational leaders. Our results also demonstrate that core course goals are, indeed, being met. Students are gaining an increased awareness of their own personal values while also gaining competency in applied ethical decision making. At the same time, they are recognizing the necessary link of personal ethical decision making to the larger social community in which they live and work. Overall, our findings reinforce earlier models such as those created by Trevino (1986) that found individual variables such of ego strength and locus of control to impact and constrain ethical decision-making. By connecting to personal values while also remaining open to other perspectives allows for effective social negotiation – and for the creation of morally authentic imaginative responses.

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2) Blazing new trails of leadership: Youth role and context of leadership activities focusing in civic engagement

3) Research Presentation

4) This national study examined the context of FFA chapter leadership activities and the members' role in community leadership activities. It is recommended leadership activities should be further enhanced to help youth gain skills that help them better understand self, interact with others, function effectively in groups, and provide leadership within the community. Future research should further analyze member gender, years of membership, officer experience, and leadership experiences related to role and context of activities.

5) In the event the paper is not accepted, I chose not to submit it as a poster.

6) Robin Peiter Horstmeier is an Assistant Professor of Agricultural Education in the Department of Community and Leadership Development in the University of Kentucky College of Agriculture.

6) Paper Attached

Introduction

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

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

It is well documented that participation in FFA enhances leadership abilities. Researchers have found a positive relationship between leadership skills scores and FFA participation. Further, Brannon, Holley and 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) stated 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 Horstmeier and Nall (2008) examined youth leadership development opportunities in chapter activities for rural FFA members. Using a national, random multi-stage sampling technique, the researchers were able to generalize findings to the entire rural FFA chapter population. It was recommended that FFA chapter leadership development activities must continue to focus on the community. However, emphasis should be given to help young people gain skills that help them better understand self and interact with others. National FFA programs should be incorporated that emphasize effectively working in group and provide leadership within the community. This may be accomplished through chapter leadership activities such as civic engagement (Peiter Horstmeier & Nall, 2008).

Context of Leadership Activities

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

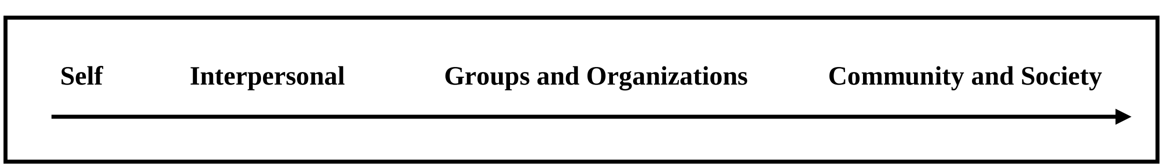

Figure 1. Context of Leadership Activity

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

In 2004, the National FFA Organization introduced a national leadership curriculum, LifeKnowledge. This curriculum's foundation is the 16 Precepts of National FFA Essential Learnings (Figure 1). These precepts focus around four key areas building on the area of Me, We, Do, and Serve. Developed by leadership experts, teacher educators, agricultural education teachers and agriculture industry leaders, these align very closely to the Ayres Context of Leadership Activities Theory (1987).

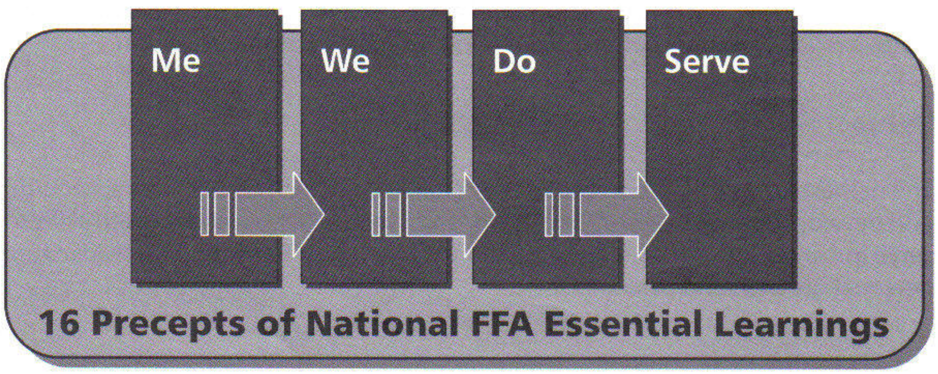

Figure 2. Precepts of the National FFA Essential Learnings.

Role of Youth in Society

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

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

Figure 3. A Spectrum of Adult Attitudes toward Youth

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

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The Theoretical Framework of this study is based merging the two leadership theories of Lofquist (1989) and Ayers (1987) as created by Peiter, Rennekamp and Nall (2005). Lofquist's theory focuses on the interaction between youth and adults in youth leadership organizations. These interactions are identified by youth viewed as objects, recipients, resources, and partners. Ayers' (1987) theory examines the context of leadership activity of the organization, activities focusing on developing self, interpersonal, groups, and community. This conceptual map displays the relationship between the context of chapter leadership activities and youth leadership member role and is displayed in Figure 4.

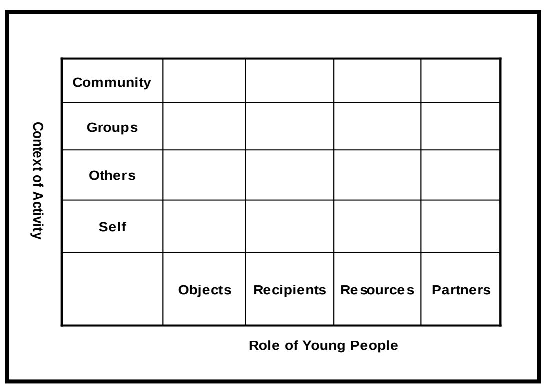

Figure 4. Conceptual Map for Theoretical Framework

Purpose/Objectives

The purpose of this study is to describe the leadership activities and youth-adult interactions of rural FFA members who participated in civic engagement leadership activities. Specific objectives of the study include:

1) Describe the personal characteristics of rural FFA members participating in civic engagement leadership activities.
2) Examine the context of chapter leadership activities after participation in civic engagement activities.

3) Describe the role of FFA members with youth-adult interactions at the chapter level after participation in civic engagement activities.
4) Analyze the strength between FFA member role and the context of chapter leadership activities.

Procedures

The population of this descriptive study was rural members of the National FFA Organization. For the purposes of this study, *rural* members were identified as those living in geographic region containing no city or town larger than ten thousand residents. All FFA chapters receiving a Civic Engagement Project Grant from the National FFA Organization in the 2006-2007 academic year were the sample (N = 15). The frame for this study was obtained from the National FFA Organization.

The FFA Leadership Questionnaire (Peiter, Rennekamp, & Nall, 2005) was utilized by the researchers to collect data for youth participation in leadership activities. The context of youth activities were identified by developing statements which reflect the potential roles FFA members engage in as they develop leadership skills moving from personal development to interpersonal development to organizational and group development to ultimately engaging in community and societal leadership (Ayers, 1987). Roles of youth in adult-youth relationships through leadership activities were also examined. Questions were developed which reflected the role in which FFA members were engaged through leadership activities which viewed them as objects, recipients, resources, and/or partners (Lofquist, 1989).

The instrument is based on a matrix integrating the context of leadership development in relationship to the roles of youth in the leadership activities conducted by FFA chapters. Four questions were developed in each cell for each of the 16 celled matrix. Each question related specifically to the member role and context of activity. For example, a cell 1 statement representing Self and Objects was "In my FFA Chapter….New members must participate in initiation activities." In contrast, cell 16 represents Community and Partners. A specific statement in this cell read "In my FFA Chapter…Members work side by side with local citizens in planning, conducting and evaluating meaningful community projects." Four statements were developed for each cell in the role-context matrix describing FFA leadership activities in the paired levels in the role-context matrix. A total of sixty-four questions were developed in this instrument, corresponding to the sixteen quadrants of the role-context matrix.

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

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

Dillman (2000) research design method was incorporated; with 15 FFA chapter advisors were notified of the opportunity to participate prior to the first mailing. Chapter advisor(s) were contacted and permission was granted by advisor, high school/middle school administrator, and member parents. Follow-up contacts were made with non-respondent FFA chapters. Each advisor administered the survey instrument to every FFA member in the chapter. This process resulted in 604 respondents from 12 FFA chapters with an 80% response rate. Early and late respondents were compared with no differences found. Research data were analyzed using SPSS 14.0 and descriptive statistics of frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were reported.

Findings

The first objective focused on the personal characteristics of rural FFA members (Table 1). Over half of the respondents were male (*n* = 337, 55.8%) and 44.2% (*n* = 267) were female. Of those who reported ethnicity, over ninety percent (*n* = 539, 90.4%) were White, Non-Hispanic. Four percent (*n* = 26) were Black, 1.8% (*n* = 11) reported their ethnicity as Hispanic, 1.2% (*n* = 7) indicated Asian, and 2.2% (*n* = 13) of respondents reported their ethnicity as Native American.

In terms of level of education, one-third of FFA members were high school freshman (34.8%). Approximately one-fourth of the respondents were sophomores (*n* = 149, 24.7%), 19.7% (*n* = 119) were juniors, 13.6% (*n* = 82) reported their grade as seniors, and 7.3% (*n* = 44) of the respondents were middle school students. Over four out of 10 members (*n* = 210, 42.7%) were first year members of FFA, and 30.0% (*n* = 181) were second year members. Almost fourteen percent have been members for three years (*n* = 84, 13.9%), over one-tenth (*n* = 67, 11.9%) have been members for four years, 1.2% (*n* = 7) have been FFA members for five years, and 1.2% (*n* = 7) were six year members of FFA. In terms of leadership positions in the FFA, only 17.6% (n = 104) of the respondents reported serving as a chapter officer, while over eighty percent (*n* = 487, 84.2%) have not held an office in their FFA chapter. When members were asked if they consider themselves to be a chapter leader, 61.4% (*n* = 361) reported they did not consider themselves to be a leader in the FFA chapter.

The second objective described the context (Self, Interpersonal, Groups, Community) in which leadership activities are performed (Table 2). FFA members viewed leadership activities focusing on personal development (self) as the greatest (*M* = 3.25) context in which leadership activities are performed. Members viewed activities resulting in interpersonal development (*M* = 3.11) as the second highest, and leadership activities resulting in skills related to group development (*M* = 3.08) followed. Leadership activities focusing on community development were perceived as area of least involvement (*M* = 3.03) by FFA members involved in civic engagement activities.

Table 1

Personal Characteristics of Rural FFA Members

	Rural FFA Members (n = 604)	
	Frequency	*Percentage*
Gender (n = 604)		
Male	337	55.8
Female	267	44.2
Ethnicity (n = 596)		
White, Non-Hispanic	539	90.4
Black, Non-Hispanic	26	4.4
Native American	13	2.2
Hispanic	11	1.8
Asian	7	1.2
Grade in School (n = 604)		
Middle School	44	7.3
Freshman	210	34.8
Sophomore	149	24.7
Junior	119	19.7
Senior	82	13.6
Years in FFA (n = 604)		
1	258	42.7
2	181	30.0
3	84	13.9
4	67	11.1
5	7	1.2
6	7	1.2
Chapter Officer (n = 591)		
Yes	104	17.6
No	487	82.4
Chapter Leader (n = 588)		
Yes	227	38.6
No	361	61.4

The most frequent area was in agreement (f = 4533, 51.30%) for leadership activities in the context of self development. The least frequent agreement by respondents was also in self development, with respondents strongly disagreeing with statements in this area (f = 225, 2.55%)

Table 2

Context in which Leadership Activities are Performed

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total			
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*M*	*SD*
Self	225	2.55	655	7.41	4533	51.30	3423	38.74	8836	100	3.25	.38
Interpersonal	344	3.93	1129	12.90	4435	50.66	2846	32.51	8754	100	3.11	.42
Groups	449	5.23	1050	12.25	4315	50.36	2755	32.15	8569	100	3.08	.39
Community	294	3.68	1274	15.93	4205	52.58	2224	27.81	7997	100	3.03	.48

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

The third objective described the role of youth (Objects, Recipients, Resources, Partners) in leadership activities (Table 3). FFA members involved in civic engagement leadership activities viewed themselves as partners (*M* = 3.21) in youth-adult relationships to a greater degree than any of the other roles. Youth saw their role as resources (*M* = 3.17) in chapter leadership activities. FFA members identified their role in leadership activities as recipients (*M* = 3.06) and objects (*M* = 3.04) less than they viewed their role as partners and resources. FFA members had the greatest agreement in that they were treated as partners (*f* = 4685, 54.52%) by adults. The least agreement was for members strongly disagreeing with partnership (*f* = 190, 2.21%) in the youth-adult partnership.

Table 3

Role of Youth in Leadership Activities

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total			
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*M*	*SD*
Objects	480	4.87	1269	12.86	5302	53.75	2814	28.53	9865	100	3.06	.38
Recipients	419	5.11	1306	15.95	3969	48.46	2496	30.78	8190	100	3.04	.38
Resources	223	2.63	857	10.10	4507	53.13	2896	34.14	8483	100	3.17	.40
Partners	190	2.21	676	7.87	4685	54.52	3042	35.40	8593	100	3.21	.41

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

Objective four described the intersection of FFA member role to the context of the chapter leadership activities. Figure 5 displays how FFA members perceived their role in leadership activities related to the context of the chapter leadership activities. Members identified their leadership activities focused on group development (chapter level) and their member role as an object (*M* = 3.59). When members responded to survey statements regarding the role and context of their leadership involvement, they indicated the lowest agreement was in chapter leadership activities focusing on others and resources role-context matrix (*M* = 2.84).

Context of Activity

Community	2.94	2.99	3.11	3.12
Groups	3.59	2.98	3.23	3.17
Others	3.30	3.21	2.84	3.08
Self	3.14	3.30	3.28	3.07
	Objects	Recipients	Resources	Partners

Role of Young People

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

Figure 5. Matrix Showing Intersection of Role and Context

FFA members responded to statements which identified the relationship between the roles of youth in youth-adult partnerships within the context of FFA chapter leadership activities (Table 4). Frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were expressed for each group of statements in the role-context matrix.

FFA members perceived their role and context as objects and group (M = 3.59). This indicates that in the objects and groups role-context matrix, members viewed activities which focused on the role of members as objects (adults tell youth to do the activity because it is good for them) in the context of leadership development activities ranging within group development (committee work). The greatest celled percentage was in the partners and groups role-context matrix cell (f = 1223, 57.55%).

FFA members involved with civic engagement leadership projects responded they had the least agreement with statements indicating their role was recipients and others in the context of group development (M = 2.84). The lowest cell with the least percentage in the role-context matrix was in role of partners (youth and adults are treated equally) and the leadership context of self development. Respondents reported they strongly strong disagreed (f = 24, 1.09%) with the statement the least of the other 15 role-matrix cells.

Standard deviations showing the least variance was in the role-context matrix cell of objects and groups (SD = 1.4). It should be noted this is consistent with the mean scores reported in Figure 5.

Table 4

Role of Members and Context of Leadership Activities in Civic Engagement FFA Chapters

	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total			
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*F*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*M*	*SD*
Objects/ Self	122	5.59	238	10.90	1044	47.8	780	35.71	2184	100	3.14	.54
Objects/ Others	61	2.71	281	12.49	1011	44.95	896	39.84	2249	100	3.21	.54
Objects/ Groups	226	10.39	358	16.45	892	40.99	700	32.17	2176	100	3.59	1.4
Objects/ Community	71	3.57	392	19.73	1086	54.66	438	22.04	1987	100	2.94	.59
Recipients/ Self	45	2.04	160	7.24	1078	48.76	928	41.97	2211	100	3.30	.50
Recipients/ Others	166	8.75	409	21.51	859	45.19	467	24.57	1901	100	2.84	.61
Recipients/ Groups	138	6.42	365	16.98	1026	47.74	620	28.85	2149	100	2.98	.48
Recipients/ Community	70	3.63	372	19.28	1006	52.15	481	24.95	1929	100	2.99	.60
Resources/ Self	34	1.52	139	6.22	1214	54.32	848	37.94	2235	100	3.28	.49
Resources/ Others	70	3.42	269	13.14	1104	53.93	604	29.51	2047	100	3.08	.55
Resources/ Groups	36	1.70	151	7.13	1174	55.40	758	35.77	2119	100	3.23	.51
Resources/ Community	83	3.99	298	14.31	1015	48.75	686	32.95	2082	100	3.11	.53
Partners/ Self	24	1.09	118	5.35	1197	54.26	867	39.30	2206	100	3.30	.46
Partners/ Others	47	2.08	170	7.51	1168	51.59	879	38.83	2264	100	3.26	.52
Partners/ Groups	49	2.31	176	8.28	1223	57.55	677	31.86	2125	100	3.17	.52
Partners/ Community	70	3.50	212	10.61	1098	54.93	619	30.97	1999	100	3.12	.57

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

Conclusions//Implications

Respondents tend to be white males, high school freshmen with one year in FFA. In addition, few hold a chapter office (less than 20% are officers at the local level), and members do not view themselves as a leader in the chapter.

In the context of leadership activities for chapters participating in civic engagement, as FFA members moved through the continuum (activities focusing on self development, interpersonal skills, groups, and community) agreement decreased in each area. This is consistent with the National FFA study with a general population of rural FFA members (Peiter Horstmeier & Nall, 2008).

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

FFA members who participate in civic engagement activities indicate they experience positive member roles in youth-adult interactions. In examining the role of youth in youth-adult interactions, FFA members view themselves as partners to a greater degree than any of the other roles. As they move through the youth-adult interaction continuum, (view youth's role as objects, resources, recipients, and partners by adults) their agreement increases. This is also consistent with findings of Peiter Horstmeier and Nall (2008).

In examining the role-context matrix, FFA members who participated in civic engagement activities identified objects and groups as the strongest relationship. Rural FFA members indicate they are treated as objects by adults in group leadership activities.

Recommendations

It is recommended chapter leadership development activities that examine member role and context of activities continue. FFA chapters should continue to design activities that engage youth as objects, recipients, resources, and partners in an age-appropriate manner. Programming emphasis should be given to assist rural youth gain skills that help them better understand community. Programming may include civic engagement, service learning, etc.

Recently, leaders with the National FFA Organizations have focused youth leadership development programming on civic engagement. Programming should continue to focus on civic engagement; however strategies must be implemented to improve the relationships between youth and adults. It is recommended that for civic engagement projects to be successful for youth leadership development, the youth-adult relationship should be one of partnership.

Professional development focusing on planning and implementation of a community civic engagement project should be conducted. Agricultural educators should be educated on the leadership development aspects and leadership outcomes of member participation in civic engagement activities. In addition, state leaders should encourage more chapter participation in civic engagement resulting in greater youth leadership development outcomes.

Further analysis of data from this study should compare rural FFA member's gender, grade level, years of FFA membership, chapter leadership experiences, and leadership experiences in other youth organizations. Differences and similarities among specific demographic areas for member role, context of activities, and relationships within the role-context matrix should be analyzed.

This study should be replicated to evaluate FFA member perceptions of youth-adult interactions and context of leadership activities over time. In addition, it is recommended to conduct focus group interviews with chapter FFA leaders to further define and clarify the degree of involvement in member roles and the context of the leadership activities.

Further research should be conducted to examine the FFA advisors' role in developing members' leadership skills. Advisors often are the adults youth interact with in the member role. If change is to take place and move member role towards enhanced partnership in the role-context matrix, advisors' viewpoints need to be evaluated.

Discussions/Implications

Agricultural Education has prided itself on developing youth leadership through secondary agriculture programs and the FFA organization since the 20th century. Research studies have shown that participation in FFA enhances leadership abilities. Further studies in leadership education discuss how civic engagement activities contribute to youth leadership development.

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

Peiter Horstmeier (2006) recommended that FFA chapters should design activities to engage youth as objects, recipients, resources, and partners in an age-appropriate manner. Similarly leadership development activities should help young people gain skills in the context that help them better understand self, interact with others, function effectively in groups, and provide leadership within the community. Civic engagement activities are such activities. Civic engagement leadership activities can provide rural youth the opportunity for community development. As rural communities shrink due to young people migrating to larger communities, specifically these civic engagement leadership activities can engage students to develop ties and ownership within their local community.

This study analyzed the context of leadership activities and member role for chapters involved in Civic Engagement leadership activities. However, results from this study describes that the strongest relationship in member role and the context of leadership activities was in Objects and Groups. Therefore, rural FFA members participating in civic engagement leadership activities indicate that their leadership activities were chapter and adult driven. This indicates professional development with FFA advisors on youth-led partnership must occur. If civic engagement leadership activities are to be effective, we as adult leaders must provide the students to be engaged and learn leadership themselves.

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2. Agricultural Leadership Programming: A Review of Literature and Recommendations for Future Research

3. Research Paper

4. Agricultural leadership programs have been in existence for over 50 years, but little research has been conducted on the curriculum, implementation and evaluation of these programs. This paper provides a synthesis of literature of these agricultural leadership programs and offers recommendations for future research.

5. Please consider for a poster presentation if not accepted.

6. Crystal Mathews was raised as one of five children on a family farm in Southwest Missouri. She graduated from the University of Missouri in 2005 with a B.S. in Agricultural Education. While at Mizzou, she completed her student-teaching experience at an inner-city Chicago high school, spent five months working for the USDA Livestock and Seed Program in Washington, D.C, and spent a year traveling the country as the National Beef Ambassador. After completing her M.S. in Agricultural Economics at Texas A&M University in 2007, Crystal began her doctoral program at the University of Florida, where she is currently studying agricultural leadership and serving as a graduate teaching and research assistant. She has presented youth leadership workshops across the country and continues to facilitate leadership conferences for the National FFA Organization.

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7. If accepted, please print in conference proceedings.

Introduction

Following World War II, individuals at Michigan State University (MSU) recognized an ongoing need for effective leadership in rural areas. The agriculture industry was diversifying and becoming more complex, creating new challenges for rural communities and increasing its role in global and national politics, economics, and sociology. In the 1950s, Dr. Arthur Mauch, MSU professor of agricultural economics, organized public policy workshops to help inform rural Michigan leaders about agriculture production and marketing, community development and international affairs (Miller, 1976).

During the same time frame, the director of the Cooperative Extension Service, Dr. Paul Miller, created the concept of "agricultural statesmen." These were well-trained and knowledgeable individuals who had an understanding of the state's public policy issues as they applied to rural areas. The creation of a "Committee of 100" was then proposed by Dr. Thomas Cowden, then dean of MSU's College of Agriculture and Natural Resources. This would be a group of farmers and rural leaders that would have a working knowledge of current issues and the skills to present seminars across the state of Michigan (Miller, 1976).

These concepts and initiatives continued to develop until Dr. Mauch, Dr. David Boyne, and Dr. Russell Mawby were assigned the task of developing a leadership development program proposal. These men were assisted by others who helped promote the vision that eventually led to the Kellogg Farmers Study Program (Lindquist and McCarty, 2007).

The W.K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan, agreed to fund a "Michigan Farmers Study Group." Beginning in 1965, the Kellogg Farmers Study Program began and was directed by staff of the Department of Agricultural Economics and the Cooperative Extension Service of Michigan State University. For the next seven years, this pilot program developed a nucleus of 150 agricultural and rural leaders across the state of Michigan. The motivation for this program came from the assumption that many Michigan farmers were trained and competent in technical and management skills, but lacking in social science and liberal arts education and understanding. There was also a foundational belief that the leadership development process could be accelerated through a concentrated training experience (Miller, 1976). The objectives of the study group were to create a better understanding of the economic, political, and social framework of American society, and to apply this understanding to the complex problems and unique concerns facing agriculture and rural communities (Miller, 1976). The leadership model was tested, evaluated, and evolved through this time frame, and results were reported to serve as a model for new programs.

After the success of the pilot program in Michigan, the concept spread rapidly to other states. The Kellogg Foundation played a role in contributing to the start-up funding of many of these programs. Based on the Michigan model, the Kellogg Foundation funded programs in California, Pennsylvania, and Montana in the early 1970s. With the success of these programs came another pilot program in Washington in the early 1980s, followed by the development and implementation of 12 more state programs and a collaborative program that combined the New England states (Helstowski, 2000). These programs were also funded by the Kellogg Foundation. Many other states and countries have created similar programs as well, with the help of $5.3 million from the Kellogg Foundation and more than $111 million from additional sources (Helstowski, 2000).

Today, there are nearly 40 programs across the United States, in Canada and Australia. While each program has unique attributes, the core and basic structure of these programs are the same. These programs have collaborated to form the International Association of Programs for Agricultural Leadership, where directors and staff meet annually to network and exchange ideas (Lindquist and McCarty, 2007). The purpose of this paper is to consolidate all of the research and evaluations that have been done with these programs, the frameworks and models that have been used, and define the next research topics and questions we must answer to ensure agricultural leadership programs will be here to serve the next generation of agriculturalists. Content analysis was utilized in this review to achieve the purposes of the inquiry for this paper.

Literature Review

While many state-wide agricultural leadership programs are in place, each of these programs has gone through the process of designing a program and curriculum to meet the needs of their state agricultural industries. New programs can look to these established agricultural leadership programs as a model to work from as they design their own program vision and goals. Research has also been done to design leadership models to serve as a framework for programs in the initial process of design and implementation, and guide established programs toward improvement and focus in achieving their objectives.

Hustedde and Woodward (1996) developed a guide for designing a rural leadership program and curriculum. The guide advocates a post-heroic view of leadership, and develops the idea of this new kind of leader as a servant leader who fosters, strengthens, and sustains vibrant and diverse leadership in the community. There are three major ways that these servant leaders are nourished, in the forms of mentorship, self-study and practice, and community leadership programs. They highlight the Michigan State University Extension Service model for a rural leadership program.

Michigan State University Extension Service has a vision for its community action leadership efforts to develop energized communities of co-leaders and co-learners committed to concerted action for a collective vision (Vandenberg and Sandman, 1995). The MSU model is based on the following four concepts:

- Community : develop leadership programs that foster trust, respect, and appreciation of diversity in the community
- Vision: help community members develop a vision of what they want to become
- Learning: stimulate learning communities where people expand their collective thinking and learn together
- Action: stimulate action and encourage “leadership by doing”

These goals are a guide for leadership program activities. Every community is unique, and needs to address the goals and vision that are appropriate for that community, but clear goals are essential to the success of every leadership program (Vandenberg and Sandman, 1995).

From the four concepts outlined in the MSU model, Sandmann and Vandenberg (1995) further developed a conceptual framework for community action leadership development. The first part was a holistic philosophy of leadership based on the four concepts of community, vision, learning, and action. The second part relates these core concepts to seven action-based values. These values of community action leadership development include: visioning together, leading together, learning together, building community, developing energy, acting together, and communicating (Sandmann and Vandenberg, 1995). The third part of this framework defines the roles of leaders in promoting community action leadership. These leadership roles include: facilitation, learner focus, leadership focus, issue/action focus, non-prescriptive, and process as content (Sandmann and Vandenberg, 1995). This article highlights the importance of the role of Extension in taking this conceptual framework from concept to practice. Extension faculty and staff must not only understand the framework, but also have the time, commitment, and resources to consistently apply this framework for 21st century leadership.

Networking opportunities is a recurring outcome of agricultural leadership programs. Graduates of the Oklahoma Agricultural Leadership Program identified networking opportunities as the most important aspect of the program (Kelsey and Wall, 2003). Kaufman and Carter (2005) studied the community benefit from the networking provided by agricultural leadership programs. Networks are identified as the connections people make with the life of their community. Leadership development programs foster opportunities for people to work together and create these connections (Kaufman and Carter, 2005). The Wedgworth Leadership Institute in Florida has shown over 77% of evaluated participants to site increased contacts and networking opportunities as outstanding program features. Over 50% of the same group noted that they were more involved in organizations as a result of the program. Quality networks are a necessary part of the infrastructure of successful rural communities (Carter, 1999).

Methods

Agricultural Leadership Programs now have a rich history with over 40 years of growth and development and more than 7,200 alumni. The average state program is 15 years old and nearly half of all programs operate out of universities (Helstowski, 2000). While every agricultural leadership program varies because of the unique aspects of each location and the individual personalities of the people involved, there are many things that are similar in the structure of these programs. Most programs average two years in length, and meet at seminars once a month or every other month. Each seminar has a different focus or teaches to a specific objective. The seminars usually rotate to various parts of the state or province, and programs typically include a national trip with a visit to the nation's capitol and many incorporate an international experience.

Curriculum is focused on leadership development with an emphasis on educating participants about local, state and national issues affecting agriculture and rural areas. Participants build relationships and network with industry and policy leaders and many continue their program involvement through alumni associations. Leadership topics may include analytical and problem solving skills, interpersonal skills, decision making, policy development, coalition and network building, and addressing local, state, national, and global issues. This is by no means an exhaustive list of topics that may be included in seminars.

An important component to an effective agricultural leadership program is the people who are involved in the implementation of these programs. Each program is directed and operated by a staff of dedicated professionals who are committed to seeing agriculturalists across the state develop their leadership abilities and in turn step up to the challenge of leadership in their communities and industries.

The participants that are chosen for these programs must prove themselves capable of leadership before the offer is extended through previous involvement in local and state agricultural organizations, and leadership roles they've held in community, church, educational and commodity organizations. Some programs have age requirements, and most participants are between 25-45 years of age. Applicants are put through interviews or a selection process to make the cuts necessary to create each high caliber class. They make a commitment to give up to 80 days to program participation over the next two years, taking time away from their family and work in an effort to better themselves and serve their communities and industry.

Research has shown that one factor effecting participation in agricultural leadership programs is socioeconomic status. High-income group leaders have had a greater extent and degree of participation in program alumni activities than did low-income group leaders (Dhanakumar, et al., 1996). Wall, Pettibone, and Kelsey (2005) used factor analysis to test the effect of socioeconomic status on leadership and participation of agricultural leadership program graduates. Results showed that levels of income and education were statistically significantly related to community commitment. It was suggested that program directors need to recruit from various socioeconomic groups, which may require attention addressed to the cost of tuition and travel expenses (Wall, et al., 2005).

Findings

Agricultural leadership programs are a huge investment of time and resources for sponsors, staff, facilitators, participants and their families. Thus, it is pertinent that these programs are evaluated periodically to ensure their effectiveness and make improvements and adjustments as needed. These evaluations also need to be conducted to ensure the continuation of funding. Several studies have been conducted on specific state agricultural leadership programs to assess the viability and validity of the program and make suggestions for changes that could be implemented.

Horner (1984) evaluated the impacts of the Nebraska Leadership Education/Action Development Program after its third class. The program was designed to bridge the gap in public policy education for adult leaders in agriculture, and therefore focuses on public policy leadership education. From the first class of 30 individuals, more than 30% have held gubernatorial appointments on state boards and commissions. Others have been elected to state producer, educational, and professional offices. Several implications are highlighted as integral to the success of this program. One is the important role of extension educators as a link between citizens and policymakers. Promotion is essential to getting an adequate number of quality applicants. Horner emphasizes the need for analysis of public issues to be included in the program design (Horner, 1984).

In 1992, Whent and Leising conducted an evaluation to assess the impact of the California Agricultural Leadership Program on its participants from 1970-1990 and identified opportunities for program modification and curriculum change. A comparison of pre-measure and post-measure program perspectives was conducted by asking graduates to rate themselves on various items prior to their participation in the program and after as a result of the program. Participants perceived the program to have had a direct impact on their personal and professional lives. Results showed that respondents with fewer years of education showed greater gains in program objectives, leadership skills and family and peer relationships, and a recommendation was made for admission policies to consider this. Seven percent of respondents were from minority groups and less than thirteen percent were female. Based on these findings, it was suggested that the program increase the number of minorities and women in the program to reflect the California agriculture industry. From information gathered through open-ended questions in phone interviews, it was further recommended that there should be an increased emphasis on written and verbal communication, self-assessment of individual leadership styles, and clinical practice of effective leadership techniques (Whent and Leising, 1992).

Lee-Cooper (1994) gathered graduate’s perceptions of the Oklahoma Agricultural Leadership Program to examine the impact on its participants and measure the extent to which the objectives of the program were appropriate and accomplished. Respondents indicated the objectives of the program were highly appropriate and were accomplished above average, but felt further attention could be paid to understanding U.S. cultural and social systems and how they affect Oklahoma agriculture. Participants' perceived the program to have developed their networking abilities and confidence in answering questions in large group settings. If funding were available, respondents would add a joint meeting with other agricultural leadership programs across the U.S. (Lee-Cooper, 1994).

Dhanakumar, Rossing, and Campbell (1996) evaluated the outcomes of the Wisconsin Rural Leadership Program. Results showed that alumni of the program had gained valuable knowledge and skills, but the higher the age of the alumnus, the less valuable the program was to them. Graduates who pay greater attention to public issues beyond their community were more satisfied with the program. Those who gained communication and networking skills were more interested in public office positions, as well as those who had more children. Communication and networking with other community activists had a significantly positive impact on community development accomplishments. Alumni financial contributions to the Wisconsin Rural Leadership Program were supported by knowledge gained in life priorities and self-confidence, personal and professional life and strain, and public affairs and confidence. This study suggests rural leadership education is a product of the process, and rural leaders learn best through a process of action and reflection (Dhanakumar, et al., 1996).

Carter (1999) conducted an evaluation of the Florida Leadership Program for Agriculture and Natural Resources, which continues to operate as the Wedgworth Leadership Institute. Finding showed the program was meeting its objectives and participants felt the program to be beneficial and worthwhile. Participants broadened their perspectives through exposure to various cultures, increased their network and ability to raise awareness of rural issues, and further developed their critical thinking skills. Participants also increased their leadership skills, knowledge of political systems, and indicated they would continue to build on the foundation provided by the program. Carter conducted spouse interviews that also validated the program benefits for participants and further verified the program to be meeting its objectives (Carter, 1999).

Kelsey and Wall (2003) determined the extent of rural community development and involvement of graduates after completing a two-year agricultural leadership program from 1982 to 2001. Findings showed that graduates were aware of the importance of rural community development, but they were not serving in leadership positions and taking a minimal role in community improvement. While the program increased the awareness that communities have needs, it did not teach knowledge or skills to identify community needs, and therefore did not contribute to training leaders for community development. Conclusions recommend changing the program goals to establish leaders who can become community developers to justify the cost of the program. There was also an emphasis on the need for curriculum that teaches needs assessment, project development, and change agent skills to give participants the skills and knowledge they need to be effective community leaders (Kelsey and Wall, 2003).

In 2005, Abbington-Cooper conducted a study to determine if graduates of the LSU AgCenter's Agricultural Leadership Development Program from 1988-2004 have increased their leadership skills and involvement in community and agricultural issues. Results showed that respondents were satisfied with the program; it met their needs, improved their self-concept and had a positive impact on relationships and leadership competencies. Respondents indicated that they had a better understanding of U.S. agricultural systems and Louisiana state issues as a result of the program. Participants were more influential and involved in both agriculture and non-agriculture issues. Some suggested topics for additional practicum included leadership development, the business of farming, marketing and trade, agriculture and public opinion, public policy, and family (Abington-Cooper, 2005).

Black (2006) evaluated the outcomes of an Ohio statewide agricultural leadership program at three levels: individual, organizational, and community. The research was conducted using the EvaluLEAD framework developed by Grove, Kibel and Hass and measured post-program outcomes and program achievements. Findings showed several positive outcomes were reported on the individual and organizational level, with one positive outcome at the community level. There were several community levels and one organizational level reported to have low outcomes (Black, 2006).

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Much of the research that has been done in relation to agricultural leadership programs has been an evaluation of the impacts of the program on its participants and their further involvement in agriculture and community leadership roles. A common recurring theme in the outcomes of these programs is the networking opportunities they provide to participants. Numerous program evaluations in several different states validate the impact that these programs make and track the accomplishments of program alumni since their participation. There are still opportunities for growth as adjustments are made to improve the quality of these programs and the preparation that they provide for future leaders.

Helskowski (2000) highlighted several challenges and opportunities for the future of agricultural leadership programs. Many times programs and alumni are disconnected, and there may be great potential in linking programs and alumni by regions and interests using modern technology to increase communication and action. Forging a national network of program alumni and increasing the national profile of these programs could amplify the impact made on agricultural policies and practices at multiple levels (Helstowski, 2000). An ongoing issue highlighted in evaluations of many state programs is a lack of gender equity and diversity in the class compositions. And there is a value-added opportunity for programs to continue education for alumni and program directors.

There is still further research that can be done to improve the information we have on agricultural leadership programs. It is difficult to measure the value of these programs, but important to be able to justify the cost, which can be around $250,000 per class (Kelsey and Wall, 2003). Research to measure the economic impact of these agricultural leadership programs would be extremely beneficial in gathering and maintaining program financial support and justifying the tuition costs for individual participants.

There is a large gap between what agricultural leadership programs are designed and believed to be, and what we can measure and justify that they provide. There is a gap between what we teach in these programs and the research that supports the framework and structure for what is being taught. Alumni will attest to the value of the programs and the personal impact it has made in their own life, the lives of their families, their communities, and careers. But the gap remains, and questions remain unanswered. The purpose of this paper is to consolidate all of the research and evaluations that have been done, the frameworks and models that have been used and define the next research topics and questions we must answer to ensure agricultural leadership programs will be here to serve the next generation of agriculturalists.

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2) Republic of Georgia students' change in critical thinking dispositions as a result of a week-long leadership training experience

3) Research

4) This descriptive study measured the change in critical thinking dispositions of Republic of Georgia students following a Future Farmers of Georgia (FFG) leadership training experience (camp) using a retro-post version of the UF-EMI instrument (Irani, Rudd, Gallo, Ricketts, Friedel, & Rhoades, 2007). Findings indicate that the leadership training camp was successful at improving the critical thinking dispositions of the young members. Recommendations include additional leadership training experiences.

5) If not accepted, please consider for a poster.

6) John Ricketts is in his fifth year at the University of Georgia. In addition to coordinating the agricultural teacher education program he has also taught graduate courses (i.e. Foundations of Leadership) for UGA's Master of Agricultural Leadership program and undergraduate courses such as ALDR 3900 Leadership and Service and FRES 1020 Freshman Seminar in Leadership Development.

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7)

Introduction

Education's purpose is to replace an empty mind with an open one. – Malcomb S. Forbes

The European Republic of Georgia has taken a keen interest in furthering the education of its young citizens and ensuring its independence. Under Soviet control until 1991, this nation of rich culture and history is now a young democracy. Since agriculture accounts for about half of the gross domestic product and employs about one-fourth of the labor force, agricultural and leadership education can help to expand the minds of youth and develop their leading industry (Georgia, 2008). The *Georgia to Georgia* leadership exchange is a special partnership between the University of Georgia (USA), Georgia FFA (formerly known as the Future Farmers of America), and the Future Famers of Georgia (FFG) in the country of Georgia. During a three-week internship program, a team of collegiate leaders from the USA visited the country and conducted training for student leaders of the FFG. The training was designed to equip FFG members with the tools necessary to make a positive difference in their communities, schools, and homes through sound leadership and decision-making—qualities that require a disposition towards critical thinking. The USA trainers were all former members and officers of the FFA in the United States. The trainers' authentic leadership and agricultural experiences gave them credibility and a platform from which to share leadership ideas and knowledge of agricultural practices with the Georgian students and teachers. The *Georgia to Georgia* leadership exchange empowered FFG members to promote agriculture and leadership throughout their own communities in the Republic in Georgia.

This study of critical thinking as a result of a leadership training activity was especially important for the *Georgia to Georgia* leadership exchange, because the participants of this study represented the leaders of the seven pilot school programs, as well as the new national leaders of the FFG organization. These leaders will be largely responsible for setting vision and direction, as well as implementing new activities, for the young organization. The focus on critical thinking was also important to the leadership exchange, as it indicated the level of acceptance the Georgian students had for the ideas shared by their American counterparts.

Critical thinking is characterized as the reasoning behind actions, logic of decisions, and ability to change one's perspective based on evidence. Critical thinking comes with a certain amount of power, as it allows an individual to determine the accuracy, value, and authenticity of evidence, ideas, and actions (Beyer 1985, p. 276). According to the Foundation for Critical Thinking (2007),

A well-cultivated critical thinker:

- Raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely
- Gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively
- Comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against relevant criteria and standards
- Thinks alternatively within alternative systems of thought, recognizing and assessing, as need be, their assumptions, implications, and practical consequences

- Communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problems (Foundation for Critical Thinking, The Result Section, ¶ 1).

The leadership training camp cultivated critical thinking by challenging students to accept new ideas, think differently about leadership concepts, and make plans that would shape the future of their own organization, beyond the models provided by the National FFA Organization. In order for the conference to be successful, students had to step outside of their comfort zone and experience a different type of learning – experiential [leadership] learning. Experiential learning involves a concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). The leadership training experience/camp that was developed, delivered, and evaluated in this study utilized Kolb's model of learning (See Figure 1).

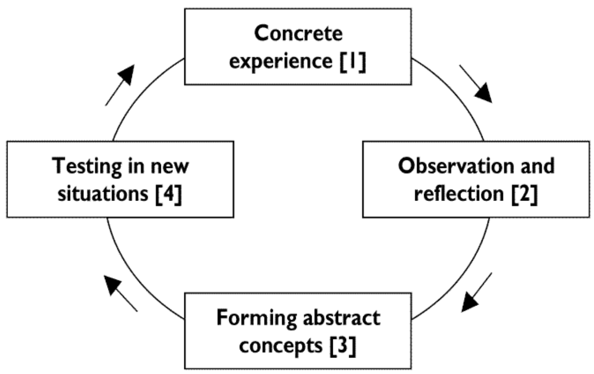

Figure 1. The Experiential Learning Cycle (Kolb, 1984).

Literature Review

Students may think critically about specific content areas (i.e. leadership development) or they may utilize their critical thinking disposition in a variety of contexts (Ricketts & Rudd, 2005). This study measured students' disposition to think critically about a variety of contexts following a week-long leadership training camp. Critical thinking is an important component of leadership education, as critical thinking allows a leader to make objective, informed decisions that affect and influence his/her followers. Figure 2 represents hypothesized components and processes of leadership curriculum for youth (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). This study specifically evaluated the critical thinking development of Georgian youth as a result of leadership training using the leadership education curriculum model below.

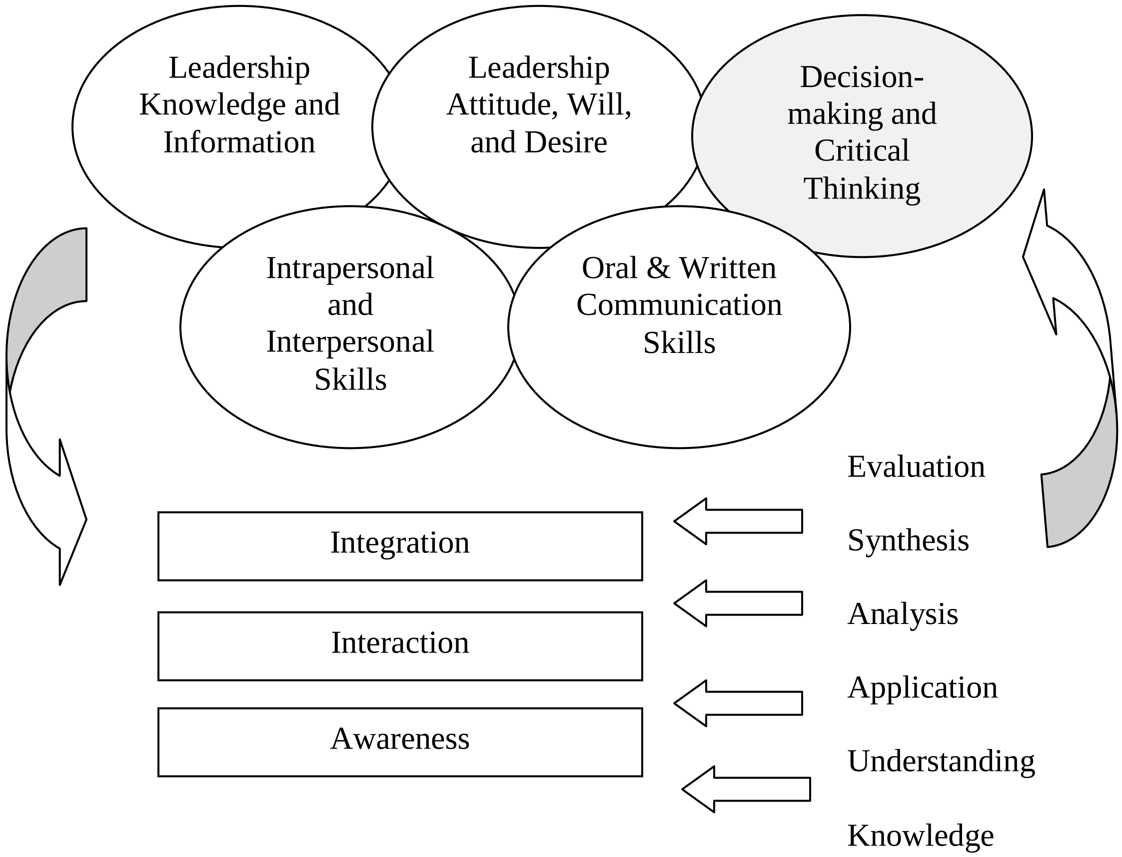

Figure 2. Model for Youth Leadership Curriculum adapted from “A Comprehensive Leadership Education Model to Train, Teach, and Develop Leadership in Youth,” by J. C. Ricketts and R. D. Rudd, 2002, *Journal of Career and Technical Education*, *19*(1), Retrieved February 26, 2008.

Student development of critical thinking engenders foundations needed for a democracy and the tools needed for independent and life-long learning (Saskatchewan Education, 1989). As part of this study, Georgian students were exposed to parliamentary procedure training, and they democratically elected the first set of National FFG officers as part of the leadership training camp. Leadership experiences such as these ought to foster development of critical thinking disposition.

Developing critical thinking should allow students to continually build on their knowledge and to make more deliberate decisions. Leadership training that is cognizant of critical thinking produces individuals who value knowledge, learning, and the decision-making process. Students need to develop critical thinking in order to move their learning beyond rote memorization and submissive acceptance to true understanding (Saskatchewan Education, 1989).

The critical thinking dispositions that might allow youth to move into more active, truth-seeking leadership include *cognitive maturity*, *engagement*, and *innovativeness* (Irani, et al., 2007). Irani, et al. (2007) developed a three-construct measure, which at least conceptualizes the dispositional aspect of the critical thinking component of the aforementioned leadership education model. These constructs were formed out of a factor analysis of the dispositions touted by renowned critical thinking researcher, Peter Facione (1990). Facione conducted a national Delphi study of experts in all areas of academia, psychology, and philosophy. He discovered the dispositions of analyticity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness, maturity, open-mindedness, systematicity, and truth-seeking. Following factor analyses of Facione's dispositions, a critical thinking research group from four universities determined that the aforementioned three factors of cognitive maturity, engagement, and innovativeness were more comprehensive and explanatory of critical thinking dispositions (Irani, et al., 2007).

Engagement, Cognitive Maturity, and Innovativeness are usually measured via an instrument referred to as the EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment. According to Ricketts and Rudd (2005):

> The Engagement disposition measured students' predisposition to look for opportunities to use reasoning; anticipating situations that require reasoning; and confidence in reasoning ability. The Innovativeness disposition measured students' predisposition to be intellectually curious and wanting to know the truth. The Cognitive Maturity (Maturity) disposition measured students'awareness of the complexity of real problems; being open to other points of view; and being aware of their own and others' biases and predispositions (p. 33).

Ricketts (2005) analyzed student leaders of the National FFA Organization and found positive relationships between critical thinking and (a) leadership experiences (i.e. public speaking contest, parliamentary procedure events, conventions) and (b) leadership training (i.e. leadership courses, leadership workshops, etc.). As a result of the study with leaders in the FFA, Ricketts recommended more youth be exposed to formal leadership training activities, encouragement of youth to participate in non-formal leadership activities, and additional research to establish the relationship between critical thinking and leadership development.

This study of the change in critical thinking disposition as a result of a formal leadership training camp responds to the recommendations of Ricketts (2005). The purpose of the *Georgia to Georgia* leadership exchange was to equip and inspire Future Farmers of Georgia members to make a positive difference through leadership training, resource sharing, and intercultural dialogue. The evaluation of critical thinking development will provide insight regarding the accomplishment of these purposes.

Purpose and Objectives

This study was conducted to determine whether the methods and concepts introduced to students during the leadership training experience changed the students' critical thinking dispositions. Specifically, the following objectives guided this study:

1. Describe students' critical thinking disposition scores prior to the FFG leadership training experience.
2. Describe students' critical thinking disposition scores after completing the FFG leadership training experience.

3. Describe the change in critical thinking disposition scores as a result of the FFA leadership training experience.

Methods

The leadership training experience/camp in this study was developed for the newly established FFG. The leadership training event is one of several initiatives being supported by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), World Link, Inc., a private, non-profit organization whose purpose is to provide international cross-cultural exchange opportunities for students and educators, the Georgia Institute of Public Affairs (GIPA), and the University of Georgia.

The treatment (*X*) for this study was the aforementioned four-day leadership training camp in which Georgian FFG members (*N* = 28) participated in leadership education and activities that revolved around the following themes:

(1) Characteristics of a Good Leader,
(2) Characteristics of a Good Team,
(3) Officer Roles, Responsibilities, and Team Maintenance/Functioning, and
(4) Planning.

Seven schools attended the leadership camp yielding a population of *N* = 28 with each school represented. The majority of FFG members participating in the study was male (*f* = 16). Throughout the conference students discovered the importance of character, commitment, leading as a team, and goal setting. Many of the activities focused on the significance of communication, decision-making, accountability, and commitment. After being introduced to the traditional role each officer plays on a FFG officer team, the students studied the significance of responsibility, conducting successful meetings, and using parliamentary procedure. The agenda for the leadership training camp follows:

Day 1 – Focus: Me
An introduction to leadership and exploration of characteristics of a good leader.

Welcome/Get to Know You Activities
Session 1: Defining Leadership Styles
Session 2: Setting Vision and Creating School Vision Statements
Session 3: Defining and Applying Character Qualities of a Leader
Reflections: Care-packages and Letters from Partner Schools

Day 2 – Focus: We
A combination team building initiatives and the discussion of the qualities necessary for leaders and high-performing teams.

Session 1: Teambuilding Initiatives
Session 2: Discovering Team Accountability
Session 3: Practicing Team Communication

Session 4: Demonstrating Commitment to the Team
Recreation: Campfire, S'mores, Traditional Georgian Singing and Dancing

Day 3 – Focus: Do
A closer look at officer roles and responsibilities and how to maintain a successful organization.

Session1: Officer Roles & Responsibilities
Session 2: Running a Successful Meeting - Order of Meetings, Voting, Parliamentary Procedure
Session 3: Writing and Presenting a Successful Speech or Presentation
Field Trip: Historic Castle/Beach
Reflections: Sea-side Café in Batumi

Day 4 – Focus: Serve
Understanding the planning process and working in school teams to develop plans for school and community activities.

National Officer Candidate Speeches and Election
Session 1: Identifying Needs in School and Community & Brainstorming Activity Ideas
Session 2: How to Plan Projects and Activities
Session 3: Putting It All Together: Creation of a Plan of Activities/Planning Time
Celebration Banquet and Announcement of National Officers
Recreation: Dance

Day 5 – Closing

Conference Closing/Wrap-Up Remarks Led by New National Officer Team

This was a descriptive population study that utilized a one-group retrospective-posttest design ($X\ O_1\ O_2$). According to Rohs and Langone (2006), the retrospective-posttest is a more accurate than the traditional pre-test/posttest. Using this type of self-reported assessment, participants are asked to respond twice following the treatment. The first response (column) asked participants to report their disposition prior to the treatment (leadership training camp). The second response (column) asked participants to report their disposition as a result of the treatment (Howard, Ralpf, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber, 1979).

On the last full day of the leadership training camp, students consented to complete the retrospective-posttest version of the EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment (Irani, et al., 2007). The standard EMI instrument has undergone extensive content and face validity checks from experts in the field. The adapted version was also approved by six critical thinking experts from five different land-grant institutions. Reliability of the original EMI ranges from ($\alpha = 0.79$ to 0.94) for the various constructs (Irani, et al). Reliability of the adapted version, as used in this study, ranges from ($\alpha = 0.79$ to 0.93) (Ricketts, Pringle, & Douglas, 2007). In addition, the adapted EMI was translated to the Georgian language, which has a literary tradition dating back to the 5th Century A.D. (Georgian language, 2008). Data was entered into Excel, and means and standard deviations were calculated via Excel to determine retro, post, and change in critical thinking dispositions scores as a result of the leadership training experience. The EMI took about twenty minutes to complete. The assessment contained twenty-six questions, each relating to one of the three constructs: engagement, cognitive maturity, and innovativeness.

Findings

Objective one sought to describe critical thinking dispositions prior to the leadership training experience and objective two sought to describe dispositions following the experience. FFG member-participants of the leadership training camp had lower Engagement (M = 42.25; SD = 5.39), Cognitive Maturity (M = 28.14; SD = 4.71), Innovativeness (M = 24.71; SD = 4.56), and Total EMI (M = 95.11; SD = 12.34) critical thinking dispositions at the outset of the event compared to the completion of the leadership training activity (Table 1). Participants reported critical thinking disposition mean scores of 47.75 (SD = 7.45), 32.82 (SD = 6.66), 28.11 (SD = 4.92), and 108.68 (SD = 17.90) respectively for Engagement, Cognitive Maturity, Innovativeness, and Total EMI score.

Table 1. *Retrospective-Posttest Critical Thinking Dispositions Scores (N=28)*

	M	*SD*
Engagement		
Retrospective	42.25	5.39
Post	47.75	7.45
Cognitive Maturity		
Retrospective	28.14	4.71
Post	32.82	6.66
Innovativeness		
Retrospective	24.71	4.56
Post	28.11	4.92
Total EMI: Critical Thinking Score		
Retrospective	95.11	12.34
Post	108.68	17.90

Objective three sought to determine the change in critical thinking dispositions as a result of the leadership training experience. Given the reported range differences (Irani, et al., 2007) for each construct, change in critical thinking dispositions is reported as a percentage. Engagement scores increased positively, 10.23%. Cognitive Maturity positively increased by 11.83%. Innovativeness increased by 9.99% and Total EMI scores improved by 10.65% (Table 2). Given that this is a population study, it would not be appropriate to make inferences about the significance of the changes.

Table 2. *Percentage increase for critical thinking disposition scores as a result of the FFG leadership training experience (N=28)*

	Percent Change
Engagement	10.23%
Cognitive Maturity	11.83%
Innovativeness	9.99%
Total EMI Score	10.65%

Conclusions/Implications

Critical thinking disposition scores of pre and post experience would be classified as weak disposition scores (Bisdorf-Rhoades, Ricketts, Irani, Lundy, & Telg, 2005), but the only other published study investigating the critical thinking dispositions of non-American participants using the EMI determined that international students scored significantly lower in the critical thinking dispositions of Engagement and Innovativeness, as well as total disposition score (Irani, Rudd, Friedel, Gallo-Meagher, & DeFino, 2004).

Though the scores were low, the FFG leadership training experience/camp in the Republic of Georgia was impactful. Students developed in all areas of critical thinking disposition (Engagement, Cognitive Maturity, Innovativeness, Total EMI) by an average of ten percentage points. Because this was a population study lacking a control group, researchers wonder if the change in critical thinking can be attributed to leadership content which ought to foster critical thinking (i.e. parliamentary procedure) or the effectiveness of the experiential learning methodology (Kolb, 1984), which is a foreign concept to a Georgian educational system still influenced of decades of rote lecture and memorization.

Upon completing the leadership training conference, students experienced the most growth in the area of cognitive maturity – the disposition related to understanding that things are more complex than they at first seem. Leadership training encourages students to reconsider previously held ideas and encourages critical thinking. This news is encouraging for FFG members with the hope of leading their country into a new era of democracy and freedom.

Recommendations

FFG members and leaders seeking to enhance the critical thinking disposition of youth in Georgia need to continue focusing on leadership education that infuses critical thinking; however, training should also be provided that overtly teaches critical thinking to the young leaders. Friedel, Irani, Rudd, Gallo, and Eckhardt (2006) discovered that overtly teaching for critical thinking significantly influenced critical thinking. Perhaps combining experiential leadership learning with specific content modules related to the “nuts and bolts” of developing critical thinking would develop dispositions more fully.

The retrospective-posttest version of the EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment (Irani, et al., 2007) was effective in determining impact of the leadership training experience.

However, caution should be exercised in evaluating these results as assessments are new to the Georgian students; students' unfamiliarity with such surveying techniques and the translation process may introduce more error than usual in this study. Although the retrospective-posttest evaluation is reportedly more accurate (Rohs & Langone, 2006), perhaps a true pretest-posttest, complete with randomized treatment and control groups, should be additionally delivered for future leadership training experiences for FFG members in the Republic of Georgia.

Based on the results from the assessments, future leadership trainers should continue to ask questions that reflect higher order thinking skills during the workshops, probe for more meaningful answers, and utilize reinforcement techniques to ensure concepts are well understood. Critical thinking instruction requires time in order to be effective; therefore, continued administrative support and commitment are necessary for long-term success. Unfortunately, funding that supported the *Georgia to Georgia* leadership exchange is limited. Therefore, it is also recommended that FFG participants of this study become the trainers for other FFG members in their school and/or region utilizing the content and methods learned at the leadership training camp.

It is recommended that future FFG leadership training events continue to utilize experiential learning methodologies. It is also recommended that randomization and control groups be included in future studies to determine the specific contributors to the critical thinking dispositions development. If future studies determine that the experiential leadership learning activities are continuously as impactful, the long-term effects of similar FFG leadership training camps could contribute to personal, organizational, and perhaps even national achievements in leadership and agriculture. The sustainability of the leadership training camps and the FFG will depend upon leaders who are able to adopt the dispositions of critical thinking.

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2. Are they really different? Teaching leadership and critical thinking to the masses

3. Research Paper

4. Leadership programs are growing and meeting the needs of the masses, but are differences in the critical thinking dispositions of the students sitting in our classrooms making instruction effectiveness strained – or are the business students, agriculture students, liberal arts, honors, women and men the same when comes to critical thinking?

5. A poster is okay

6. Nicole Stedman is an Assistant Professor of Leadership at the University of Florida and instructs both undergraduate and graduate students. She is the departmental coordinator for the university wide minor in leadership and instructs a large leadership theory course. Her research interest is the enhancement of critical thinking in students studying leadership.

7. Okay

Are they really different? Teaching leadership and critical thinking to the masses

Introduction

The trend in leadership courses is growth! With enrollment in leadership courses increasing, the classrooms that were once small and intimate are now overflowing with students. Ten years ago, Fritz and Brown (1998) declared that institutions were not offering leadership courses because of a lack of resources and student demand. Times have certainly changed and ten years later, classes are filling to capacity faster and with a greater variety of students. Undergraduate education is changing to accommodate the growing demands of employers seeking graduates who are better prepared to deal with the complex world. The preparations include the basic development of leadership skills (Graham, 2001, McKinley, Birkenholz, &Stewart, 1993). While there has been tremendous growth in leadership emphasis areas, majors and minors in colleges of agriculture there is no doubt that this trend exists in college classrooms and campuses regardless of the discipline.

One of the basic tenants of leadership is cognitive ability (Bass, 1990; Katz, 1995; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; Mumford, Zaccaro; Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman, 2000). In fact, a majority of leadership theories today support the development of cognitive abilities, knowledge, and intellectual stimulation (Northouse, 2007). In an effort to address this leadership need, many classrooms are turning to critical thinking. Critical thinking is comprised of skill and disposition. While skill is malleable, critical thinking disposition is one's naturally occurring attitude or preference for critical thinking and is not easily changed. In many instances, there is an assumption that students are different in disposition.

Many believe that the classroom landscape has changed and that critical thinking instruction is more important than ever. Critical thinking is emphasized by employers and seen as a way to increase the U.S.'s market in a global economy (Daly, 1990 as cited in, Shafersman, 1991). Classrooms that once had a homogeneous student population are now filled with a diverse group of students with different backgrounds and from different colleges. Leadership educators must address the question, "Are the students in my class different from one another and what can I do to enhance their critical thinking?"

Literature Review

Critical Thinking

In 1998, Peter Facione under took a massive project to operationalize the concept of critical thinking. The outcome of his project was the development of critical thinking dispositions and skills. Facione (1990) defined critical thinking as, "purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations…" (pg. 2). This complex definition suggests that the practice of critical thinking is not entered into with ease. Facione's Delphi study approached critical thinking from the perspective that there has to be a common ground for educators to discuss critical thinking; from this, critical thinking dispositions and critical thinking skills were born.

Facione (2000) defined disposition as an individual's "habitual ways of acting" (pg. 4). It is the way we act or react to situations and our environment. Coupling this with the notion of critical thinking dispositions, it becomes our attitude or preference for thinking critically. Facione contended there are many examples of individuals who are skillful at thinking, but do not possess the correct motivation to do it. Halpern (1999) provided that instructors are challenged to make students value "good" thinking and the amount of work necessary to make it happen. There are plenty of examples of individuals who possess the potential to think critical, but do not practice and vice versa with those who may not be that disposed to it, but can certainly demonstrate the skill set when appropriate.

Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) further defined critical thinking as, "a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (pg. 5). Rudd, Baker and Hoover linked critical thinking to learning style, but their research revealed no significant differences between the two concepts. Since that time, researchers conducted a number of studies analyzing the various facets of critical thinking. Moore and Rudd (2003) discovered there were no significant differences in the relationship between bench science and social science career classifications. The researchers did identify significant differences in the relationship between gender and truth-seeking, inquisitiveness, and maturity. This finding supported those by Rudd, Baker and Hoover, who found significant differences in gender between truth-seeking, maturity and open-mindedness (2000).

Ricketts and Rudd (2004) established new instrumentation which re-categorized Facione's (1989) critical thinking dispositions, identifying cognitive maturity, innovativeness, and engagement. From their initial studies, they identified low positive relationships between critical thinking skill (Facione, 1990) and disposition (as defined by Ricketts and Rudd).

Stedman and Andenoro (2007) expanded the role of critical thinking, postulating a relationship with emotional intelligence, which is another essential behavior for leaders. In their study, they identified significant relationships between students' overall critical thinking disposition as measured by the EMI, and emotional intelligence, as defined by Weisinger (1998).

There are still numerous research studies regarding critical thinking disposition which provide a great deal of insight into many areas beyond critical thinking skill. Critical thinking, itself has been studied in a variety of disciplines: management, nursing curricula, athletic training, accounting, and agricultural education. All disciplines ask the same question: where do we begin with critical thinking instruction?

Leadership Education

Leadership education courses have increasingly diversified student enrollment, and now include students from colleges of business, liberal arts and agriculture (and life sciences) respectively. Colleges of business have traditionally focused on leadership in organizational behavior courses providing the basics of leadership (Nirenberg, 1998). In colleges of liberal arts curricula, educators focused on political science providing students a glimpse into political leadership and decision making.

In colleges of agriculture, there is a growth of leadership programs offered in agricultural education departments. These courses have grown over the last ten years and provide their curriculum to a wide variety of students. Fritz and Brown (1998) purported that growth in leadership programs in departments of agricultural education was forthcoming and that departments must reach out to their academic peers in other departments to engage in course offerings. This foretold of the increase and encouraged educators then, to consider an interdisciplinary approach to leadership education.

Today leadership classrooms are filled with students from a variety of backgrounds and experiences having varied interests and goals. The combination of increased class enrollment and more diverse perspectives with a need to enhance and develop critical thinking skills is an important consideration for the leadership educator. If the student make up is increasingly diverse and the content (critical thinking instruction) increasingly complex, how can leadership educators ensure a quality experience for all students? Swatez (1995) declared that the leadership classroom should be one where students are free to debate, discuss, and disagree with the texts' and instructors' ideas supporting the development of critical thinkers.

Specifically for this research project, the interest of the researcher was to establish if differences existed between students historically enrolled in the course and those enrolled for the purposes of obtaining a minor in leadership. Because of the manner in which students from different colleges experienced or came into contact with leadership concepts prior to entering the course discrepancies in beliefs about leadership were evident, especially the question, "are managers and leaders different?" Because of the varied conclusions drawn by these questions and the freedom of the students to express these differences, it was natural to ask what is causing the difference?

The purpose of this study is to determine if any differences exist among students in a large leadership theory course in their critical thinking disposition. This purpose guided the development of the following research objectives.
To determine:

1.) the demographic make-up of students participating in the study,
2.) the critical thinking disposition mean scores of students in the study,
3.) the variance between ct disposition scores of students in the study based on selected independent variables.

Methods

This study was conducted during the Fall (2007) and Spring (2008) semesters at a land grant institution. Participants were selected through their enrollment in a large leadership theory course with an average semester enrollment of 120. The course is required for students in the major, other majors within the college and those seeking the university-wide leadership minor. There were a total of 230 students enrolled in the course during the two semesters the researcher collected data. This was a convenience sample of students representing individuals in leadership courses. Of the 230 eligible to participate, there were a total of 177 useable responses collected for a response rate of 77%.

The researcher used a causal-comparative approach to identify variances between the independent variables, gender, age, major college, grade point average, and honors enrollment and the dependent variable of critical thinking disposition. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) a causal-comparative research design is a non-experimental and provides the researcher with information about a dependent variable existing within a group or groups.

In order to measure critical thinking disposition the researcher used the UF/EMI (STEP, 2006) and included a short demographic questionnaire to elicit the remaining data. The UF/EMI instrument assesses an individual's disposition toward critical thinking and includes three scales, cognitive maturity, innovativeness, and engagement. Cognitive maturity addresses an individual's personal awareness of biases and predispositions and has a typical score range of 8-40. Innovativeness refers to the ideas that individuals' are "hungry learners" and look for new knowledge with a range of 7-35 (STEP Program, 2006). Engagement is defined as an individual's ability to anticipate situations where good reasoning is necessary and scores range from 11-55. Developers report the UF/EMI to have a total reliability of .937, with the following scale Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients, engagement, .906; cognitive maturity, .787; and innovativeness, . 797.

The investigator completed data analysis using SPSS© and applied the statistical analysis of ANOVA, analysis of variance. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) identified this procedure as appropriate for analyzing variance among more than two means.

Findings

The objectives of the study were guided by the research purpose, which was to determine if any differences exist among students in a large leadership theory course in their critical thinking disposition.

Objective 1: Determine the demographic make-up of students participating in the study.

The demographic make-up of the students was analyzed in order to provide a glimpse at who the participants of the study were. Four colleges were represented, including agriculture (53%, n=94), business (25%, n=44), liberal arts (20%, n=35), and health and human performance (2%, n=4). The largest number of respondents specifically reported being in the family, youth and community sciences major (27%, n=48), followed by finance (8%, n=15) and dietetics (6%, n=10).

Of those respondents, the largest age range was between 19 and 22 (n=147), with 16% (n=28) 23-27 and the remaining, 1.6% (n=3) over the age of 30. Gender was assessed, as well and the researcher found that 75% (134) of respondents were female, with only 44 male.

Grade Point Average (GPA) was included, as was Honors designation. GPA scores were categorized and grouped. Of the 174 respondents, 38% (n=67) reported a GPA between 3.10 and

3.50. The second largest group were those with a GPA between 3.51 and 3.75 (25%, n=44). On the high end, 22% (n=36) reported a GPA between 3.76 and 4.00. Conversely, 10% (n=18) were between 2.76 and 3.0; while 5% (n=9) were between 2.5 and 2.75. At this institution, honors enrollment is optional and reflects additional coursework and commitment to the program on part of the student. Of the 175 participants represented in the study, 12% (n=21) reported being enrolled in the honors program.

Objective 2: Determine the critical thinking disposition mean scores of students in the study.

This objective provides initial information about the general mean scores of respondents. This is to establish baseline understanding of differences existing, prior to determining any statistical significance in the variance within or between the groups.

Gender was the first independent variable analyzed and scores were consistent for both men and women; although men outscored themselves higher in engagement (*M*=43.81, *SD*, 7.82) and innovativeness (*M*=27.65, *SD*=6.88) as compared with women (*M*=43.46, *SD*, 5.42; *M*=27.49, *SD*=3.55). Whereas women's self-reported scores were higher for cognitive maturity (*M*=31.04, *SD*=3.58) then men (*M*=30.74, *SD*=3.37). The total critical thinking scores were higher for men (*M*=102.65, *SD*=16.13) then women's (*M*=102.30, *SD*=10.80).

Age was categorized and group by range. For the disposition of engagement, the highest mean score was for those participants 19-21 (n=107) (*M*=43.71, *SD*=5.45); followed by respondents 22-24 (n=63) (*M*=43.48, *SD*=7.19), range of 25-27 (n=4) (*M*=41.75, *SD*=5.18) and respondents, 28-50 (n=3) (*M*=41.67, *SD*=2.08). Innovativeness scored highest by those respondents 22-24 (*M*=27.81, *SD*=5.98), followed by 28-50 (*M*=27.67, *SD*=1.53), 19-21 (*M*=27.43, *SD*=3.59), and 25-27 (*M*=25.75, *SD*=4.57). Lastly, cognitive maturity was scored highest by those participants in the range of 28-50 (*M*=31.33, *SD*=2.52), followed by 19-21 (*M*=31.07, *SD*=3.70), 22-24 (*M*=30.92, *SD*=3.26), and 25-27 (*M*=29.00, *SD*=3.60).

Major college classification was analyzed for mean scores. In the area of critical thinking engagement, participants from the college of health and human performance scored highest (*M*=46.75, *SD*=3.5), followed by agriculture (*M*=43.55, *SD*=6.41), business (*M*=43.43, *SD*=6.21), and liberal arts (*M*=43.31, *SD*=5.20). Respondents from the college of health and human performance scored highest in the construct area of innovativeness (*M*=29.50, SD=1.92), followed by liberal arts (*M*=27.69, *SD*=3.40), agriculture (*M*=27.65, *SD*=5.19), and business (*M*=26.98, *S*D=4.13). The last construct are analyzed was cognitive maturity and was scored highest again, by respondents in the college of health and human performance (M=31.50, SD=1.30), agriculture (*M*=31.45, *SD*=3.46), liberal arts (*M*=30.91, *SD*=3.43), and business (*M*=29.95, *SD*=3.72).

GPA was analyzed for category mean scores. Engagement was scored highest by those respondents self-reporting a GPA of 3.76-4.00 (*M*=44.75, *SD*=4.86), followed by 3.10-3.50 (*M*=43.94, *SD*=6.92) and the lowest scoring group was those reporting 2.50-2.75 (*M*=41.22, *SD*=5.31). Respondents self-reporting a GPA of 3.10-3.50 scored highest in innovativeness (*M*=28.27, *SD*=5.60), then those with a 3.76-4.00 (*M*=27.92, *SD*=3.71). The lowest scoring group was those in the GPA range of 2.50-2.75 (*M*=26.00, *SD*=3.28). Cognitive Maturity was scored highest by those in the range of 2.76-3.00 (*M*=31.94, *SD*=3.57), then 2.50-2.75 (*M*=31.22, *SD*=2.28) with the lowest score being in the range of 3.51-3.75 (*M*=30.25, *SD*=3.84).

Closely aligning is the independent variable of honors enrollment. Consistently, those respondents designating an honors enrollment scored higher in each of the construct areas, engagement (*M*=44.70, *SD*=3.51), innovativeness (*M*=28.35, *SD*=2.78), and cognitive maturity (*M*=31.35, *SD*=3.70).

Objective 3: To determine the variance between ct disposition scores of students in the study based on selected independent variables.

The intent of this objective was to provide a means for comparing the variance in critical thinking disposition scores based on selected demographic variables. As reported in objective 1, these were: gender, age, major college, grade point average, and honors enrollment. The researcher analyzed all data for significance with alpha set a priori at .05.

Gender

The first analysis determined if differences existed in the critical thinking disposition of innovativeness by gender. There were to statements showing a significant difference between groups, "I enjoy learning even when I am not in school," (F=5.12, p<.05) and "I search for the truth even when it makes me uncomfortable," (F=5.59, p<.05). However, further analysis of the total critical thinking disposition of innovativeness by gender showed no significant differences (F=.04, p>.05).

Variance between groups, critical thinking disposition of cognitive maturity by gender, revealed no significant differences. This was for both independent statements of cognitive maturity and the total construct score (F=.24, p>.05). The critical thinking disposition of engagement by gender did show significant differences with the "I keep on working on things until I get them right," (F=6.24, p<.05); however, at the total engagement disposition score level there were no significant differences revealed (F=.11, p>.05).

Similarly, data analysis showed no significant differences with the total score for critical thinking disposition by gender (F=.03, p>05). This completed the analysis for critical thinking disposition by gender.

Age

The second round analysis determined differences in variances of critical thinking disposition by age. Cognitive maturity showed significant differences in one construct statement, "I am likely to change my opinion when I am given new information that conflicts with my current opinion," (F=1.93, p<.05); however revealed no significant differences at the total cognitive maturity construct level (F=.69, p>.05). Engagement showed no significant differences either at the individual statement level or construct level (F=.66, p>.05).

Similarly, the critical thinking disposition of innovativeness revealed no significant differences at the construct statement level or total construct level ($F=.62$, $p>.05$). The ANVOA for the total critical thinking disposition score showed no significant differences by age ($F=.65$, $p>.05$).

Major College

The third independent variable analyzed for variance was the college represented by the respondents major. With that four colleges were identified: agriculture (n=94), business (n=44), liberal arts (n=35), and human, health and performance (n=4).

The critical thinking disposition of innovativeness was analyzed for significant differences in variance by major college. There were two independent measures of innovativeness which showed significant differences by major college, "I enjoy solving problems," ($F=2.94$, $p<.05$) and "I will go out of my way to find the right answers to problems," ($F=2.60$, $p<.05$). However, the total construct score for the critical thinking disposition of innovativeness showed no significant differences ($F=.50$, $p>.05$).

Next, cognitive maturity by major college was analyzed and found to have significant differences in five of the construct statements. These were "I listen carefully to the opinions of others even when they disagree with me," ($F=2.73$, $p<.05$, "I can get along with people who do not share my opinions," ($F=2.77$, $p<.05$), "I consider how my own biases affect my opinion," ($F=3.50$, $p<.05$), "I try to find multiple solutions to problems," ($F=2.64$, $p<.05$), and "I ask many questions when making a decision," ($F=2.76$, $p<.05$). Yet, with the number of individual constructs showing significant differences the total construct score for cognitive maturity by major college showed no significant differences ($F=1.86$, $p>.05$).

Engagement was the third disposition analyzed for variance by major college. There was one construct statement showing significant differences, "I am a good problem solver," ($F=2.81$, $p<.05$). However, again analysis revealed no significant differences at the total engagement disposition by major college ($F=.39$, $p>.05$).

In regard to the total critical thinking disposition score by major college, analysis revealed no significant differences ($F=.69$, $p>.05$).

Grade Point Average (GPA)

GPA was a self-reported demographic used for a forth level of analysis of variance in critical thinking disposition. The first disposition analyzed by GPA was innovativeness. Across each construct statement there were no significant differences revealed, as with the total score for the disposition of innovativeness by GPA ($F=1.46$, $p>.05$). Similarly, the total score for critical thinking disposition by GPA showed no significant differences ($F=1.20$, $p>.05$)

Likewise, the disposition of cognitive maturity by GPA showed no significant differences, either by statement or total construct score ($F=.75$, $p>.05$).

Honors Enrollment

Honors enrollment was the last independent variable assessed for variance between the groups or categories of respondents. In this particular case, the construct of cognitive maturity showed one construct statement to be statistically significant, cm20 (F=5.60, p<.05); however, the total construct score was not significantly different (F=.26, p>.05).

Likewise, the disposition of engagement had one statement e7 (F=5.01, p<.05), yet the total construct score for engagement was not statistically significant (F=.81, p>.05). Lastly, innovativeness neither showed statistical significance at the construct statement or total construct level (F=.72, p>.05). These cumulative results failed to show any statistical difference at the total dispositional score (F=.74, p>.05).

These findings were synthesized and analyzed for consistency or contrasts against previous works as documented in the literature review. With that conclusions and recommendations were made.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Because of the nature of this study the researcher disclaims the generalization of findings beyond this particular research group. The following conclusions and recommendations are made to address specific issues and findings of the participants of this study.

Objective one found a diversity of individuals in the large leadership theory course. One particular finding was the number of female students represented in the overall course enrollment. This is an important consideration in addressing overall classroom management and course experiences. Age of participants was found to be normal or consistent with typical college course enrollment; with the slight exception of those students over traditional age (25-50).

Second, was the idea of major college representation; the number of students represented by four different colleges from across the institution. The majority was from the college of agriculture where the course was offered; however, other students represented by business, and liberal arts are important enrollment factors for leadership courses. GPA was important and showed a range of student achievement. With that, reported GPAs showed a high level of student performance and demonstrated that students enrolled in this course were at a moderate to high level of academic achievement. While there was not a majority of honors enrolled students, their participation in the course does influence peer-to-peer interactions.

Objective two analyzed the mean scores of the critical thinking dispositions of engagement, innovativeness and cognitive maturity against the selected demographic variables of gender, age, major college, GPA and honors enrollment. The self-reported mean scores indicated that men reported themselves as more disposed to critical thinking in the areas of innovativeness and engagement; whereas women scored high in cognitive maturity. With the normal range of scores for engagement being 11-55; the men in this study were on the higher end (M=43.81). Likewise, innovativeness ranges from 7-35 and the men’s reported means was 27.65. The women on the other hand scored higher in cognitive maturity (M=31.04), which has a normal range of 8-40. The scores may indicate that there is still a gap in the way men and women perceive themselves and that natural differences may cause disparity in critical thinking. This may encourage instructors to seek out different ways to encourage critical thinking be that through group activities pairing men and women to complement one another or to allow more time for each group to hone their particular dispositions into skills.

The mean critical thinking dispositions scores as measured by age were varied, in terms of highest and lowest scoring groups. With the highest mean scores for all three dispositions reported by different age ranges; engagement (19-21; *M*=43.71), innovativeness (22-24, *M*=27.81) and cognitive maturity (28-50, *M*=31.33) one can only surmise that each group has its strengths when considering critical thinking disposition. One consistent finding related age to cognitive maturity, in that the older an individual is the more aware of his/her personal biases and subjectivity he/she becomes.

An area of interest was the self-reported mean scores of participants categorized by major college. The findings showed that the college of human health and performance scored highest in each critical thinking disposition area. This could be a result of the program itself and the type of students it attracts, being the program is comprised primarily by pre-health and pre-med students. The college of agriculture showed median scores, scoring the second highest in engagement and cognitive maturity. This may be a result of the hands on applied nature of programs in the college or a result of more directed instruction in the area of critical thinking as evidenced by this institution. The college of business scored lowest in two (cognitive maturity and innovativeness) of the three dispositions. This may be a result of the program in business and the curriculum, with little emphasis in the area of personal reflection and idea development. Although the research is not fully comfortable with this claim, there appears to be a significant need for additional research in this area.

Similarly, GPA showed a large amount a variance in the groups which scored highest for each of the critical thinking dispositions. As one may have expected, engagement (anticipating situations where good reasoning is necessary) was scored highest by those in the GPA range of 3.76-4.00. The other areas did not indicate a specific group whose scores merit further discussion. This relates to earlier research indicating that because an individual is disposed to think critically does not mean they follow through with the practice and vice versa. Honors enrolled students scored higher than non-enrolled students in all three critical thinking dispositions. Understanding the decision to enter honors programs and the student make-up of those enrolled compared to non-enrolled is an area of interest and should be further explored.

Objective three analyzed the mean scores for significant differences. Although there were specific dispositions which showed significant differences in specific construct statements; all groups failed to show significant differences at the total dispositional scores. This included the total critical thinking disposition score. However, because of subtle differences found in mean scores, as reported in objective two, and the significant differences in specific statements, the researcher fully contends that additional research be conducted to determine the causes of the differences and to address limitations of the study, which may have caused the findings to be non-conclusive.

In an effort to address leadership curriculum, establishing a need for critical thinking in the classroom is not only pertinent to the student experience in the course, but in their lives as leaders after the course. It is important that the leadership classroom foster critical thinking through dispositional development and skill building. With that, educators should create a classroom environment open to students from a variety of backgrounds which allows open communication and dialogue about leadership concepts. As this study showed for this particular institution; although scores are different by mean, the significance is not and students should be developed for who the leaders they will become not their gender, age, major college, GPA or honors enrollment.

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2008 ALE Annual Conference

Research Paper Proposal

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2. Title: Leadership Development and Social Capital: Is There a Relationship?

3. Track: Research Paper (Literature Review)

4. Abstract: Researchers and practitioners are increasingly recognizing leadership as a social process. Social capital has emerged as an important theme in leadership research. This review summarizes a well-documented relationship between social capital and leadership, but we have an incomplete understanding of the dynamic nature of this relationship. Researchers should develop new evaluation methods, in the context of social capital, to answer these questions.

5. I would like this to be considered for a poster presentation should it not be accepted as a research paper.

6. Biography: Since 2001, Larry Van De Valk has served as Director of LEAD New York, a two-year leadership development program for adult professionals in the food and agricultural industry. Previously, he was professor of Agricultural Engineering Technology at the State University of New York at Cobleskill. He has participated in several leadership development programs, and consults with outside groups in areas related to leadership development. He has an Associate's Degree in Forestry, Bachelor's Degree in Agricultural Engineering, Master's Degree in Education, and is currently a PhD. candidate in Adult and Extension Education, with research interests in leadership development, social capital and program evaluation. He is a member of the Association of Leadership Educators and the International Association of Programs for Agricultural Leaders.

7. Note: This paper was previously submitted (October 30, 2007) to Dr. Christine Townsend, Editor, Journal of Leadership Education. It is currently under review, but was not originally submitted as a research paper for consideration as a presentation at the 2008 ALE Annual Conference (the call for conference papers was not available at that time).

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL CAPITAL: IS THERE A RELATIONSHIP?

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Abstract

Significant resources of time, money and expertise are invested in leadership development programs, and networking is often cited as a benefit of participation in these programs. Previous research has traditionally focused on leadership as an individual attribute, but researchers and practitioners are increasingly recognizing leadership as a social process. Social capital has emerged as an important theme in leadership research, and networking and relationship-building are important steps in enhancing social capital. Based on this review of recent literature, I conclude that the relationship between social capital and leadership is well documented, but we have an incomplete understanding of the dynamic nature of this relationship, and lack sufficient evidence to support a causal assertion that one leads to the other. Researchers and practitioners should develop new LDP evaluation methods and designs, in the context of social capital, to answer these questions.

Introduction

The practice of leadership development has been in existence for decades and interest in this field continues to grow (Day, 2000). One need not conduct an extensive internet search to find thousands of leadership development programs, targeting corporate executives, community leaders, not-for-profit organizations, youth and adult learners. In the specialized area of Agricultural Leadership Development alone, over 111 million dollars of support went to 28 U.S. programs from 1965 to 2000, and over 7200 program participants had been exposed to approximately 18 – 24 months of training (Helstowski, 2000).

Leadership development researchers and practitioners are increasingly recognizing the social processes involved in leadership (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Earlier leadership theories (e.g. transactional and transformational leadership theory) tended to emphasize those attributes possessed by the individual leader, but more contemporary leadership research is focused on relations between actors (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). *Social capital* (SC) has emerged as an important concept in leadership development work, and can be defined simply as "…the features of social organization such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit" (Putnam, 1995). *Networking* is an important step in the process of building social capital (Fredricks, 2003; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005). "How Leaders Create and Use Networks" by Ibarra and Hunter (2007) and "How Leadership Networks Strengthen People and Organizations" by Giovagnoli and Stover (2004) are two more examples of recent writing on the importance of networking to leadership development. Several other scholarly works argue that a relationship exists between SC and leader effectiveness (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006; Burt & Ronchi; Chia-Chen Kuo, 2004; Fredricks, 2003; Giovagnoli & Stover, 2004; Kilpatrick & Falk, 2003; King, 2004; Terroin, 2006; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005).

The purpose of the present review is to determine the extent to which the literature supports the notion that a relationship exists between leadership development efforts and enhanced SC. This review will examine not only positive aspects of such a relationship, but will also look for potential drawbacks or failures in achieving sustained improvement in SC or networking.

Methods used in this review.

A thorough review of all literature on leadership theory, SC theory, or measurement of SC is beyond the scope of this paper. I therefore focused on scholarly work that specifically addresses a link between the LDP and SC. It should be noted that some of the studies discussed do not mention SC per sea, but do discuss the importance of relationships or networking in leadership, and are therefore considered in this discussion.

Certain selection criteria and search limits were utilized to focus this review. A review of leadership development literature by Day (2000) made extensive reference to SC in leadership development work. Partly because of Day's review, and partly to focus on more contemporary research in leadership development and SC theory, the present review focused on articles published since 2000. In an effort to ensure the quality of reviewed references, emphasis was placed on peer-reviewed journal articles. One doctoral dissertation (Black, 2006) specifically addressed LDP evaluation and made reference to a network building effect, so it was included in this review as well.

Several combinations of the following keywords or phrases were used in searching for appropriate references: leadership development, leader effectiveness, leadership theory, leadership development program evaluation, social capital theory, measurement of social capital, leadership and social capital, networking, social networks, reviews. The search process utilized was similar to those suggested by Creswell (2003, p. 34) and Galvan (2006, chap. 3). Initial searches of multiple databases and electronic journals were conducted through Cornell University's library gateway, with few limits (temporal or publication type) imposed. These databases included: ABI/Inform, Academic Search Premier, Agricola (Ovid), ArticleFirst, BIOSIS Previews (ISI), Business Source Premier, Cornell University Library Catalog, ERIC (Ovid), ERIC Database, FRANCIS, Google Scholar, Human Resources Abstracts, ICPSR, International encyclopedia of the social and behavioral sciences, ISI web of knowledge, JSTOR, LexisNexis Academic, PapersFirst, Periodicals Index Online, ProQuest dissertations and theses, ProQuest Research library, PsycINFO, Social science research network, Sociological abstracts, Web of science, and Web of Science: Social Sciences Citations Index.

After screening the many "hits" obtained by these preliminary, relatively unrestricted searches, more productive databases were identified for further, more focused (temporal and publication type) searches. Following this round of more focused searches, highly relevant journals began to emerge, so further searches were conducted of those journals' archives. These journals/periodicals included: Adult Education Quarterly, Journal of Extension, Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, Journal of Leadership Education, Leadership, Leadership and Organizational Development, Leadership Quarterly, and Review of Research in Education. At this point in the review, if not before, several authors, and even specific papers, emerged as important references (e.g. Day, 2000). I paid special attention to other literature reviews identified to this point, and cross-referenced those reviews to my growing list of references. As a final check on the coverage of this review, I carefully reviewed the references sections of other key papers, to look for additional authors and/or important papers that I might have missed.

A brief overview of social capital theory.

Often referred to as the father of modern social capital theory, Bourdieu (1985, p. 248) defined social capital as: (For alternative definitions of SC provided by various authors, see the review of recent literature by King, 2004.)

> the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to memberships in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity-owned capital, a "credential" which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word.

Bourdieu also recognized the role of *networks* in building SC: "The volume of the social capital possessed by a given agent thus depends on the size of the network of connections he can effectively mobilize…" (p. 249). Bourdieu identified SC as one of three forms of capital, the other two being cultural capital and economic capital. He argued that while economic capital was immediately and directly convertible into money, both cultural and social capital were convertible into economic capital only under certain conditions. He suggested that SC could only readily be converted into economic capital if investments had been made in advance to ensure that when a relationship is drawn upon, the agents react. Zacharakis & Flora (2005) noted that "Networks are the main mechanism through which trust is developed and reciprocity established." (p. 294) and Day (2000) proposed that "Networking opportunities build peer relationships across functional areas, leading to the creation of additional SC." (p. 597)

Coleman (1988) likewise pointed to SC as a particular kind of resource available to an actor (p. S98). Like physical capital, SC can be used to facilitate action for the individual or mutual benefit of the actors involved. Coleman suggested that SC is inherent in the structure of relations between and among actors. Unlike physical capital, however, SC is less tangible and not as easily owned by an individual. Because an individual actor may not realize all of the benefits of an increase in SC, as they would royalties from wholly-owned physical capital, they may be less inclined to make investments in developing SC:

> A property shared by most forms of social capital that differentiates it from most other forms of capital is its public good aspect: the actor or actors who generate social capital ordinarily capture only a small part of its benefits, a fact that leads to underinvestment in social capital. (p. S119)

Coleman (1988) also proposed that SC existed in three different forms. Nahapiet and Ghosal (as sited in Day, 2000) propose three different aspects of SC, which I find similar to those forms proposed by Coleman. Table 1 offers a comparison of these taxonomies.

Table 1
Three forms of social capital as described by different authors

Coleman, 1988	Nahapiet and Ghosal (as cited in Day, 2000)
Obligations and expectations, which depend on the trustworthiness of the environment	Relational SC – functional assets that are rooted in networked relationships, such as trust and trustworthiness
Information-flow capability of the social structure	Structural SC – structure of interactions and an actors location in relation to his or her contacts provides resources to the actor and the organization
Norms accompanied by sanctions	Cognitive SC – resources embodied in shared representations and collective meanings among people (I.e. norms)

Other authors (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006; Day, 2000; Kilpatrick & Falk, 2003; Putnam, 1995; Terroin, 2006; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005) have suggested different levels of network connections making up SC, not to be confused with the three forms of SC discussed above. Table 2 summarizes the terminology used by various authors to describe these types of network connections.

Table 2
Network connections in social capital: summary of selected authors and terms

Author(s)	Levels of network connections		
	Internal	External	
		Horizontal	Vertical
Balkundi & Kilduff (2006)	Ego & organizational networks	Ego & Inter-organizational networks	
Day (2000)	Strong (redundant) ties	Weak (non-redundant) ties	
Kilpatrick & Falk (2003)	Micro (individual) -bonding ties	Meso (organizational) -bridging ties	Macro (society) -bridging ties
Terroin (2006)	Bonding	Bridging	Linking
Putnam (1995)	Horizontal	Horizontal	Vertical
Warren (as cited in O'Brien et. al.) (1998)	Horizontal linkages		Vertical Linkages
Zacharakis & Flora (2005)	Bonding ties	Bridging ties	

While these authors may use different terms to describe the various types of network connections that exist within SC, a few common themes emerge. Bonding ties generally refer to those ties between members of a group or community; or internal relationships. Bridging, linking, or vertical ties are those that are established between communities or organizations; relationships between members of different groups or communities. It is generally accepted that ties or connections within an individual's own organization or community tend to be stronger and more frequent than external ties. Finally, most authors recognize that external ties or diverse membership in organizations are often necessary to arrive at creative and workable solutions to problems that organizations and communities face.

Another area of agreement seems to be that SC enhances the effect of other forms of capital in communities, including physical, financial, human and environmental capital. None of these forms of capital reach their full potential if SC is not present (Zacharakis & Flora, 2005). Putnam (1993) has argued that SC enhances the benefits of investment in physical and human capital (pp. 35-36). Kilpatrick and Falk (2003) suggest that enhancing SC allows individuals to share their own knowledge and skills, or human capital, and that the development of trust in communities has been identified as a prerequisite for commitment and action on behalf of the community. Putnam (1995) showed social trust and civic engagement to be highly correlated. Kuo (2004) has noted that SC has a (positive) moderating effect on team effectiveness.

Finally, not all that is associated with SC is necessarily positive. (For a thorough discussion of the risks and benefits of SC, see King (2004) table 1 p. 479.) Bourdieu (1985) noted that in order for SC to be transformed into economic capital, investments must be made in advance to ensure that when a relationship is drawn upon, the agents in the relationship will react favorably. Weak, external ties tend to fall apart rapidly if they are not used for an extended period (King, 2004). In other words, SC requires advanced and sustained investment to be effective. Another downside of SC is observed when too much emphasis is placed on strengthening bonding (strong, internal) ties, at the expense of building bridging (weaker, external) ties. This usually leads to an insolated, isolated community with poor external relationships, and does little to overcome resistance to change (Kilpatrick & Falk, 2003). Zacharakis and Flora (2005) used the term *cultural reproduction* to describe community development projects that reproduced existing leadership structures rather than creating opportunities for expanding community leadership pools. Such efforts often lead to in-bred, self-serving forms of SC - commonly referred to as a "good old boy network" – and such networks tend to discourage newcomers, causing them to drop out prematurely. Finally, Balkundi and Kilduff (2006) suggest that brokerage across social divides (sometimes necessary to create linking ties) may engender distrust rather than gains.

Having provided a brief review of SC theory, definitions, advantages and disadvantages, it seems a definition of leadership should be provided prior to launching into a discussion of the relationship between SC and leadership. However, given that most readers of this article likely have already spent a great deal of energy considering various definitions and theories of leadership, I will not dwell on the matter at length.

Leadership is defined simply as an influence process (Yukl, 2002). Using that definition in the context of this review of SC and leadership, we can slightly modify it to read: "Leadership is a social influence process" (e.g. Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006). That single adjective takes a simple, yet effective definition of leadership and recognizes that leadership is a social endeavor, implying the central role of relationships in its function. Having provided a simple but useful definition of leadership, let us now turn attention to the relationship between SC and leadership.

Establishing a link between social capital and leadership.

Day (2006) reviewed the leadership development literature of the late twentieth century through three different contextual lenses: a *conceptual* context, in which he distinguished between leader and leadership development; a *practice* context, in which he examined state-of-the-art organizational development work; and a *research* context, in which he summarized recent research that had implications for leadership development. As useful as that approach was, the most significant aspect of Day's work for the present review was how he underscored the importance of developing both social and human capital in organizations.

Day goes to great lengths describing the difference between leader and leadership development, and between human capital and social capital. Day points out that certain terms are used inappropriately based on a disconnection between the practice of leadership development and its scientific foundation. Traditional conceptualizations of leadership (e.g. transformational leadership theory) emphasize the individual leader, and early leadership research sought to identify traits, skills, and behaviors common to successful leaders (Day, 2000, p. 583). Training programs that seek to improve such individual-level skills and abilities are more correctly referred to as *leader* development programs, or "human capital development" in human resource terminology.

Leadership development, then, more correctly refers to programs designed to improve the collective leadership ability of a group, organization or community. The literature commonly associates such group capacity with SC. The following analogy is useful in differentiating between the individual and social aspects of leader(ship) development (Day, 2000, p. 584):

Human Capital : Leader (individual) : : Social Capital : Leadership (group)

Programs that address only individual skills and abilities, then, should be referred to as *leader* development programs. Programs that develop the collective leadership capacity of groups, without addressing individual skills and abilities, should be considered *leadership* development programs. It is likely, however, that most programs in existence today address some combination of both individual and group capacity to lead, and simply refer to themselves as *leadership* development programs. Day also notes that networking and action learning are effective leadership development strategies for building SC. He suggests that more research is needed to determine if and how coaching, mentoring, and job assignments may lead to enhanced SC (p. 588).

Balkundi and Kilduff (2006) provide a theoretical framework for the relationship of social networks to leadership. They offer four interrelated principals of network theory: the importance of relations between actors, embeddedness of actors in social fields, network connections constitute SC (the utility of network connections), and structural patterning of social life. These authors suggest "leadership can be understood as social capital that collects around certain individuals – whether formally designated as leaders or not – based on the acuity of their social perceptions and the structure of their social ties" (p. 421) and "Our network approach locates leadership not in the attributes of the individual but in the relationships connecting individuals." (p. 420). Leader cognitions of social networks matter – leader cognitions affect leader behaviors with implications for both leader effectiveness and organizational effectiveness. They suggest that helping subordinates build SC is itself a measure of the leader's effectiveness, due in part to the fact that such enhancement of SC has organizational benefits (p. 431). Finally, they emphasize that leaders "…generate and use social capital through the acuity with which they perceive social structures and the actions they take to build connections with important constituencies within and across social divides." (p. 435)

In their longitudinal study of the economic viability of five rural communities, O'Brien, Raedeke and Hassinger (1998) concluded that SC was indeed a good predictor of rural community viability. Studying five more or less similar communities which had experienced similar major economic and environmental impacts over a six year period, the authors found that those communities where leaders had more extensive SC networks tended to be more successful. In this study, the researches found a stronger relationship between community viability and leaders' horizontal (within community) ties, as opposed to their vertical (outside of the community) ties.

Uhl-Bien (2006) offers *Relational Leadership Theory* (RLT) as an overarching framework for the study of leadership as a social influence process. While not addressing SC specifically, she offers ample evidence to support RLT. She distinguishes it from the recent, predominant relational leadership work known as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), suggesting that the two perspectives of relational leadership theory can compliment each other in future research. An entity perspective looks at the individual as the unit of analysis and interpersonal relationships (e.g. quantity, quality, type) as the variables analyzed. The relational perspective views leadership as a process of social construction; thus relationships become the basic unit of analysis, not individuals. She shares several good definitions of leadership, as well as suggestions for future directions in leadership research (e.g. how relationships form and develop in the workplace). While not addressing SC specifically, the underlying tie to SC theory is the importance of relationships in leadership.

Kaufman and Carter (2005) noted that lack of SC in rural areas may serve as a catalyst for the implementation of LDPs. They also note that the term *capacity building* is often used to describe such community based SC enhancement or leadership development efforts, and that such programs usually provide networking opportunities that allow participants to build SC. Whereas Day (2000) noted that action learning (i.e. having participants work in teams on real-life problems) is an effective way in which LDPs can help participants build SC, Kaufman and Carter (2005) and Kelsey and Wall (2003) note that this is precisely where many LDPs fall short. Too often LDPs are effective at improving participant understanding of issues, but fall short in teaching them how to actually apply their learning to lead change efforts in their communities.

If many LDPs fall short in actually getting participants to apply what they have learned, or change their behavior, then increasing diversity in the LDP may offer some assistance. According to Kilpatrick and Falk (2003), shared experiences build networks, trust, and shared values, all of which lead to the development of SC (p. 502) and better community actions and decisions (p. 503). Such claims of improved adult learning through shared action and interaction are supported by Terroin (2006, p. 9). Kilpatrick and Falk suggest that SC is dynamic – it is both used and built through learning processes like those found in many LDPs (p. 507). They suggest that agriculture could be considered a community of common purpose, similar to an island community. They note that small, isolated communities, like islands, often lack diversity, but that diversity is important in building bridging ties (see the SC discussion above). Such bridging, or external, ties are more conducive to overcoming resistance to change (p. 509), whereas bonding ties (internal), when exaggerated, tend to make members resist change (as in close-knit, sheltered agricultural groups). A good mix of bonding and bridging ties "enables the sharing of skills, knowledge, and resources within the group, while at the same time accessing outside resources." (Kilpatrick & Falk, 2003, p. 510)

In her literature review, King (2004) pays specific attention to the relationship between SC and the work of nonprofit managers and leaders. She does not address LDPs per sea, but her review serves as a synthesis of relatively recent writing on several themes important to this review, summarized as follows:

- Numerous definitions of SC exist, and most authors agree that defining SC is a major challenge
- Most authors agree there are different forms or levels of SC, though their terminology varies (e.g.: Strong and weak ties, horizontal and vertical ties, bonding and bridging ties – see Table 2 above)
- SC is a resource that can benefit organizations and individuals; it can be accumulated, bartered, created, and mobilized.
- SC is embedded in networks, and actors central in those networks often serve in the role of broker. Actors with more connections, stronger connections, more central locations in the network, tend to be more powerful leaders
- The SC of leaders is perhaps the most ignored, under-researched aspect of leadership
- One of the greatest weaknesses of the SC concept is the absence of consensus on how to measure it
- Researchers are unable to separate SC from its outcomes, making quantitative measures nearly impossible
- Finally, King says that the opportunities for research in SC are endless – but the researcher needs to conceptualize and operationalize them in a meaningful and scholarly way.

Another literature review conducted by Kuo (2004) examined literature that addressed impacts of team leadership on team effectiveness. Among other propositions offered as a result of this review, Kuo identified SC as a moderating variable in the relationship between team leadership and team effectiveness. He also notes that previous research on team leadership and team effectiveness rarely examined the effect of SC in teams; yet another suggestion that we should more extensively study the potential effect of SC and teams, and by extension, leadership.

Some LDP evaluations suggest a link to networking or enhanced SC.

Several LDP evaluations suggest *networking* is an important benefit of program participation. While SC may not be specifically mentioned in some of these papers, a relationship between networking and SC exists, as previously discussed (Fredricks, 2003; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005). Black (2006) conducted an outcome evaluation of a statewide LDP, and identified three levels of outcomes: individual, organizational, and societal/communal. At the organizational level, "network of contacts" and "networking skills" were the outcomes most highly rated by program alumni in survey questionnaires. Carter and Rudd (2000) conducted an evaluation of a statewide LDP, using interview questionnaires with three different groups of stakeholders: LDP participants, their spouses, and their employers. Networking was identified by all three groups of respondents as one of the most important outcomes of the LDP. Diem and Nikola (2005) likewise claimed that the statewide LDP they studied helped members "…establish and cultivate an extensive agricultural network."

In an exploratory study, Fredricks (2003) developed a survey instrument, used in the case studies of two LDPs, to determine: a) if alumni maintained networks established during their training program, and b) how frequently they used such networks. Fredericks concluded that while the networking opportunities provided by LDPs promoted development of SC, lack of maintenance effort on the part of LDP alumni impeded the ultimate SC building value that might be realized by program participants. In other words, poor maintenance of networks diminished the SC effect of the programs studied.

Action and interaction are necessary for adult informal learning to occur, according to Terroin (2006). Because the LDP evaluated in her study provided opportunity for this informal interaction and the development of relationships that foster learning, Terroin concluded that it did indeed help build SC. Similarly, Burt and Ronchi (in press) conducted a field experiment to determine the effectiveness of a Business Leadership Program (BLP) designed to educate participants about the network structure of SC, and found it to be effective in improving executive performance. In short, if executives were taught about the importance of network connections and SC, they were more likely to show performance improvement. However, the authors also determined that active participation is an important predictor of an individual's improvement; passive participants were virtually indistinguishable from non-participants.

More so than any other LDP evaluation encountered in this review, the case study by Zacharakis and Flora (2005) specifically addressed the relationship between leadership development efforts and SC. Unfortunately, their conclusions are not as favorable as some leadership development practitioners might like. Theirs was a case study of a state university extension project which sought to implement long-term community development, based on strengthening SC through participatory research. As they began to map network connections, however, they noted that certain leaders persisted in the network, while others dropped out after a short period of time. They attributed this result to a phenomenon known as *cultural reproduction,* defined as "....the complex ideological and cultural processes that reproduce social forms such as racism, gender bias, authority structures, attitudes, values and norms." (p. 293). They concluded that while the community development project in question did in fact develop SC, they also noted that this project tended to reproduce existing leadership structures as opposed to creating new leadership pools or cliques. In this case, cultural reproduction was brought about by an overemphasis on bonding (internal) SC ties, without enough emphasis on bridging (external) SC ties. Such an imbalance in the SC network tends to limit the development of new leadership pools - and new ways of solving community problems - in favor of falling back on old leadership cliques and traditional problem solving methods. And as these authors noted, when new leaders do come in to a SC network, they are often the first to drop out when they perceive they are not being effective, leaving the "old guard", or existing pool of leaders, to occupy leadership roles.

As was noted in the discussion of Kilpatrick and Falk's (2003) work above, diversity may be a key to help avoid this cultural reproduction problem. If SC networks include a diverse array of members, more bridging ties are likely to be built, which in turn may reduce a group's tendency to resist change and increase their tendency to arrive at better solutions (Kilpatrick & Falk, 2003). Finally, consistent with the findings of Kelsey and Wall (2003) and the main question posed by Kaufman and Carter (2005), Zacharakis and Flora (2005) noted an inability to generate collective action around issues that had major implications for the community's future. In other words, while the program in question had created opportunities for participants to network and build SC, there was little evidence that they were able to apply what they had learned for effective community problem solving.

Conclusions and Implications

Based on this review, it seems clear that a *relationship* exists between leadership development efforts and SC (or networks). Many LDPs claim to enhance participant's personal and professional networks, and by extension, their SC (Black, 2006; Carter & Rudd, 2000; Fredricks, 2003; Terroin, 2006). And therein lies the problem: while the literature provides a compelling argument for a relationship between LDPs and SC, I am less certain that a cause and effect relationship exists. In other words, we may know that LDPs and SC are correlated, but do we have proof that participation in an LDP leads to enhanced SC? Further research is needed to support any causal assertion that LDPs lead to enhanced SC.

The relationship between LDPs and SC may also be dynamic. In some cases, a leadership development effort may help build SC, but it may also be true that communities with higher levels of SC encourage leadership, or that individuals with greater SC have a greater capacity to lead or participate in LDPs. Likewise, while LDPs may build SC, it may also be true that SC is used (i.e. called upon) in the act of leadership, suggesting a depletion of SC held by a person or group. More research is needed to fully understand the dynamic nature of LDPs and SC.

Some leadership development practitioners may be fully convinced that their respective programs enhance participants' SC, and that this is a sustained, positive effect. However, as many LDP evaluations have reached conclusions that suggest otherwise. For example, Zacharakis and Flora (2005) concluded that not only were community leaders unable to come to consensus around important community issues, but any SC building effect that the LDP may have had was likely offset by the cultural reproduction of a "good ol' boy" network of leaders. Fredricks (2003) noted that networks developed in LDPs quickly fall apart if alumni fail to make efforts to maintain them.

These are important implications for other researches seeking to determine the SC building effect of LDPs. These findings should also serve as a cautionary note to those LDP practitioners that claim program participation results in network-building or SC-enhancing benefits. Until we assemble adequate evidence to support such causal assertions, we should not make such claims. In fairness to those researchers that have attempted LDP evaluations, I should acknowledge the difficulty in evaluating such programs, especially when trying to provide empirical evidence to support causal inference. In fact, if there is one thing the scholars in this field do seem to be in agreement on, it is precisely that LDP evaluation is difficult.

McLean and Moss (2003) applied Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Framework to an evaluation of the Canadian Agricultural Lifetime Leadership (CALL) program (see Kirkpatrick, 1959 and 1994, as cited by Burt & Ronchi (in press) and McLean and Moss (2003)). This framework suggests four levels of evaluation: Reaction, Learning, Behavior and Results. McLean and Moss discovered an inverse relationship between the degree of difficulty of evaluating the program and Kirkpatrick's four levels. It was relatively easy to evaluate the reaction of program participants (Level One, often referred to as "smile sheet evaluation"), but it was difficult, if not impossible or impractical to evaluate Results (Level Four, or impacts participants had on industry organizations as a result of their participation in the program). Many authors (e.g. Burt & Ronchi, in press; Grove, Kibel, & Haas, 2005; Russon & Reinelt, 2004) have recognized the difficulty of establishing program causality in the case of such complex concepts as leadership effectiveness. Several threats to such assertions exist, including maturation effect, selection bias and lack of control of other variables (e.g. other simultaneous leadership development training).

Perhaps the most useful insight of this discussion is the argument that depending on the evaluation needs of the stakeholders involved in a program (e.g. board members, funding agencies), evidence of a relationship (i.e. correlation) between the program treatment and leadership effectiveness may be more practical and just as useful as proof (i.e. causal assertion) of the effect (McLean & Moss, 2003). Or as Kirkpatrick says, we will "…have to be satisfied with evidence instead of proof…", for that is all that exists in the LDP evaluation literature regarding SC.

Those of us with an interest in the relationship between LDPs and SC should look to the literature on SC theory, SC measurement, social network theory and relational leadership theory to inform our evaluation efforts. Practitioners should strive to implement programs that are based on explicit leadership theories. Researchers interested in evaluation should work with practitioners to develop designs that not only meet the researcher's needs, but also help the practitioner to improve the LDP. There are endless opportunities for evaluation research in leadership development and social capital, particularly for those interested in establishing a cause and effect relationship between LDPs and SC.

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2. **The Conceptualization of Leadership by Department Heads in Colleges of Agriculture at Land-Grant Institutions**

3. **Research Paper**

4. While there have been many studies on leadership in higher education, few have focused exclusively on the department head, and fewer still have focused on department heads' conceptualizations of leadership. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the perceptions and conceptualization of leadership by department heads in colleges of agriculture

5. Yes

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The Conceptualization of Leadership by Department Heads in Colleges of Agriculture at Land-Grant Institutions

Introduction/Conceptual Framework

The complexity of leading, specifically an academic department, is daunting. Universities now "require leaders who thrive on the challenge of change; who foster environments of innovation; who encourage trust and learning; and who lead themselves, their constituents, and their units, departments, and universities successfully into the future" (Brown, 2001, p. 312). Not an easy task for even the most experienced and developed leader. The issue is that most department heads are not chosen based on their leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities. Bass (1990) notes that "technical and professional competence often tend to be valued over competence as a supervisor and a leader," (p. 813) leading to ineffective leadership and inability to change and develop the organization. Strong department heads who understand the complexities of the job as well as the means of how to perform to high standards are needed to develop departments into strong entities.

Purpose/Objectives

While there have been many studies on leadership in higher education, few have focused exclusively on the department head, and fewer still have focused on department heads' conceptualizations of leadership and leadership development. This is significant because department head leadership is the building block of university administrative success. The purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions and conceptualization of department heads in colleges of agriculture at land-grant universities, regarding leadership. Pfeffer (1977) stated that if a researcher wanted to understand the behavior of leaders, she must "begin by attempting to find out what they are thinking about the situation in which they would be a leader" (p. 106). This study explores just that.

Lack of training and development for leaders leads to the inability of the leader to lead (Bass, 1990). This study is significant because ineffective leadership, at a departmental level, leads to a breakdown of organizational success. This is important because department heads are the first line of academic leadership who have daily access and interactions with faculty, staff, and students. The findings of this research can be utilized by those who seek to understand the phenomenon of leadership at the departmental level, those who select department heads, those who develop or have developed academic leadership development programs, those considering a department head position, and those who interact with department heads on a daily basis. Findings can also be utilized by faculty to gain a deeper understanding of the position and function of department heads.

Methods

Research scholars and practitioners have stated that the methodology chosen should fit the research questions and the purpose of the study presented (Babbie, 2004; Creswell, 2005; Patton, 2002). Because of the purpose and research questions of this study, a basic research type of qualitative methodology was the methodological type which was most fitting for this research study. Qualitative studies are utilized not for generalization but for "deepening understanding" (Patton, 2002, p. 10). Also, qualitative methodology is most useful in the exploratory phases of a construct (Conger, 1998). Because empirical research has yet to capture the information sought by this generative study, qualitative methodology allowed the researcher to inductively conduct research in a naturalistic manner so that themes would be emergent. This basic qualitative study is framed by the qualitative theoretical traditions of phenomenology and constructionism. Phenomenology explores “how human beings make sense of experience and transform experience into consciousness” (Patton, 2002, p. 104). Whether a self chosen path or thrust into leadership roles because of contextual needs, the population for this study has directly experienced the phenomenon of leadership in an academic department. They are key resources for first-hand knowledge regarding this phenomenon. Patton states that in framing a study with constructionism, the researcher is looking to see the “reported perceptions, ‘truths,’ explanations, and beliefs” (2002, p. 132).

The population of this study consists of current and former department heads in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions in the United States. It was determined that a snowball sampling technique would allow the researcher access to department heads. The sample for this study consisted of ten current or former department heads in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions in the United States. Two of the ten department heads were women, but to insure anonymity, all were referred to as “he” in this document. Six of the department heads led bench science departments, while four led social science departments. Two of the ten department heads in the sample were former department heads. One had retired and the other went back to being a professor after he chose to step down from his position.

The primary method of data collection utilized by the researcher was interviews. A semi-structured interview protocol was utilized. This protocol was developed by the researcher and the first set of questions was peer and expert reviewed in Fall 2006. Following Patton’s (2002) concept of “emergent design flexibility” (p. 40), the protocol was field tested using two department heads in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions and an associate dean at the same type of institution for subject triangulation purposes.

Inductive qualitative analysis is built upon a “solid foundation of specific, concrete, and detailed observations, quotations, documents, and cases” (Patton, 2002, p. 58). Data collection for this study included interviews, observations, and document analysis of materials pertaining to the leadership development of department heads. Patton (2002) notes that “studies that use only one method [of data collection] are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method” (p. 248). Utilizing different types of data for analysis is a measure of triangulation. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) note that the “aggregation of data from different sources will unproblematically add up to produce a more complete picture” (p. 199). Because the researcher focused on the perceptions of department heads in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions, interviews were the primary method utilized.

Findings, Conclusions and Discussion

We Not Only Have the College, But We Have Two Agencies

It can be concluded, for this sample, the tripartite mission of a land-grant institution of teaching, research, and extension adds a layer of perceived complexity to the department head job. Seven of the ten department heads interviewed spoke specifically and spontaneously about the influence of the tripartite mission when leading departments. One department head stated that his job entailed “deciding whether the classes get taught, whether research gets done, and whether extension programs are developed and delivered.”

It can also be concluded that the implications of having to report to not only the dean but also the directors of the two other agencies was an issue for some of the department heads in this sample. One department head commented on the feeling of “disjointment” that comes with having to answer to a dean and two directors. Another department head notes that one must understand the "pressures and constraints and all the dynamic forces that are going on within the college."

Many of the bench scientists also mentioned having to lead their home department as well as off-campus facilities that were either extension stations or experiment stations. For some in this sample, this was a complicating factor in their leadership. One department head made the decision to move back into the ranks of faculty because of the issues he had with off-site facilities. He found himself "having to handle all of the professional development of the faculty members at the research and extension stations" without being anywhere close to the stations.

The work of the tripartite mission in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions is an important element of this study. This interaction between and among the three agencies adds complexity to an already complex job. The sample perceived that they are the only department heads who must deal with this added job stress. None of the department heads mentioned engineering colleges which often have similar experiences with the tripartite mission at a land-grant institution. A department head with 3-5 years of experience stated that "in the agriculture college, we have program that have a much more complex job I think, than the English department or the Economics department because we not only have the college, but we have two agencies." This finding supports the work of Jones (2006). Via his research on deans and directors in colleges of agriculture, he concluded that the tripartite mission adds a layer of complexity onto the administrative leader.

Leadership Tasks of Department Heads

It can be concluded the department heads in this study conceptualized leadership not only as leading a group of individuals towards a common goal, but also as specific tasks. When they spoke of their leadership style, initiatives, or behaviors, specific tasks were offered as supporting examples. From these examples, the inductive sub-categories of *marching forward*, *shared vision*, *goals*, *storytelling*, *listening*, and *faculty success* emerged as important aspects of leadership for department heads. Understanding what tasks leaders see as a function of their leadership helps the researcher gain insight into how they conceptualize leadership. It also aids those who develop leadership training programs understand leadership training needs through the vantage point of the leaders themselves.

Marching forward.

Six out of ten of the department heads in this sample identified moving the department forward as a leadership skill that is imperative for a department head to posses. A department head with over twenty years of experience stated "real leadership comes in moving the organization forward into the future and that is where a department head has to have some skill sets and understanding."

It can be concluded the constant need to move forward is important to the department heads interviewed. This finding is consistent with Huy (2001). In his study of middle managers, Huy (2001) concluded that one of the essential roles of a middle manager is to "keep the company moving forward" (p. 78). Leadership theory literature addresses the leader's role in change by the continuum of transactional to transformational leadership (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

It can also be concluded the department heads in this sample have an internal locus of control when it comes to the change movement because they see change and moving the department forward as one of their responsibilities. They do not wait for someone else to initiate the change process. One department head stated that "looking to the future is one of the most important leadership functions of this job." Howell & Avolio (1993) avow it is the internal locus of control that aids the leader in becoming a more transformational leader. The transactional leadership model of change with crisis is not a model with which the department heads in this sample agree. The implications for this finding are that those who develop or implement leadership development programs for department heads should focus on the characteristics of a transformational leader in order for the department head to ignite change. As Connor (2004) found, transformational leadership has a positive impact on administration in colleges of agriculture.

Shared vision and goals.

It can be concluded that developing shared vision/goals is an important leadership function for the department heads in this sample. Eighty percent of the department heads interviewed said that developing and implementing a shared vision and/or shared goals was an essential leadership role of a department head. Five of the ten department heads qualified the shared vision conceptualization by adding that leaders must facilitate a shared and collective vision with faculty to be successful. A department head with less than a year of experience said that he did not believe in "building those goals myself, but building those goals as a team within the department." This way of developing a vision is described by Senge (1990) as co-creating a vision. Senge (1990) goes on to say that co-creating is the best way to implement a shared vision.

It can be concluded that developing and implementing a shared vision and goals are important leadership tasks for a department head. Bowman (2002) lists engagement in the department and the development of the mission and vision of the department as key elements of departmental leadership. Spotauski and Carter (1993) studied department heads in agricultural education using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and found that inspiring a shared vision was the lowest leadership practice identified by department heads. This could mean that department heads recognize the importance of shared visioning, but do not understand how to accomplish the shared vision. The implications for this finding include the need for education for department heads on how to develop a shared vision.

It can also be concluded that there is interconnectivity between moving forward and shared vision and goals for this sample. By building and implementing a shared vision or shared goals, the department marches forward towards that new idealized picture of the future. One department head stated that "academic leadership means moving the department and higher education as a whole forward in how it engages citizens and students." By understanding the importance of building a shared vision, and then implementing the shared vision, leaders are able to take their organization to the next level (Senge, 1990).

Storytelling.

For the department heads in this sample, strategic planning, visioning, and goal setting all work together to tell the department's story. Storytelling was identified by four of the ten department heads as an important leadership task and technique for advancing the departmental identity. It can be concluded, for this sample, that storytelling is a way to promote the departmental identity to internal and external constituencies. As a department head, "you've got to keep pulling people together and keep explaining what it is we're all about" stated a department head with 3-4 years of experience.

The technique of storytelling is not only useful for leading the faculty and staff in the department, it is also a useful tool for communicating with the dean. Storytelling was also used in fundraising and communicating the story to other external constituencies. A department head with over twenty years of experience noted that the story must be accurate but show all aspects of the department. Making sure the teaching, research, and extension stories are told but adding what the department does for students, the productivity of faculty and students, and the ties and impact on industry must also be told in order to gain the real sense of the departmental story.

Hecht (2004) notes that the responsibilities of a department head include internal communications, external communications and fundraising. It can be concluded for this sample, storytelling is a leadership task and skill that is an effective way to communicate with internal and external constituencies. For internal use, i.e. communicating with the dean and faculty, storytelling can be valuable to the department and the leader. When the same story is communicated to both factions, there is the sense of honesty and openness (Gmelch, & Miskin, 1993). Huy (2001) also notes the importance of communication for middle managers. The "webs of relationships" (p. 76) that the middle manager weaves leads to better communication between and among factions in the organizational system. Honesty and openness with the both factions lead to added trust in the leader (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003).

It can also be concluded that fundraising is becoming a task of the department head. Hellawell and Hancock (2001) found that academic middle managers feel there is an increased expectation to be "at least as much resource managers and fund-raising entrepreneurs as they are academic leaders" (p. 191). The use of storytelling can be beneficial in fundraising, but department heads need to be taught how to develop, then convey the story of the department as well as be versed in fundraising methods (Tierney, 1999).

Facilitating Faculty Success.

It can be concluded that faculty play an important role in the leadership of departments for this sample. Faculty success was spontaneously given as an important leadership task for eight of the ten interviewed department heads. A department head with over twenty years of experience operationalized his position on faculty success by stating that a department head needs to create a collaborative climate and then, "the best thing you can do is get the hell out of their way, literally. Just get out of their way and let them do their job."

This finding is consistent with the findings of Gmelch and Miskin (1993). Through a quantitative survey, they found that faculty development is perceived by department heads to be "their most important responsibility" (p. 5). Recruiting, selecting, and evaluating faculty as well as mentoring them and creating high morale and professional development opportunities for the faculty were high priorities for the department heads surveyed. The implication for this finding is the need for department heads to be well versed in the "soft skill" of human development as well as be a leader in the discipline. Those who select department heads should look for this skill in the people they interview.

Leadership Style

A department head with less than a year of experience stated that "there are different leadership styles and there are different times that are appropriate for different leadership styles. That is what makes this leadership thing so complicated." Because understanding leadership styles is complicated, the broader theme of leadership style was sub-categorized into several inductive categories. These included identified styles, walk the walk, and pick the collective brains of faculty. Comprehending how leaders conceptualize their leadership style allowed the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of how the department head conceptualized the phenomenon of leadership. An identified leadership style is the framework for how the department head leads. This information could also be beneficial to those training faculty to be academic leaders. If there are certain leadership styles that are not identified as being important, it would not be beneficial to teach those approaches to leadership. This information is also imperative to know for those who select department heads. Asking one to identify her leadership style tells not only what she believes, but also may allude to how much leadership training, education, and development that person has experienced.

Identified styles.

For this sample, it can be concluded that there is no one predominate self reported leadership style. While some department heads were specific and used theoretical leadership style terms in describing their leadership style, others offered generalized and popularized terms. Using a theoretical but also popularized typology of leadership style, three of the ten department heads described themselves as a servant leader. One of the department heads stated that he believes "you're here on this earth to help people and that's been the driving force and why I chose to become a department head." Using Greenleaf's (1977) definition of servant leadership, the choice of being a servant is what brings one to aspire to lead in an organization, all three department heads could be defined as a servant leader. It was the desire to serve the department, because of the benefits they had received from the department, which led them to lead. One department head said that he decided to become department head because he "just kind of felt like [he] owed something back." It is also interesting to note that the three department heads who classified themselves as servant leaders were all bench scientists and had over five years of departmental leadership experience.

It can be concluded that, for this sample, the situation plays a role in the leader's chosen leadership style. This is in alignment with contingency theory (Daft, 2002). "It is called contingency because it suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context…effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right theory" (Northouse, 2004, p. 75). Thirty percent of the department heads described their leadership style using other leadership theory terms. A department head with 1-2 years of experience was categorized by the researcher as a contingent leader. He relayed that "[faculty] can't figure out my style totally because I come from different points at different times." This situation as well as the follower dictated how this leader chose to lead. This is congruent with the definition of a leader who utilizes different types of contingency theory (Daft, 2002). Situational leaders diagnose the follower's level of commitment and competency and then decide the best leadership behaviors to correspond to the follower (Northouse, 2004).

Another theoretical style was identified by a department head in this sample. A department head with 1-2 years of experience laughed as he said that he would "really like to be transformational" in his leadership, "it's what I'm trying really, really hard to do." However, he goes on to say that he also sees himself as a team leader, one that makes sure he is inclusive in decision making and makes time for the personal and professional development of his faculty. This description best matches the "team leader" behavioral style as described by Blake and Mouton (Northouse, 2004). A team leader is conscious of both the task and relationship aspects of his followers.

Another theoretical type of leadership style was identified by a department head with 5-6 years of experience. He describes himself as a charismatic and facilitative type of leader. Charismatic leaders are defined by House and Baetz (1979) as those leaders who "by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers" (p. 399). The charismatic and the transformational leader lead social science departments.

The other four department heads did not name a specific style of leadership but explained how they see themselves leading an academic department. A department head with less than a year of experience described his leadership style as inclusive, honest, as open as possible, and willing to make a decision and move forward. A former department head with 5-7 years of experience said that he found that leading by example was, in his mind, the best way to lead a department. A department head with 3-4 of years experience stated he was a "fairly casual leader" who does not "micromanage" but likes to "synthesize" the situation before he acts.

It can be concluded that there is not one uniform leadership style that works best for all department heads. Those who develop and evaluate academic leaders should keep this in mind. The one-size-fits-all theory of leadership does not and cannot apply to academic department heads (Lucas, 1994). It can also be concluded that half of the department heads in this sample have received enough leadership education to be able to identify their leadership style using theoretical terms. The implication is that the other half of the sample have not received enough leadership education to be able to use theoretical terms to identify their leadership style. This, again, is another concept that could be taught to department heads.

Model the way.

It can be concluded that congruence in words and actions as well as authenticity in your leadership style is important to the department heads in this sample. Eight of the ten department heads in the sample gave examples of how they would not ask their faculty or staff to do anything that they themselves were not wiling to do. One department head noted that "there's a great deal in academic leadership where you have to lead by example." This leadership style is defined by Bennis and Goldsmith (2003) as congruence. George (2007) notes that congruence can also be categorized as consistency. Consistency is being aware of one's actions and intentions and matching actions with espoused values. Kouzes and Posner (2002 & 2003) describe walking the walk as *modeling the way*. "Exemplary leaders know that if they want to gain commitment and achieve the highest standards, they must be models of the behavior they expect of others" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 73). It can be concluded that congruence in words and actions is an important leadership style for a department head.

Pick the collective brains of faculty.

All ten of the interviewed department heads spoke specifically about their approach to decision making. It can be concluded that the department heads in this sample want some level of faculty input in important departmental decisions. One department head said that for big decisions, "I rely on input from faculty. I try to engage faculty in discussion well in advance when I know there are some issues coming around." Gaining faculty input into the decisions is a leadership decision. It is gaining that faculty buy-in that impacts the effectiveness of the decision (Austin, 1999). This can be related back to the importance of building a shared and collaborative vision and goals for the department. It can be concluded that the department heads in this sample are inclusive with their decision making. This has a direct impact on the department because a leader's "decisions regarding various aspects of the organization shape the course of their organization" (Nahavandi, 2006, p. 276).

Leadership vs. Management

In an academic department, "you have to be able to manage and lead. You can't just do one or the other" stated a department head with 5-6 years of experience. Kekale (1999) concurs with this finding. He stated that not only are department heads called to be a leader and a manager, but they are called to do so at the same time. It can be concluded that it is the marriage of leadership and management that makes the job difficult for the department heads in this study. Eight of the ten sampled department heads spoke of the "dailyness" of the job, meaning managing, getting in the way of being able to lead. This is consistent with the findings of Gmelch and Miskin (1993) who found that department heads become very involved with the day to day operations of the department, and therefore lose site of the leadership tasks which must be accomplished to move the department forward toward the vision. Lucas (1994) separates the key functions of department heads into two categories; leadership or administration. He also stresses that in order to be effective as a leader, a department head must complete tasks that fall into both categories.

Being both a manager and a leader at the same time is a different perspective than one might believe after reading the works of Bennis. He repeatedly states that there is a clear-cut difference between leaders and managers. He states that having both is imperative, but the organization should not rely on a single person to inhabit both qualities (Bennis, 1989). Although theoretically, a separation of leader and manager is better for an organization, the department heads in this sample see their role as a leader and a manager. One department head concluded that if you couple management and leadership correctly, "it is very complementary."

It can be concluded that department heads in this sample consider themselves to be academic middle managers. A department head with 3-4 years of experience explains that he feels like a middle manager or a department head sandwich when he "catches it from the faculty when they don't like what's going on and catches it from the dean's office when they don't like what's going on." A department head sandwich is a colloquial phrase for the job type that Mintzberg (1989) defines as a middle manager. A middle manager is one who is in "a hierarchy of authority between the operating core and the administrative apex" (Mintzerg, 1989, p. 98). It can be concluded that it is being at the level of middle manager that this sample of department heads finds frustrating about their jobs. Along with keeping the department functioning, department heads are a "transmitter of core strategic values through the enactment of the role as mentor, coach, and guide" (Clegg & McAuley, 2005, p. 22).

Managing Human Capital

It can be concluded that managing human capital is an important leadership task for the department heads in this sample. All ten department heads stressed the importance of and sometimes frustration that stems from faculty and staff relations. One department head noted that leading is "about the people. Human capital is your greatest resource and if you can really understand that, then everything else sort of relates to it." Hiring, mentoring, and supporting faculty were mentioned repeatedly as essential leadership functions. The research of Wolverton et. al (1999) supports this finding. They found that managing human capital combines the department head tasks of resource management, leadership, and faculty development.

It can also be concluded that frustrations with people management is an important aspect of leading an academic department for this sample. The department head with over twenty years of experience avowed "what runs most department heads off is personnel management." The research of Bowman (2002) supports this conclusion. Bowman (2002) states that because most academic leaders are not trained in personnel management, they quickly become disenchanted with dealing with conflict and human issues that arise.

Hiring and mentoring faculty.

Eight of the ten department heads interviewed specifically mentioned the importance of hiring faculty as one of the leadership tasks of a department head. It can be concluded that, for this sample, deciding which faculty to hire is an important aspect of leading an academic department. Department heads must focus on more than just recruiting and hiring faculty; they must help guide them once they become part of the department. A department head with 5-6 years of experience said that it is more than just recruiting and hiring; you must "help them because they're going to achieve more than anybody can."

The research of Gmelch and Miskin (1993) supports both conclusions. They found that recruiting, selecting, and evaluating faculty as well as mentoring them and creating high morale and developmental opportunities are all high priorities for department heads. The implications for these findings suggest that those who train academic leaders must focus on hiring practices but also the theory of mentoring. Those who are hiring department heads should inquire about the hiring and mentoring philosophy of the candidate during the interview.

Sometimes they act worse than my kids.

As stated above, it can be concluded that dealing with human capital is an important aspect of leading a department for this sample. One department head noted that “as a department head, more than fifty percent of what you do is dealing with people.” Seven other department heads from this sample agreed or echoed that idea. The research of Moore and Rudd (2004) and Jones (2006) conclude that human skills as well as emotional intelligence are important skills for an academic leader in colleges of agriculture to posses.

It can also be concluded that human issues are sometimes problematic for the department heads in this study. A department head with 3-4 years of experience said that “sometimes, I think [faculty and staff] act worse than my kids.” Dealing with the autonomous and sometimes high-strung faculty is difficult. A department head with over twenty years of experience lamented that “as an administrator that cares about every one of these individuals, how do you get them untangled?” It is that statement that captures the significance of this theme. When those chosen to lead are usually chosen on research ability, how can they learn to “untangle” the human emotions of their followers? Jones (2006) found that human skills are the most important of the leadership skills needed in the job of academic leader. Leadership development can help department heads develop and have the human relation skills needed in order to be successful leaders.

It’s not Like a Business

For this sample, leadership at the academic department head level is different than leading a business. One department head stated that “we’re an academic unit, an academic institution. We’re not a business.” Forty percent of the department heads interviewed spoke specifically about the difference between academia and the business world. This inductive theme is significant because the majority of leadership development programs geared toward academic leaders still focus on business model paradigms when creating and implementing their curriculum. The business model of leadership also takes into account that the leader has many power-bases at his disposal. They have the power to hire and fire those (reward and coercive power base) at will (Raven & French, 1958). Academic leaders often do not have these two power bases. “You set policies but in terms of a reward system; most academic institutions are like ours. With budget cuts and low pay increases, there isn’t a lot to be able to reward faculty with” stated a department head with 1-2 years of experience.

It can also be concluded that department heads in this sample often found it difficult to connect to leadership theories and practices of which they were informed, via books or formalized courses. For this sample it is because they see a disconnect from the business-based leadership theories and the actuality of their leadership functions in higher education. One department head stated that “one of the books from leadership training was from a business model and I found it absolutely useless.” The research of Bush (2003) supports this finding and conclusion. Bush states that there are several distinctions between leading in academia and leading in a for-profit paradigm. Power bases are one of the differences, but goal setting, money allocation, and knowledge of a product are also described by Bush (2003) as differences. There is some transferability from one paradigm to the other, but the fundamental purposes of the two worlds are too different for a complete convergence of thought.

Herding Academic Cats

All ten department heads lamented about the difficulties of leading faculty, and some commented on their perceived lonesomeness as leaders. It can be concluded that, for this sample, leading faculty is a daunting and isolating task. A former department head noted that he felt that he “didn’t have any friends as a department head.” He relied on his spouse as a sounding board and confidant.

As some described academic leadership as herding cats, there was more to this theme than a simple colloquial statement. Fifty percent of the participants in the study used the term “herding cats.” One department head described herding academic cats by explaining, “you’re dealing with a group of independent faculty who are getting their own grant money, who are organizing their own program and you’re encouraging them to be creative and innovative. They have a great deal of academic freedom in terms of what they want to pursue” but you still have to keep everyone on the same page and marching forward.

It can be concluded, for this sample, the influencing factor of faculty autonomy coupled with the lack of a coercive or reward power base afforded to the department head, a different strategy must be utilized to lead (herd) faculty and move the department forward toward the shared vision and goals. Gaining faculty trust by being a credible, consistent, and congruent leader, obtaining faculty buy-in by co-creating a vision, and gaining faculty buy-in when making decisions are all ways that can be utilized by the department head to lead faculty. As one department head stated, “if you don’t get faculty buy-in, it’s not going to work.”

Implications

Academic departments are the building blocks of higher education’s academic structure (Rosovsky, 1990). Because of this, it is imperative that the leaders of this building block be effective in their leading. In order for academic leaders to be successful, they must understand the complex phenomenon of leadership. As one department head in this study noted, “you don’t take anyone off the street and put them in here and have them make decisions that effect seventy people’s lives.” Since a department head is charged with leading and managing faculty, staff, and students, it becomes even more imperative that the department head be aware of and understand the phenomenon of leadership.

For the professorate, scholarship, teaching, and service have been identified as essential functions for success as a faculty member (Boyer, 1990). Because of the information garnered from this generative study, a more in depth look at the phenomenon of leadership at the department head level in colleges of agriculture, faculty who teach leadership in colleges of agriculture can gain a more complete understanding of leadership as an academic middle manager. Service to the college for leadership educators could include leadership training, education, and development for current, incoming, or aspiring department heads. Service, for leadership educators, could also include aiding those who provide leadership education for the college.

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Association of Leadership Educators
Presentation proposal – 2008 Annual Conference

1. Anthony Middlebrooks, Ph.D.
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2. Title: Developing Leadership C.O.R.E.

3. Presentation Track: Practice

4. Session Description:
Confidence. Optimism. Resilience. Engagement. Three foundational elements of psychological capital and a critical learning disposition provide foundation for leadership capacity. This practice session explores the challenge of translating PsyCap into program curriculum and pedagogy. Participants examine theoretical underpinnings and activities designed to develop capacities, and explore applications to their programs.

5. No consideration for poster – this session is experiential and does not translate well to poster.

6. 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.

7. Paper Description

This session shares the specific activities, curriculum, and pedagogy of a leadership development program in the context of a study abroad experience to Hawaii (for one week) and Australia (for four weeks). Participants comprised 29 upper-level undergraduate students, about 15 of whom were leadership majors. Others included students aspiring to leadership positions in various other fields, and thus pursuing leadership minors.

The program was unique in both its curriculum and pedagogy, integrating Senge's five disciplines and the emerging research on Psychological Capital (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). This integrated approach comprised a meso-model framework that focused students on the interrelationship between levels of analysis. In other words, the program aimed to develop individual leadership capacity and conceptualization of leadership while at the same time examining broader levels of group, organization, community and culture.

Unlike most study abroad experiences that focus the academic content into blocks of time in a classroom and then to a limited extent in various excursions to cultural and other noted sites of interest, the "academic" material in this program was experiential and integrated into the entire experience in the form of a series of "challenges" and subsequent debriefings.

As students engaged in the various challenges, the foundational emphasis lie in building their **C.O.R.E.: Confidence –** self-efficacy to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; **Optimism –** making a positive attribution about succeeding now and in the future; **Resilience –** when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond to attain success (Luthans, et al., 2007); and **Engagement –** reflective and mindful, critically and carefully integrating new information into one's understanding. To facilitate this foundational focus, students were given laminated cards to reference throughout the program, asking a series of questions to self-assess each of the four capacities:

1. **Confidence** – self-efficacy and effort

Did I put in my best effort?
Did fear influence my effort?
Did I take initiative?
Did I focus & dedicate my attention to the effort?

2. **Optimism** – positive about success

Did I feel I would succeed?
Was my success due to my effort and skill?
Did I need to redirect my efforts?

3. **Resilience** – perseverance and flexibility, using setbacks as setforwards

Did I encounter setbacks or significant challenges?
Did setbacks discourage my efforts?
Did I confront problems directly?
Did problems make me question my ability?

4. **Engagement** – reflective and mindful

Did I reflect and learn from the experience?
Did I integrate this new knowledge into prior?

Challenges varied in aim, content, group composition, roles of group members, level of activity, engagement with real world leaders, and length of time. This variation was purposeful to facilitate engagement, challenge student's mental models, and emulate the discipline and/or leadership capacity being explored. The following chart illustrates example activities aligned to each of Senge's five disciplines, along with a brief explanation of pedagogy designed to reinforce the lesson:

Personal Mastery	*I Appreciate You Because…* Each student writes a personalized, yet anonymous, note to every student in the group, noting what they most appreciate about that student.	Notes were sorted such that each student received a pack of 30 notes of appreciation from their peers. The notes highlighted their strengths and created conditions for developing personal mastery in one another.
Mental Models	*Create a Guidebook: How to be an Aussie in Australia* Trios of students explore culture at the micro level by gathering information from local individuals and organizations about their culture and what they consider excellence in their organization. How is it uniquely Australian?	Interacting with another culture and then processing within their own group enabled students to compare and contrast mental models, and examine their own.
Shared Vision	*Cultural Potluck* Small groups with an assigned leader must find a cultural recipe, purchase ingredients, and prepare a dish for the evening meal with a limited amount of cash.	As a small group students needed to come to a shared vision of what was "cultural", what to make, how to do so in their limited context, and the role of the leader in coming to this shared vision.
Team Learning	*Learn To Do Something New* As a team with an assigned leader, learn to do something new. All members must learn to do it. Demonstrate to the full group, share a story of failure, and describe how it felt to learn.	This challenge examined the interconnections between the dynamics of learning, the challenge of facilitating everyone to learn, and the role of the leader in the process.
Systems Thinking	*Create a Personal Causal Map* Individually, consider an action you took. Create a causal map for how that action led to other thoughts and actions throughout the dynamics of the group.	Students were challenged to think beyond the initial cause-effect relationship, seeing how causal chains develop and evolve, and to experience it in the context of the group dynamics.

The legendary Hawaiian folk singer Israel "Iz" Kaʻanoʻi Kamakawiwoʻole's 1993 album was entitled *Facing Future*. For the aspiring leaders in this program, facing the future meant addressing the mental models built from the past – mental models in the deeper sense – models of feeling and reacting, habits of perceiving and processing others and the world, and the personal challenges interwoven with their CORE. Students were asked at regular intervals to summarize their insights about leadership and themselves. That data suggests a good deal of personal learning and growth as evidenced by the value-based themes. In sum, the students reported learning: (a) the power and value of both individual and the relationship, and the critical importance of trust (in others, in peers, in the process, in self), (b) the value of pushing your personal limits, (c) the value of diversity and synergy, and (d) the power (and limitations) of mental models.

This presentation shares many of the specific activities, the theoretical base behind those activities, and the overall curricular and pedagogical approach designed to build those CORE capacities. Photos, artifacts, and personal stories will provide and intriguing and interactive addition to the academic content.

Building Leadership Skills in College: Outcomes of an Applied Leadership Theory Undergraduate Business Course

1) Presenter Information

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2) Title of Presentation

Building Leadership Skills in College: Outcomes of an Applied Leadership Theory Undergraduate Business Course

3) Presentation Track - Practice

4) Presentation Description
This presentation shares the design and student outcomes of a newly revised undergraduate business leadership course, Leadership and Professional Development (LPD) at Morehouse College. The purpose of this class is to assist students in developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to develop positive, professional, and ethical leadership perspectives.

5) Please consider for a poster if not accepted as a paper presentation.

6) Presenter's Biographical Profile

Belinda Johnson White is an Assistant Professor, Department of Business, 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 and Professional Development, a core course in the Morehouse College business program. Belinda has served 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 Executive Lecture Series, 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.

Building Leadership Skills in College: Outcomes of an Applied Leadership Theory Undergraduate Business Course

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Introduction

The mission of Morehouse College, a historically black, all-male, undergraduate, liberal arts college, is to prepare students for leadership. The mission of the management education program in the Department of Business Administration at Morehouse College is to develop skills requisite for excellence in leadership while emphasizing the importance of ethical behavior, civic engagement, and the pursuit of graduate studies. The core business program consists of 13 courses (39 hours). Twelve of these courses cover the business functions of accounting, finance, management, and marketing, and their associated concepts, often referred to as "hard skills." One course in the business core, Leadership and Professional Development (LPD), was added to the business core in 1994, and focused on the interpersonal skills of business, often referred to as "soft skills."

LPD has been very effective as a soft skills course (White and Hollingsworth, 2005). During its first decade, the focus of the three hour course centered on professional development discussions and exercises, including business attire, dining etiquette, corporate culture, and issues specifically related to success in corporate America for professionals of color. In Fall 2005, after the successful implementation of a 15 hour interdisciplinary leadership studies minor within the Department of Business (White, 2006), LDP was redesigned to provide students an engaging, interactive learning environment through which they can understand the theoretical constructs of leadership and how these constructs are applied in the workplace environment; and to assist students in developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to develop positive, professional, and ethical leadership perspectives that will assist in their development into valuable assets for a global, civil society comprised of their organizations, communities, and families.

This redesign also called for LPD to take the lead role in achieving two departmental goals and expected student learning outcomes as follows:

- Departmental Goal: Ethics, Leadership, and Civic Engagement
  Expected Outcome: Students will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the principles of ethics and leadership by participating in a service learning project.

- Departmental Goal: Interpersonal and Teamwork Skills
  Expected Outcome: Students will be able demonstrate effective interpersonal relationship skills by working as members of a team.

In order to achieve these departmental goals and expected outcomes through an emphasis on the theoretical constructs of leadership, the pedagogy of the course had to be revised. Following is a review of the leadership pedagogy literature used to support the redesign of the class.

Background

Leadership educators have historically grappled with the question of whether leadership is a skill, trait, or innate behavior. In the field of business, this struggle by both academic and practitioner researchers has resulted in great bodies of scholarly and practitioner research. This research shows that most management educators agree that leadership is both a skill and a behavior that exhibits that skill (Doh, 2003). As a result of this dual definition, two additional questions have emerged: (1) whether leadership can be learned; and (2) whether leadership can be taught. Doh (2003) sought to find answers to these questions by interviewing leading management scholars involved in leadership research, education and development. Doh (2003) interviewed six educators who he defined as having made major contributions to research at the intersection of leadership and education. The schools represented by these professors were: Harvard Business School; University of Michigan Business School; London Business School and University of Southern California, Los Angeles; Arizona State University; Villanova University; and Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania. Doh's (2003) research findings to these two questions are (1) all six educators indicated belief that leadership could be learned; and (2) most agreed that some aspects of leadership could be taught.

The six leadership educators provided interesting insight to their arguments in support of their belief that leadership could be learned and some aspects of leadership could be taught. In regards to whether leadership can be learned, one educator stated: "Yes, most definitely. Here work experiences, bosses, special projects, role models, education all play a role in leadership development. Using an analogy with sports,…not everyone can become an outstanding player despite coaching, yet most will benefit and improve their 'game.' A few will go on to become stars or outstanding leaders given coaching, extensive experiences, and personal drive." In regards to whether leadership can be taught, one educator stated; "If leaders are born not made—and if no one can teach anyone else to improve—let's start investigating leadership in the biology lab rather than in the business world. So yes, unequivocally [leadership can be taught]." (Doh, 2003).

Doh (2003) also asked the six educators to identify techniques they felt would be successful in transmitting some of the leadership skills that could be imparted through formal or informal management education. An educator stated: "The dimensions of leadership you wish to teach determine the appropriate pedagogy. For example, case studies and action learning may be most useful for developing strategic thinking. Experiential exercises are most useful for teaching and honing behavioral skills such as communication and persuasion. Feedback questionnaires and coaching can be very helpful in benchmarking one's current capacities in leadership. Personal growth methods can be helpful in focusing individuals on what types of work situations they can be most skillful in and most passionate about and therefore have a higher probability of being an effective leader." Common pedagogical themes uncovered by Doh were that the management education programs should be highly practical, include training or coaching from practitioners, that students may learn as much or more from failures in leadership as they would in attempting to replicate successes, and that to effectively teach leadership, programs must be tailored to the particular needs, attitudes and circumstances of the students (Doh, 2003).

Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) adds to our understanding of the assertion agreed to by these six researchers with expertise in leadership and education that leadership can be learned and some aspects taught via well designed academic programming. Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) offer a "domain model" of managerial education based on the concept of competency—the usual outcome of the learning process. Within the 21st century sphere of business language, the concept of skill is synonymous with the concept of competency, defined as a performance capability that distinguishes effective from ineffective managers in a particular organization (Hogan and Warrenfeltz, 2003). Hogan and Warrenfeltz's research has resulted in the identification of four competency domains, which they refer to as (1) intrapersonal skills, (2) interpersonal skills, (3) leadership skills, and (4) business skills. Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) believe these four domains define the content of management education and provide a basis for designing curricula, assigning people to training and evaluating management education. As previously stated, leadership can be defined as both a skill and a behavior, which supports the argument that a well designed management education program that provides learning opportunities for students in each of the four competency domains would be effective in developing leadership.

Based on the literature review, LPD was redesigned to focus on the competency domains of (1) intrapersonal skills—core self esteem, attitudes toward authority, and self-control; (2) interpersonal skills—initiating, building, and maintaining relationships with a variety of people who might differ from oneself in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, social class, or political agendas; and (3) leadership skills—building and maintaining effective teams.

In addition to the literature review, during the 2005 – 2006 academic year, I reviewed my research results on student perceptions of the effectiveness of LPD in two areas: (1) course content; and (2) course logistics. In regards to course content, my research showed 85.7% (75 students, n=91) of Spring 2005 survey respondents strongly agree or agree with the statement, "Overall, LPD has increased my understanding of the skills, traits, behaviors, and knowledge necessary for a professional of color to become a World Class Professional." 84% (42 students, n=50) of Spring 2003 survey respondents strongly agree or agree with the statement "Overall, I feel LPD has increased my ability to be an effective leader." 88% (44 students, n=50) of Spring 2003 survey respondents strongly agree or agree with the statement "LPD is a relevant and useful course." And a Fall 2004 survey of Morehouse business alumni, classes 1994 – 2004, on LPD course effectiveness found 61% (n=132), agree with the statement, "Classroom workshops and discussions on integrity, ethics and values were beneficial to my success in my chosen career." 73% (n=132) agree with the statement, "Classroom workshops and discussions on professional decorum, including dining etiquette and business dress, were beneficial to my success in my chosen career." And 69% (n=133) agree with the statement, "Classroom workshops and discussions on corporate culture and the impact of being African American in a corporate setting were beneficial to my success in my chosen career."

In regards to course logistics, my research also showed that students were concerned with class size and the physical environment of the classroom. 28.1% of the Spring 2005 survey respondents (25 students, n=90) strongly disagree or disagree with the statement, "The class size (100 students) in LPD was beneficial to my understanding of the subject matter." 60% of the Spring 2005 survey respondents (54 students, n=89) strongly disagree or disagree with the statement, "The physical environment (seating, lighting, cooling/heating system) of the classroom in LPD was beneficial to my understanding of the subject matter." And 60% of the Spring 2003 class respondents (30 students, n=50) strongly disagree or disagree with the statement, "The class size of LPD was conducive to learning."

As a result of my literature review of effective leadership pedagogy and my research into student perception of course structure effectiveness as it relates to student learning, I made changes to the logistical structure and pedagogy of LPD, beginning in academic year 2006 - 2007.

Description of the Practice

In academic year 2006 – 2007, major logistical changes were made to LPD. It became a two section course with 50 students each. Section 1 met on Mondays, 3:00 pm – 5:30 pm and Section 2 met on Wednesdays, 3:00 pm – 5:30 pm. The instruction team was reduced in size from three members, which included the faculty instructor, director of career services, and an adjunct professor for community service outreach, to the one faculty instructor. Academic rigor was introduced via the adoption of the textbook by Shriberg, A., Shriberg, D. & Kumari, R. (2005), titled *Practicing Leadership Principles and Applications*, 3rd ed. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. And more in-class team exercises and discussions were incorporated.

Student responses on the Morehouse College Student Evaluations of Course and Instructor Effectiveness for Academic Year 2006 – 2007 were higher than previous years, with no statements having a response rating of less than 80% favorable (% of students who strongly agree/agree). Student written responses were also very favorable when asked to comment on the overall effectiveness of the professor and the course. Responses included were 'great, great course,' 'effective teaching style for the topics discussed,' 'very effective,' 'very informative,' 'great course which should continue to be a requirement,' 'this was a very valuable course to take,' and 'I've learned a great amount in the class.'

In academic year 2007 – 2008, further logistical changes along with pedagogical changes were made to restructure the class based on the Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) four competency hierarchal domain model of managerial education. The logistical changes included having each section of 50 students meet two days a week for 1 hour and 15 minutes; Section 1 meets Mondays and Wednesdays, 3:00 pm – 4:15 pm and Section 2 meets Mondays and Wednesdays, 4:30 pm – 5:45 pm. The Shriberg, Shriberg, and Kumari textbook was replaced by a self-authored textbook, written to meet the specific needs of emerging leaders of color titled *Dr. White's 21st Century Guide to Leadership and Professional Development: Life Success Tools and Strategies for Emerging Leaders of Color*.

In support of increased student learning, an interactive pedagogical approach to teaching and learning was adopted which entails the following:

- Theory – Professor presents theoretical frameworks of leadership, ethics, professionalism, and communication through classroom lecture and discussions.
- Preparation – Students complete individual and team homework assignments.
- Participation – Students attend classroom sessions and participate in the discussions and classroom individual and team exercises.
- Practice – Students apply theoretical constructs in their team-based service learning project and other extra-curricular activities.
- Reflection – Students create a portfolio which contains a variety of assignments that require critical, analytical, and reflective thinking on their leadership development experiences.

Supportive pedagogical techniques include

- Classroom Activities – Lectures, discussions, team exercises, and presentations
- Learning Community Activities – Team assignments and exercises outside of classroom
- Executive Lectures – Interactions outside of classroom with significant contemporary leaders
- Leadership and Professional Development Practicums - Sessions that focus on workplace issues lead by company representatives from the Division's Corporate Partners Program.
- Service Learning Project - Hands on involvement within the Atlanta community
- Leadership Portfolio – Compilation of course assignments
- Exams – Measurement of knowledge attainment and comprehension

At the heart of the pedagogical change to support the incorporation of the Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) four competency hierarchal domain model of managerial education is the team-based service learning project. The 50 student class is divided into four teams of students, with 12 – 13 students per team. Each team elects a leader and chooses a service site. Each team member is required to complete 20 hours of service at the site. At the end of the course, each team makes a formal multimedia presentation to the class on their service learning project. The team structure of the project allows for students to experiment with and experience the leadership theories discussed in class such as transformational, charismatic, transactional, citizen, ethical, and servant leadership, and leadership concepts such as stages of team development, conflict resolution, power and influence, and the big 5 personality dimensions.

Results to Date

Although student responses to the Morehouse College Student Evaluations of Course and Instructor Effectiveness for Fall 2007 have not been provided to the instructor, anecdotal evidence through Fall 2007 student comments to the instructor were extremely positive in regards to the course effectiveness, especially in regards to the service learning project. Students were required to write a three-page reflection paper on their service learning project experience, including what personal lessons in leadership they learned. Each essay told a wonderful story of overcoming personal challenges to complete the project and the resulting personal leadership growth. One randomly selected essay is contained in Appendix A.

In April 2008, I will conduct a student survey to collect empirical data on their perception of the effects of participating in a team-based service learning project on their leadership development. The survey instrument will be based on a survey used by Khramtsova (2008) to measure character strengths of an undergraduate student population. [The empirical data collected from this survey along with the Fall 2007 student evaluation of course and instructor effectiveness will be presented at ALE 2008.]

Conclusions/Recommendations

Anecdotal evidence, student essays and limited empirical data collected on this curriculum practice supports the conclusion that an undergraduate business course in leadership and professional development, using the Hogan and Warrenfeltz (2003) four competency hierarchal domain model of managerial education and team-based service learning projects can positively effective the following departmental goals and student learning outcomes:

- Departmental Goal: Ethics, Leadership, and Civic Engagement
  Expected Outcome: Students will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the principles of ethics and leadership by participating in a service learning project.

- Departmental Goal: Interpersonal and Teamwork Skills
  Expected Outcome: Students will be able demonstrate effective interpersonal relationship skills by working as members of a team.

The researcher recommends conducting additional research to collect longitudinal data to support this conclusion.

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Appendix

SLP Reflection Paper: F.L. Stanton (Fall 2007)

I will have to admit, I am not very experienced when it comes to community service activities or service learning projects for that matter; nor am I very open to those ideas. Truthfully, it is not because I do not want to take part in the idea, it is because I am never completely sure how to fit it into my schedule as a student and a member of a very active and time consuming organization in the Morehouse College Glee Club. I realized then that if I really wanted to do it, I would find time. Luckily, I did. When told, at the beginning of the semester in my Leadership and Professional Development class with Dr. Belinda Johnson White, the queen of leaders, that we as students of her class and as "emerging 21st century leaders" must (meaning requirement for you to get credit for class) volunteer in a service learning project in which a minimum of twenty hours must be completed by semester-end. My emotional response was not that of eager enthusiasm. It just seemed like it was too much outside of class activity which would make my semester a lot tougher. I questioned what this project had anything to do with the purpose of the class and how it would be of any benefit to me? I could do nothing but just trust her on this one and see where I wind up.

The hard task for my team was not performing the activity but choosing what activity it is we wish to do as a team. A general consensus was that we enjoyed working with children and that they deemed to be the future. We, as "rising stars" and "emerging leaders" have to spill knowledge on them and prepare them for what life has in store for them in their later years. A member of our group, Christian Ragin, was familiar with perfect spot. The school's name is Frank L. Stanton Elementary School in Atlanta, Georgia. Ragin felt it would be a great place to bond with children and develop long lasting relationships.

F.L. Stanton is an all African –American elementary school with students of various backgrounds. I thought going into this that I would be dealing with loud and rambunctious children who cared nothing about school and did not set straight the priorities that were introduced early in the childhood. As a result, I decided to look on the positive side. It was a mentoring program. The students needed role models and teenage figures that have been successful thus far into their college years. I enjoy pouring my knowledge of a subject on minds so fresh and pristine as elementary students. I remember as a child the mentors that came to my elementary school and helped me out with my homework and helped improve my social skills. They were like family to me and sought to be the same for these students.

My first day at F.L. Stanton helped make it possible for me to be a role model. As a mentor for the after school program I worked with Jessica and Alliyah, two fourth grade students who were similar but different in many ways. In that after school program, I could not stop staring at the smiles that were on their faces when they saw me standing in the room. They wanted me there. The after school teacher Ms. Ford always said they enjoy working with the mentors and that it is a highlight to their day. That allowed me to believe that this experience will not be so bad after all. Seeing the students enter the after school program classroom was like watching rats race to cheese scattered all over the room. They were full of life and energy and always had to something to say. From that point, I knew a certain source of power possibly reward, or referent, or coercive, would need to be brought forth so as to create order in the room.

In our LPD class and at the beginning of class, Dr. White seeks to instill in us the five features that are tied together that will help make us rising stars. These features include leadership, professionalism, ethics, global awareness/diversity, and civic engagement/social responsibility. I have developed a greater understanding of each of these key features. Through this project, I realized that leadership is very key because I was put into that role model position. I had to be the example for them and both my mentees, I believe, turned out to be leaders themselves. Maintaining a level of professionalism during the program allowed me to gain the respect I deserved from students. They were polite and were eager to learn. Diversity and ethics really played a pivotal role as well. There are many children with different backgrounds and especially in a learning environment, many different learning abilities and disabilities. Some students catch on quick while others not so quick. These were situations that I needed to adapt to. With regards to ethics, teaching right from wrong was the must-do of every visit. I made sure that they knew what to do in certain situations and encouraged them not to panic.

On a holistic view, this project really was a highlight to my semester. Going to visit my mentees and working with the teachers was a way of escaping the stress of my schoolwork. If I sit down and think about it, though there were some rough days with one or two encounters, these children really are intelligent and have potential. The school was very well structured and teachers really were dedicated to their profession; which you do not find very often in elementary schools. Not once was there any chaos or did I feel that things were not under control by administrators. Walking into the school everyday was like taking in a new breathe of fresh air. Everyday was a new day; yet through it all nothing is better that hearing a student saying to me, “Chris, Thank you.”

Immunity to Change: An Exploration in Self-Awareness

Presentation Track

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50 Word Abstract

Why is personal change so difficult? If we hope to develop leaders, we need a better understanding of the change process. Based on the work of Kegan & Lahey this session highlights potential reasons *why*, despite our best intentions, personal change and development do not occur. Come and find out some reasons why…

Scott J. Allen Bio

Scott is a visiting assistant professor of business at John Carroll University and founder of the Center for Leader Development, an organization created to provide resources, tools, and services to businesses, organizations, and schools seeking to build leadership capacity in their employees, members or students. Scott is the co-author of two books slated for publication in 2008- (1) *The Little Book of Leadership: 50 Tips to Accelerate Leader Potential in Others* (Moonlight Publishing); (2) *Emotionally Intelligent Leadership: A Guide for College Students* (Jossey-Bass). He lives in Cleveland, Ohio with his wife, Jessica, and his son, Will.

Introduction

Why is it that we often want to change, but find that we are unable to do so? Why is change so difficult even when everyone and everything is aligned around the goal? The reason is that most of us have built-in immunity to change.

Based on their research in adult development theory, Robert Kegan and Lisa Lahey have developed an innovative teaching methodology and activity called *Immunity to Change*. According to Kegan,

> "We think we have discovered a powerful dynamic that tends to keep us exactly where we are, despite sincere, even passionate, intentions to change," he says. "A recent study concluded that doctors can tell heart patients that they will literally die if they do not change their ways, and still only about one in seven will be able to make the changes. These are not people who want to die. They want to live out their lives, fulfill their dreams, watch their grandchildren grow up—and, still, they cannot make the changes they need to in order to survive.
>
> "If wanting to change and actually being able to are so uncertainly linked when our very lives are on the line," Kegan asks, "why should we expect that even the most passionate school leader's aspiration to improve instruction or close achievement gaps is going to lead to these changes actually occurring?"
>
> What this implies, says Kegan, is that more knowledge is needed about the change process itself, and more understanding of the "immunity to change." (http://www.gse.harvard.edu/impact/stories/faculty/kegan.php, para. 3, 4, 5)

This activity is an awareness-building exercise that makes explicit that which is currently implicit. *Immunity to Change* helps participants better understand their competing commitments and truly begin to understand the motivation behind behavior and why change, with all of the best intentions, can be so difficult to master.

According to Kegan and Lahey the primary objective to the Immunity to Change exercise is to: *Create insight into why change is so difficult – bringing to light hidden barriers*.

Theoretical Background

The Immunity to Change exercise is rooted in Kegan and Lahey's work in *Constructive Developmentalism*. This work has been applied to the leadership literature and a brief description is provided below.

Kegan, a stage theorist, asserts that individuals may never develop past certain ways of being. Rather than time, the individual is the agent of development and programs that aid in this process are worthwhile. *Constructivist/developmental theory* gives attention to how "individuals perceive or make meaning of the world around them" (Avolio & Gibbons, 1989, p. 286). Kegan & Lahey (1984) suggest that development is the ability to make meaning of experiences – regardless of age. How individuals interpret a situation or an event is dependent upon their life construct and developmental level; this is a subjective process. According to Kuhnert & Lewis (1987), *constructivist* personality theories posit that people differ in how they construct and make meaning of experiences in their physical, social and personal environments. The authors suggest that "understanding the process through which people construct meaning out of their experiences may advance our knowledge of how leaders understand, experience, and approach the enterprise of leading" (p. 650).

According to Day (2004), "Individuals at higher levels of development are able to use a greater number of knowledge principles to construct their experiences (differentiation) and to make more interconnections among these principles (integration). This results in a broader perspective on how things are interrelated (inclusiveness)" (p. 43). Therefore, an individual's *ways of knowing* guide his lives and actions. According to

Kegan & Lahey (1984) this does not link to age, because three different adults could experience the same event and interpret the happenings in three different ways. Kegan & Lahey (1984), define development as "a process of outgrowing one system of meaning by integrating it (as a subsystem) into a new system of meaning; what was "the whole" becomes "part" of a *new* whole. Kegan (1994) calls this the "subject-object" relationship. According to Kegan

> 'object' refers to those elements of our knowing or organizing that we can reflect on, handle, look at, be responsible for, relate to each other, take control of, internalize, assimilate and otherwise operate upon. All of these expressions suggest that the element of knowing is not the whole of us; it is distinct enough from us that we can do something with it.
>
> 'subject' refers to those elements of our knowing that we are identified with, tied to, fused with, or embedded in. We *have* object we are *subject*. We cannot be responsible, in control of, or reflect upon that which is subject. Subject is immediate; object is mediate. (p. 32)

For example, leaders who have little awareness of their emotions and how they affect others are *subject* to these behaviors; they do not have control or in some cases, the ability to reflect upon their actions. Kuhnert & Lewis (2001) describe it this way: "What is subject for some is object for those at higher stages of development" (p. 651). Kegan and his colleagues developed the "subject-object" interview to help determine an individual's epistemology (Lahey, Souvaine, Kegan, Goodman, & Felix, 1988, n.p.). As a result, according to Kegan, individuals make different meanings of leadership depending on their level of development. Kegan's theory outlines five distinct stages of development but, within the context of this discussion, I highlight three: *imperial* (stage two), *interpersonal* (stage three) and *institutional* (stage four).

The *imperial stage* (stage two) finds individuals focused heavily on individual needs and goals. An example offered by Kegan (1982) is that if individuals at this stage do something wrong, they are likely filled with worries of "being caught" rather than guilt. Kuhnert & Lewis (2001) posit that leaders at this stage only have the capacity to work out of the transactional leadership style (transactional leaders focus on task completion and compliance – these leaders rely heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance). The authors go on to suggest that "Stage two leaders may say that they aspire to higher order transactions (e.g., team spirit, mutual respect), but from the perspective of cognitive/developmental theory they have not developed the organizing processes (subject) necessary for understanding or participating in mutual experiences and shared perceptions" (p. 652). Leaders at this stage do not have the capacity to reflect on their agendas. They *are* their agendas.

At the *interpersonal stage* (stage three), leaders focus on personal needs and the needs of others. They can hold their own interests and the interests of others simultaneously. They are more likely to connect with those around them and experience increased levels of trust, connectedness and commitment to others. According to Kuhnert & Lewis (2001), "whereas the stage two leaders negotiate with their employers to satisfy personal agendas, stage three leaders sacrifice their personal goals in order to maintain connections with their employers. Thus, the key transactions for the stage three leaders are mutual support, expectations, obligation and rewards" (p. 652). Although still working out of transactional leadership style, stage three leaders are moving away from their own needs to an interconnection between their needs and the needs of others.

Stage four is the *institutional* stage. Kegan (1982) suggests that individuals at this stage have developed a consistency across arenas, developing their own identity. This self-identity and reliance on personal standards and commitments is the hallmark of stage four. Stage four leaders, in a sense, "stand on their own." As Kegan (1982) puts it, they move from "I am my relationships" to "I have relationships" (p. 100). They work through what Burns (1978) may call "end values." At this stage of development, leaders may make their decisions out of a strong set of values and principles rather than goals or relationships. Moreover, the individual has the capacity to reflect and modify these values (Kegan & Lahey, 1984). According to Kuhnert & Lewis (1987), "unless leaders have progressed to stage four personality structures, they will be unable to transcend the personal needs and commitments of others and they will be unable to pursue their own end values" (p. 653). Because of this, Kuhnert & Lewis assert that transformational leadership begins at this level. Although pieces exist in stage three, it is here where an individual acts holistically out of a place of transformational leadership. Kuhnert & Lewis (1987) assert that "transforming leadership is made possible when leaders' end values (internal standards) are adopted by followers, thereby producing changes in the attitudes, beliefs and goals of followers" (p. 653).

The *constructive/developmental* view of leadership has a number of implications for the study of leadership and leadership development. First, Day (2004) suggests that individuals at lower levels of development will likely construct leadership out of a place of dominance: a transactional place. According to Day (2004), "this is not a wrong way to construct leadership, but it is inherently limiting because an individual leader is expected to act as a sort of hero" (p. 44). A more sophisticated level of leadership requires interpersonal influence, which may be more inclusive and allow the leader more flexibility. Helping leaders understand and examine where they work from develops self-awareness and provides additional tools for success.

Second, according Avolio & Gibbons (1989), "A leader who operates at a lower developmental level than his or her followers cannot transform followers to a higher level than his or her own. Conversely, a leader who views the world from a developmental level that is not understood by his or her followers will also have difficulty transforming followers to his or her way of thinking" (p. 294). The leader may need to be aware of how followers make meaning and approach the conversation or relationship from their level. This is an important piece of the puzzle, because leadership development initiatives should meet people where they are; one size simply *cannot* fit all. A program developed and constructed at stage four may *sound* and *be* completely foreign to an individual at stage two. The concepts of stage four may be a jump. Day and Halpin (2003) agree and suggest "there is an inherent asymmetry in the development process in which those at higher levels of complexity can understand the thinking of those at lower levels (if motivated to do so), but those at lower levels cannot understand the thinking of those at higher development levels" (p. 14).

A third implication for leadership development is the concept of meaning-making and perception. VanVelsor and Drath (2005) exemplify this notion through the following suggestion: "what he learns will be framed and limited by the ways in which he can make what he learned meaningful. Everything learned will cohere within that developmental framework" (p. 396). Each person views the world through a different lens depending on life experience and developmental level. This concept alone can help leaders make better sense of their situation and the environmental context. For instance, leaders who work out of stage three may begin to understand why some have a difficult time understanding them literally and conceptually. If surrounded by a number of competitive stage two team members, it will be a challenging task to work together and truly develop a sense of team; team members will be too busy thinking about their own needs.

Finally, Kegan's thinking can increase the self-awareness of the leader. Learning about this and other theories allow leaders an opportunity to reflect on their own developmental stages and how this affects them and their associates. Leadership development initiatives that intentionally assist participants in perspective transformation likely have a greater effect on participants. *This* is the focus of the *Immunity to Change* activity.

Description of the Practice

The Immunity to Change is one way to help participants move through the different stages of development. In essence, its goal is to move that which is "subject" to "object." The exercise itself uses a four column *Immunity Map* (See *Immunity Map* following References Section) which participants complete in response to a series of questions. The exercises moves quickly and each individual "constructs" their personal map. The basic flow of the exercise is that participants are asked a question, given time to think, invited to check in with a neighbor and have a discussion as a group. Then the next question is asked. The exercise takes (at a minimum) two hours to complete. Ground rules are established for the partnerships and participants are told that they can choose whether to go “deep” or “shallow.” A sample warm-up question may be:

- Imagine you were to invite 5 or 6 people who know a lot about you to an unusual kind of meeting. These are people who know you well in the context of work (or not). These could be co-workers, family members or loved ones who know you in many contexts. These are people who know you well and wish good things for you. They are on your side. You have asked them to come to this meeting to tell you one thing: If they were to name the single thing they think would make the most difference if you were to improve, what would they say? In other words, what are one or two optimal arenas for improvement for you that they might suggest? This is an arena that, if you were to improve, would lead you to be even more effective, add even more value to your life and/or organization. What would their “frank” feedback be?

As participants move through the process the questions complete the *Immunity Map* which outlines some of the motivators behind commitments held by participants. In the end, the map clearly outlines why certain behaviors do/do not occur, competing commitments held by participants and those “big assumptions” that drive behavior – assumptions that may limit personal change or block development.

Results to Date

Kegan and Lahey have conducted the exercise hundreds of times and experienced great results. I have conducted this exercise twice and gathered data (Kirkpatrick’s Level I - Reaction) on one occasion. Based on the feedback, 16 of 18 reported that the program was “excellent” while the other two marked the experience as “good.” In addition, below is a sample of comments received to the question: *What did you gain by attending this session?*

- I learned why I do certain things
- A better knowledge of what my weaknesses are none
- Learned about myself and my goals - therefore how to be a better leader
- A great tool by which is gauge my weaknesses and improve
- A great introspective technique for self improvement
- Self awareness and its importance in developing leadership skills
- Learn what drives me/behavior
- A lot of insight into the reasons behind my personal weaknesses and how to improve
- Learn about yourself before you try to lead others
- How to "look under the hood" that is myself
- A better process for evaluating myself

Conclusions/Recommendations

The Immunity to Change exercise is an excellent resource and could be an integral aspect of any leadership development program. Personal Growth Programs (e.g., Avolio, 1999; Avolio 2005; Cacioppe, 1998; Conger, 1992; Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee, 2002; Popper & Lipshitz, 1993) – Personal growth and self-awareness permeates the literature on leadership development. Personal growth programs are “based, generally, on the assumption that leaders are individuals who are deeply in touch with their personal dreams and talents and who will act to fulfill them” (Conger, 1992, p. 45-46). Essentially, the purpose of these programs is to increase self-awareness and emphasize self-exploration. Conger (1992) suggests that four organizations/movements spawned the growth of these types of programs – National Training Laboratories, the humanistic psychology movement, Outward Bound and The Peace Corps. Avolio & Gibbons (1989) assert that, “after getting their own personal shops in order, charismatic/transformational leaders are free to look outward and beyond the time period in which they operate to solve significant problems" (p. 285). The theory is that the self-aware leader will be better prepared to work with others.

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UNCONSCIOUSLY “IMMUNE”

CONSCIOUSLY “IMMUNE”

FOLLOW UP WORK TO OVERTURNING YOUR “IMMUNE SYSTEM”

STEP 1: OBSERVE THE BIG ASSUMPTION IN ACTION
STEP 2: STAY ALERT TO NATURAL CHALLENGES & COUNTERS TO THE BIG ASSUMPTION
STEP 3: WRITE THE BIOGRAPHY OF YOUR BIG ASSUMPTION
STEP 4: DESIGN A FIRST TEST OF YOUR BIG ASSUMPTION
STEP 5: EXAMINE THE RESULTS OF YOUR FIRST TEST
STEP 6: DEVELOP / RUN / EVALUATE FURTHER TESTS
STEP 7: CONSOLIDATING YOUR LEARNING

CONSCIOUSLY “RELEASED”

UNCONSCIOUSLY “RELEASED”

KEGAN and LAHEY, HOW THE WAY WE TALK…

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2. "Kick the Bucket!" – An activity for enhancing leadership and learning

3. Practice Paper

4. Presenters will share an easy-to-use activity for engaging participants in leadership theory and concepts. "Kick the Bucket!" offers application in a variety of settings. This session will highlight its use in college level leadership courses.

5. Yes, please consider this proposal for a poster, in the event it is not accepted as a paper presentation.

6. Sarah Jo Helms is an undergraduate student pursuing a degree in Agriculture Sciences. She plans to continue her education by completing a master's degree in Agriculture Leadership where she hopes to continue doing research and developing innovative leadership tools for all ages.

   Eric K. Kaufman is an assistant professor in the department of Agricultural and Extension Education at Virginia Polytechnic and State University. Dr. Kaufman earned his PhD from the University of Florida in 2007. His areas of interest include collegiate leadership development and professional development for volunteer leaders.

7. Yes, if accepted, please print the manuscript in ALE conference proceedings.

Introduction

“Kick the Bucket!” was designed by an undergraduate student as a way of reviewing the concepts learned in an interpersonal leadership class. The main theme of the game is centered on Clifton’s “Dipper and the Bucket Theory.” The activity can be adapted in a wide variety of ways. As originally used, the activity served as a tool to help participants discuss the material covered in class as well as a fun way to interact with others. The objectives were as follows:

1) Review previous material,
2) Promote teamwork and comradery and,
3) Reinforce the value of learning games.

Background

According to Rath and Clifton (2005), the Dipper and The Bucket Theory gives us five strategies for increasing positive emotions:

1) Prevent Bucket Dipping
2) Shine a Light on What is Right
3) Make Best Friends
4) Give Unexpectedly
5) Reverse the Golden Rule

The Theory of the Dipper and the Bucket states that:

> “Each of us has an invisible bucket. It is constantly emptied or filled, depending on what others say or do to us. When our bucket is full, we feel great. When it’s empty, we feel awful. Each of us also has an invisible dipper. When we use that dipper to fill other people’s buckets – by saying or doing things to increase their positive emotions – we also fill our own bucket. But when we use that dipper to dip from others’ buckets – by saying or doing things that decrease their positive emotions – we diminish ourselves.” (Rath & Clifton, 2005, p. 15)

According to Driscoll (2002), educators should be aware of four broad learning principals:

1) Learning occurs in context
2) Learning is active
3) Learning is social
4) Learning is reflective

“Kick the Bucket!” is a tool that exemplifies all four principals and allows participants to place leadership skills, ideas and theories into their long term memory. Christopher and Smith (1987) have suggested that learning is “about power, people, and problem-solving” (p. 2). This same structure in games “is why they can be constructed as such effective learning tools” (p. 2). Games are an effective learning tool because “games are known territory; their parameters are set. They have roles and rules, beginnings, endings, and limited consequences. They are comfortable learning grounds and good to have in training programs…” (p. 1). These same dynamics create an effective environment for accomplishing most leadership training goals.

Description of the Practice

1) **Setup –** The board used was setup to cover topics discussed a particular class. In order to make it adaptable, the instructor can introduce topics either all at once as an overall review or periodically as each subject is covered in class. There are three sets of cards that were originally developed. *Question* cards were knowledge-based questions, *Obstacle/Goal* cards offered game instructions related to the Dipper and the Bucket Theory, and *Hieroglyphic/Clue* cards required students to conceptualize leadership theory or subjects through creative representation. The instructor is free to use her/his own cards or to have students submit questions themselves.

2) **Beginning the Game** –

- Each player will receive a bucket and 150 drops (or chips with each chip representing 10 drops) and a bucket. Drops are the currency of the game. All the rest of the drops will remain in the community bucket placed in the center of the board.
- Each player will choose a game piece that corresponds with the same color of her/his bucket.
- To determine who goes first, roll the die. The largest number goes first.
- Start from the square that says "GO!"
- Each time the player makes one complete trip around the board the player collects 100 drops.

3) **What each square means** –

The square with this symbol:

Means the player's bucket has just been filled. Collect 50 drops from the community bucket.

The square with this symbol:

Means the participant must draw a card from the obstacles pile. Read the card and follow the instructions. Put the card back on the bottom of the pile when finished unless otherwise instructed by the card.

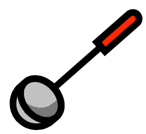
The square with this symbol:

Means the participant must draw a card from the goal pile. Here they will be rewarded for progress they have made in their self-leadership. Read the card and then collect the reward on the card.

These symbols:

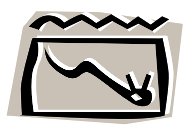
Mean the participant must draw a card from the question pile. These questions will ask about the content covered in class (these can be changed to suit the instructor's needs). Read the question next to the corresponding symbol on the card. When the player has read the question aloud, she/he should talk among the rest of the players about the right answer. When they feel they have discussed the question thoroughly, return the card to the bottom of the pile and collect 30 drops. If no one knows the answer then the player must pay 30 drops to the community bucket.

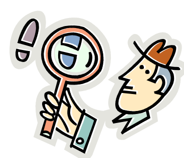
The square with this symbol:



Means the participant has dipped from someone's bucket. Leaders should never dip from someone else's bucket. The player must pay the community bucket 50 drops.

These symbols:





Mean the participant must draw a card from the Hieroglyphics/Clue pile. These cards have words, concepts, or theories written on them. The participant should pick a partner, then take one minute to draw a hieroglyphic or give clues without saying the word that will represent the word(s) on the card. If the player's partner guesses correctly they each earn 30 drops. If their partner guesses incorrectly, neither player receives any drops, and the card must be returned to the bottom of the pile.

If a player lands on this square:

They can pick a Question card and the subject or they can pick from the Hieroglyphic/Clue cards. This gives them the opportunity to choose their own path.

This symbol:

Means the player loses 100 drops and they must roll a double in order to get off this space and start collecting more drops. If the player does not roll doubles within two turns, she/he may move off the space on the third roll. While players are on this space, they cannot collect drops. If the player is sent to this space, or if they land on it, they are subject to its rules.

4) **Ending the Game -** The game ends when someone's bucket is empty. Each person needs to count how many Drops they have and the person with the most pieces is the winner.

5) **Quick Play –** In order to speed up the game or to keep things interesting, the instructor may want to set a time limit of 15 to 20 minutes.

Results to Date

"Kick the Bucket!" incorporates all four broad learning principals. In the group setting participants were actively and socially engaged in learning; there was a natural level of competition and eagerness to learn. The game is centered on a leadership theory and therefore the students were learning contextual information while having fun.

The creation of this game led to more exposure to material covered in class and therefore increased retention levels. The process of designing the various aspects of the game (board, instructions, and question cards) aided in the reflective aspect of learning. Students who participated in the game were able to effectively recall and incorporate class concepts into their final papers.

Conclusions/Recommendations

"Kick the Bucket!" is enjoyable to play as well as educational. The game is suitable for incorporation into a variety of leadership presentations for all ages. Professors, professionals, and organizations would be able to develop material that would accommodate their needs. The game designer is currently exploring options for adapting the activity for a member induction program for a student organization. All leadership educators are encouraged to incorporate "Kick the Bucket!" or similar active learning strategies into their leadership programming efforts.

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Association of Leadership Educators
2008 Annual Conference
Call for Proposals

1) Deana Raffo
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2) Leadership in Action!: A Practicum in Leadership Studies

3) Practice Paper

4) Experiential learning plays a critical role in leadership education. This session focuses on service-learning as a core course in the leadership studies minor at Middle Tennessee State University. The students' self-reflective essays reveal that this is the most valuable piece of the program as "leadership in action."

5) Please consider for poster session if paper is not accepted.

6) Deana Raffo, Assistant Professor in the Department of Speech and Theatre, coordinates the Leadership Studies minor at Middle Tennessee State University. Prior to her full-time teaching assignment, she served as Director of Leadership Development in Student Affairs where she spearheaded the effort with faculty to develop the interdisciplinary minor, now in its fourth year. She teaches the core course in the minor including Leadership Theories and Practices and the service-learning-based Leadership Studies Practicum. She earned her doctorate in Educational Leadership at Tennessee State University and her current professional interests focus on leadership and personal development and experiential learning in the leadership context.

7) Introduction

   Experiential learning plays a critical role in leadership education. This session focuses on service-learning as a core course in the Leadership Studies Minor at Middle Tennessee State University.

   This course is designed to provide MTSU students with the opportunity to enrich their respective classroom experiences by taking part in projects designed to promote community service and self-discovery. The focus of the course may vary according to the instructor, but all projects promote leadership, service, self-awareness, and discovery learning. As a multi-discipline endeavor, faculty from all colleges and departments are encouraged to develop both discipline-specific and broad-based initiatives.

Session participants will learn about one university's endeavor to incorporate students' leadership projects into a minor's curriculum that encourages students to focus on enhancing personal leadership development and understanding through campus- or community-based endeavors. It is anticipated that through the description of this program and the discussion that follows that participants will gain ideas on how to integrate experiential learning into a campus-wide leadership program that integrates curricular and co-curricular programs and learning.

Background

In *What Matters in College*, Astin (1993) addresses student leadership within the college experience. He asserts "increases in leadership are mostly strongly associated with student-student interaction" and notes that changes in leadership are associated with more involvement measures than any other single student outcome. In *Leadership Reconsidered*, Astin and Astin suggest that leadership development should be a critical part of college because it can enrich the undergraduate experience, empower students, and give them a greater sense of control over their lives. Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt (2001) found that experiential learning and service learning are pedagogies that are very powerful for teaching students how to engage in the leadership process. These opportunities provide an environment which empowers students to mature and develop toward greater levels of leadership complexity, integration, and proficiency.

Description of the Practice

Course Objectives

The objective of the course is to offer MTSU students valuable leadership experiences in an atmosphere where their presence and efforts can fill a community or campus need. By emphasizing Komives, Lucas, & McMahon's (2006) definition of "leadership as a relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good" in a community or campus setting, participating students can enrich their learning by approaching the campus and public communities as learning laboratories. Such enrichment will ultimately enable participating students to function as leaders and citizens with experience in how to integrate civic awareness and engagement into their academic and professional pursuits.

Through the Leadership Studies Practicum, students have a unique opportunity to participate in a project-based, interactive partnership with a community or campus entity while synthesizing leadership skills learned in other classes. These partnerships enable students to enrich their learning by approaching the campus and public communities as learning laboratories in which they gain hands-on experience in a field or occupation. This course also serves as a conduit for students to develop a deeper understanding of relational leadership, self-awareness and discovery by partnering with co-curricular leadership programs in Student Affairs. An enrichment course such as this enables these students to build on contexts and to develop leadership qualities.

Course Requirements

Students are required to participate in a project-based service-learning partnership with a campus or community entity. The projects themselves vary depending on partner needs and student interest, but each project produces an end product that reflects the input and effort of all participants. Each project has a stated goal and emphasizes the process of "leadership as a relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good" (Komives et al). In a final self-reflective essay, students discuss how their respective projects addressed the key elements of relational leadership: how their project empowered others, ethical considerations, intentionally with the process; having a purpose; and being inclusive of diverse individuals and ideas. The practicum is offered in variable credits (1-3) to allow for flexibility.

Learning Outcomes
The course learning objectives are as follows. Students will 1) participate in community- or campus-based project; 2) identify and describe elements of the relational leadership model as they relate to the project experience; and 3) evaluate personal leadership development and understanding through the project experience.

Course Activities
The course activities include:

1) In a leadership role, students must participate in a project- or program-based partnership with a campus or community entity. The projects themselves will vary depending on student interest.
2) Students must keep a journal and log of dates, times, and activities with any notes regarding insights, frustrations, self-discoveries, etc. with regards to leadership as prompted.
3) At mid-term, students must meet with the instructor to discuss progress, concerns, etc.
4) Upon the conclusion of the project or at the end of the semester, students must complete a self-reflective essay that discusses their project, how they experienced the key elements of relational leadership, and what they learned about themselves and leadership.

Evaluation Procedures
Students are required to complete a journal consisting of responses to specific prompts and reactions to their respective community-based projects. The sequence of journal entries is designed to encourage students to think in depth about things that are commonplace to them and to explore their experiences in greater depth. Their discoveries are then shaped into the final self-reflective essay. In this essay students discuss how their respective projects addressed the key elements of relational leadership: empowering others, being inclusive, being process oriented, being ethical, having a goal.

Students keep a journal documenting their classroom, preparation, and collaboration experiences. This journal records data for the self-reflective essay each student submits at the end of the term. Students are evaluated on the quality of their journals and self-reflective essays, their commitment to and participation in their respective Leadership Studies projects, and in other areas of class participation. Students receive a grade of either "Pass" or "Fail" in the class.

Results to Date

During the first year of transition from a generalized service-learning practicum to a leadership studies practicum, approximately 50 students have participated. Projects have varied from community-based service projects such as collecting pajamas for children at Vanderbilt Children's Hospital and organizing efforts at a local food bank to leadership roles on campus with offices such as Greek Life and Student Government. The overwhelming response to the course and the self-reflective essays reveal that students are eager to learn about leadership in a "real world" and that the practicum is the most valuable piece of the Leadership Studies minor as "leadership in action."

Conclusions & Recommendations

Ernest Boyer (1987), a leader in student-centered learning, foresaw that universities will need eventually to provide "a larger, more integrative vision of community in higher education, one that focuses not on the length of time students spend on campus, but on the quality of the encounter, and relates not only to social activities, but to the classroom, too." Indeed, Middle Tennessee State University's Academic Master Plan outlines the University's commitment to offer students and faculty community-based learning and teaching opportunities as an integral element to MTSU's desire to seek and promote excellence in three areas: notable academic quality, business and institutional partnerships, and a student-centered learning environment. This course may encompass all three of the Master Plan initiatives in a fashion that will ultimately benefit all parties involved. As one of the core courses in the Leadership Studies Minor, it supports the Academic Master Plan by creating a student-centered learning environment with an opportunity for community-based learning experiences that foster collaboration and partnerships by promoting the process of personal leadership development in an intentional and structured way. By taking on leadership roles in the co-curricular activities provided through Student Affairs, students have the opportunity to immerse themselves in leadership experiences and challenges while engaging in the experiential learning process.

While the Leadership Studies Practicum is considered a success in its first year, the opportunities to further develop and structure the experience abound. Recommendations for the course include participation of more faculty and student affairs administrators to provide not only more opportunities for students, but also to offer faculty an outlet for creative activities and partnerships to support their disciplines and student affairs administrators a way to integrate curricular and co-curricular learning. Other recommendations include developing an on-line forum where students may share their experiences and insights to add an element of collective wisdom to the experience.

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2. **Providing Rigor, Relevance and Relationship in a College Leadership Course**

3. Innovative Idea Practice Paper

4. The researchers utilized an innovative teaching approach to synthesize classroom content, service-learning and peer facilitation. Upperclassmen were hired to work with current students to develop teamwork, service-learning projects and leadership skills. Students appreciated the hands-on application and direct involvement of the peer facilitators.

5. I would like the proposal to be considered for presentation only.

6. Jonathan Velez is a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Human and Community Resource Development at The Ohio State University. Jonathan was a former high school agricultural educator who taught for four years in the state of Oregon. His current research focus includes teacher communication, student motivation, leadership, and learner-centered instruction.

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Providing Rigor, Relevance and Relationship in a College Leadership Course

Introduction

Leadership is best when it is both learned and applied. In an effort to lend meaning and application to leadership learning, the authors instituted innovative pedagogical strategies in an introductory leadership course. The course, administered in a large Midwestern university, was designed to allow students the opportunity to learn, apply and relate to various aspects of leadership. The course instructor set out to blend academic rigor, personal relevance, and peer relationships in a manner devised to increase student engagement and life-long content retention. The three-way blending of these concepts has been described as rigor, relevance and relationship.

Theoretical Background

Transformational leadership has been defined by Bass (1999) as referring to a leader who moves, ". . . the follower beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence (charisma), inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration" (p. 11). Specifically transformational leadership focuses on increasing the involvement of others and developing team goals. In an effort to foster the development of transformational leaders, the class was split up into groups of students who undertook a service-learning project. Each team was assigned a peer facilitator whose job was to aid in the development of the service-learning project. Thus, teams were constructed with the goal of developing transformational leaders. Bass (1999) described transformational teams and stated, "Members of transformational teams care about each other, intellectually stimulate each other, inspire each other, and identify with the team's goals" (p. 11).

The use of teams in society is rapidly changing (Horner, 1997). More often than not, degree of separation between formal leader and leaders within the team is narrow. Formal leaders are shifting their focus from an autocratic to a bureaucratic style of leadership, resulting in an increased focus on the importance of team members (Horner, 1997). The present innovative teaching practice sought to establish an initial leader who was similar in age and background with the group members. Thus, seeking to avoid the usual stereotypical image associated with a prescribed leader.

The innovative teaching practice was grounded in educational literature pertaining to the usefulness and importance of peers in the teaching process. Both Piaget and Vygotsky emphasized the benefits of peers in the learning process. Vygotsky developed the Sociocultural Theory of learning based on the active involvement of peers, adults, and teachers (Vygotsky, 1978). Specifically, Vygotsky believed advanced, or more knowledgeable peers, teachers, or other adults greatly aided the learner in the construction of knowledge. Vygotsky's theory emphasized the role of peers as knowledge providers, yet holds at its foundation the sociocultural view that learning can not be removed from the social context (De Lisi & Golbeck, 1999).

Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development is largely based on the active involvement of peers. As peers interact with each other, they challenge the established norms, effectively creating a state of learner disequilibrium (Palincsar, 1998). The state of disequilibrium ". . . forces the subject to go beyond his current state and strike out in new directions" (Piaget, 1985, p.10). Thus, learners are challenged to work with others, discuss ideas, and eventually reach a cognitive equilibrium (De Lisi & Golbeck, 1999; Palincsar, 1998).

Description of the Practice

In an effort to increase student rigor, relevance and relationship in an introductory leadership course, six upperclassmen were selected to serve as peer facilitators. The term "peer facilitator" was chosen to avoid the stereotypical, power-laden image conveyed by the term "teaching assistant." Peer facilitators, all of whom had taken the class one or two years prior, were randomly assigned to one of six student groups. Each peer facilitator was responsible for five to six students.

A unique and innovative aspect of the program was the nature of the instructor/peer facilitator working relationship. The peer facilitation position was voluntary and supported by a stipend. Consequently, the peer facilitators did not receive college credit, were not graded on their efforts, and were not bound by work study requirements. Thus, the peer facilitators' motivation stemmed from a personal desire to develop skills and some monetary gain.

Another unique aspect of innovation was the amount of freedom supplied to the peer facilitators. Each peer facilitator was supplied a course text and assigned the task of disseminating four chapters of course content as well as assisting in the development of a group service-learning project. The assignment of four chapters and the service-learning project covered a four week span of a 10 week course, thus allowing the peer facilitators substantial opportunity to interact with the students. The course instructor allowed the peer facilitators complete freedom in determining the manner in which the leadership content was presented. The peer facilitators were encouraged to be creative, avoid lecturing, and utilize any teaching technique, manner or setting they felt would best convey the information. During the four weeks the peer facilitators were instructing and assisting the teams, the course instructor assumed a supportive role and provided resources for the peer facilitators. The course instructor rotated between peer facilitation groups and merely observed the interaction between the peer facilitators and students. Quite often the peer facilitators would meet with the students in either separate classrooms, outside settings, or a local coffee shop.

Program Design

Prior to the start of the spring quarter leadership course, an open application was made available soliciting upperclassmen to serve as peer facilitators. Six upperclassmen, who had all previously taken the course, were selected to serve as peer facilitators. The peer facilitators were paid a $600 stipend for their involvement in this project. Prior to the beginning of the course, the instructor and six peer facilitators met to begin planning for the course. The instructor supplied the content to be learned (book chapters) and directed discussion concerning ways the peer facilitators thought the information could best be presented. The peer facilitators interacted as a group, discussed previous leadership experiences, brainstormed on leadership activities and began soliciting resources from both the college leadership center and the course instructor.

During the first week of the quarter, peer facilitators were introduced to the students enrolled in the leadership course, and specifically those students in each of six peer facilitation groups. After initial introduction, the peer facilitators were removed until the 5th week of the quarter. Peer facilitators were re-introduced into the course at the beginning of the fifth week, and given three weeks to directly interact with the five to six students who comprised their group.

Results to Date

Based on the student interaction with the peer facilitators, the students were asked to write a brief, non-graded reflection paper concerning their perceptions of the peer facilitation and service-learning experience. The student papers reflected three major benefits of the peer facilitating process. In general the students appreciated the innovation of the peer facilitators, the enhanced educational experience, and the relational benefits to having a peer facilitator. While the authors made no attempt to categorize the learning outcomes in terms of the rigor, relevance and relationship, the quotes from the students tend to cluster in these three categories.

- "I have never been in a class where this idea was implemented. . . overall I really liked having a peer facilitator."
- "The peer facilitator was a great idea"
- "She put the topics into ways of teaching them or relating them to stuff most of us have done. It helped the material stick with me."
- "Our peer facilitator had a tremendous positive impact in helping us better understand . . . She presented a true example of what it means to be a leader, by exemplifying her creativity, active participation, and excellent communication skills."
- "I really felt as if I retained much more of the information."
- "The peer facilitator allowed me to express how I really felt . . . I do not open up easily to professors as I see them as somewhat intimidating."
- "Peer facilitators could relate to us as students as they were riding the same emotional roller coaster in the game of life!"
- "I really felt closer to the peer facilitator than I usually do to a professor, due to the more individualized attention."
- "The peer facilitator was like a mentor, a wonderful resource."
- "Our peer facilitator was like our own personal professor to guide us."

Recommendations

The students recommended to:

- "Have one peer learning session very early in the quarter so that the group members and the peer facilitator have a better chance to become acquainted before jumping head first into the project."
- "Define what a peer facilitator is and the role they bring to our class."

The peer facilitators recommended to:

- Increase the contact time spent with students.
- Allow the peer facilitators an opportunity to meet with students during the last class meeting to provide "closure."

The instructor recommended to:

- Be careful in the selection of peer facilitators, including preferential selection of individuals with prior teaching/small group leadership experience.
- Allow time to meet with peer facilitators, as a group and individually, during the peer facilitation experience in order to gauge effectiveness and monitor student progress.

Conclusions

Overall student reaction was extremely positive with the exception of one team. One team did not like their peer facilitator. They felt the peer facilitator was not an effective communicator or leader. The students recommended increased care in the selection of future peer facilitators, yet, overall verbalized overwhelming support for the importance and continuation of the peer facilitation and service-learning process. The peer facilitators recognized a personal benefit and indicated unanimously that they would enjoy serving in a future peer facilitation role. The peer facilitators perceived increased growth and development in communication, leadership and teaching methods. Based on the results of the innovative project, the course instructor strongly recommends the continued use of peer facilitators.

Costs

The peer facilitation project was funded through the Undergraduate Faculty Teaching Partnerships (UFTP) award. The UFTP was part of a larger USDA Higher Education Challenge Grant written by Dr. Anna Ball and Dr. Neil Knobloch. The monetary resources utilized for this project consisted of $3,600 (6 x $600) in peer facilitation stipends and $300 in materials and supplies.

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Stepping into the Lime Light:
Preparing 4–H Members for Leadership & Service at the State Level

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Stepping into the Lime Light:
Preparing 4–H Members for Leadership & Service at the State Level

Abstract

The [STATE] 4–H Council is a team of young people selected to represent the [STATE] 4–H Program. Preparing these young people for their term is essential. Authors will discuss ***EL MAR: A Seaworthy Mission***, an innovative professional development program that prepares members for leading and serving the [STATE] 4–H program.

Introduction / Need for Innovation

Through participation in a variety of different kinds of activities, young people begin to develop the positive leadership skills that make them future leaders of this nation. Seevers and Dormody (1995) found that in an assessment of activities where 4–H members ranked the activities they believed allowed them the best opportunity to gain leadership life skills, four activities tied for the number one spot. "Holding an office" was the first of those four activities. Cantrell, Heinsohn, and Doebler (1989) found that leadership skill development increased when 4–H members experienced leadership roles beyond the club level.

The [STATE] State 4–H Council is a team of young people selected to fill the highest positions of state leadership attainable in the 4–H program. Twelve young people hold Council positions, representing the state 4–H program for one-year terms. They are the most visible of all 4–H members, responsible for industry contacts and public appearances, planning and organizing events, and facilitating the statewide service-learning program. [STATE] State 4–H Council members receive opportunities that are not available to other 4–H members, including extensive travel, networking and training.

While Seevers and Dormody (1995) found that "holding an office" is one of the capstone leadership development experiences, training is still a necessity for young people in an officer position to learn specifics of the position, hone skills that will be utilized throughout their terms, and get acquainted with their fellow team members. In preparation for their year of service, Council members receive training and professional development. When leadership development faculty members were appointed as the Council advisors, it was quickly ascertained that instead of inspiring the group to lead and serve, training had become bogged down with learning how to MC events, event planning, and how to report monthly activities. The Council members were bored and uninspired. Many thought their job consisted solely of the "lime light moments" where they got to stand in front of a group of their peers and be the ones speaking at the microphone. Any semblance of true transformational leadership had been stripped away; they were mere figureheads, where once extension administration had hoped to develop true leaders. It was from the desire to turn training from a drudge to a motivational and inspirational event that ***EL MAR: A Seaworthy Mission*** was born, and has now become the program that addresses the need for State Officer training and preparation in [STATE].

Practice Objectives

- State council members will be able to accurately articulate: what is 4–H, the vision, mission, and goals of the [STATE] 4–H program, and how the 4–H program has made an impact upon their lives.

- State council members will maintain an up-lifting, encouraging attitude that inspires other 4–H members to aspire to serve their communities, country, and world at a higher level.

- State council members will lead by example. They will make positive decisions at all times, remembering that they are a highly visible representative of themselves, their families, their county and state 4–H programs, and the [STATE] 4–H program as a whole.

- State council members will maintain a positive attitude at all times, and will motivate others to be the best 4–H member that they can be.

- State council members will serve as an advocate for the [STATE] 4–H program, being knowledgeable of all [STATE] 4–H projects, programs, and opportunities available to their peers. State council members will encourage 4–H members to take advantage of the opportunities available to them through the [STATE] 4–H program.

- State council members will represent the [STATE] 4–H Council and the [STATE] 4–H Program and any and all 4–H events they attend, from a project club meeting to the National 4–H Conference, and everything in between.

How It Works

EL MAR is a three-day retreat held annually two weeks after the officer induction at the state leadership conference. Gone are the bare bones walls of a university class or dorm room. In their place, the Council members spend their retreat at a hotel and conference facility, their meeting and hotel rooms decorated with fish, seashells, and life preservers to provide a fun, light atmosphere for what is a more rigorous approach to professional development. The goal of the program is to prepare the young people for their year of service by focusing, not on the day to day tasks of being a state officer, but on the larger missions of **E**ncouraging members and leaders, **L**eading by Example, **M**otivating members toward greater participation, **A**dvocating on behalf of the larger 4–H program, and **R**epresenting 4–H members, leaders, volunteers, and faculty at all times to constituents and programmatic stakeholders; ***EL MAR***.

<u>Day One</u> – Council members are welcomed to the facility by advisors and 4–H program staff in the early afternoon. Training focuses on familiarizing the new team with the principles of EL MAR, as well as with their new roles as officers and each other. Specific sessions include: *Roles & Responsibilities of Council Members*, *Teambuilding*, and *Creating an Environment of EL MAR!*

Day Two – Training workshops begin directly after breakfast and continue throughout the day. Training workshops focus outwardly in day two, still incorporating the EL MAR principles. Sessions include: *Making Member Connections*, *Sharing the Public Value of our 4–H Programs*, and *Technology and 4–H: Blogs, Wikis and Other Communication Tools*. Following dinner, Council Members experience a public speaking session where they work with faculty and staff to create and practice workshop speeches, presentations and mock interviews. Day two ends with a social activity provided by the newly retired officer team and have included a hayride, bonfire, and [UNIVERSITY NAME] basketball game.

Day Three – Training begins, again, directly after breakfast, and is focused on providing the final tools Council members will use throughout their terms. Sessions include: *Etiquette for Every Situation*, *Parliamentary Procedure*, and *Developing Great Workshops*.

Results to Date, Implications, and Recommendations

The success of the *EL MAR* program has been evident in the growth of the State Council program, and the positive feedback received from Council members and the extension educators with whom they work. For the past four years, 4–H program faculty have solicited and implemented feedback from former Council members to improve and enhance future retreats. This feedback has lead to the inclusion of more training sessions throughout the weekend, public speaking resources and evaluation tools that can be used after workshop sessions. Extension educators provide feedback to program faculty after Council members attend events. This feedback allows faculty to adjust future training and also provides mid-term training topics to address needs that arise throughout the year.

Future Plans and Advice to Others

Future plans include the incorporation of a fourth day of training. Because of programmatic feedback received throughout the last four years, faculty members are working to build the resources for a fourth day of training. By building in a fourth day, Council members would be allowed more opportunities for hands on learning, more time spent on topics that require deeper reflection (like goal setting), and more “down time”; a valuable commodity considering the current rigorous nature of the training.

Costs and Resources Needed

EL MAR is funded by the [STATE] State 4–H program via grants and private donors. Approximate cost of the weekend for room and board for all participants is $1200. Training resources (notebooks, copies, honorariums, etc.) cost approximately $500. The only cost to Council member participants is transportation to and from the hotel. The most important resources for the program are the workshop presenters. Learning is the core of the program, and program faculty rely heavily on the talents of extension staff, other faculty members, and graduate students who donate their time to provide the training.

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Stepping into the Lime Light:
Preparing 4–H Members for Leadership & Service at the State Level

Biographies

Jodi L. Torock is a graduate and teaching assistant in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication at Texas A&M University. Jodi received a Bachelor of Science degree in Animal Sciences at The Pennsylvania State University. Growing up in Pennsylvania, she was an active 4–H member, and served as Pennsylvania State 4–H Council President in 2004. Upon graduation, Jodi plans to obtain a position within the Cooperative Extension System as a 4–H and Youth Development Educator. In this role, Jodi would like to help other youth have the same great leadership and service opportunities that she experienced through the 4–H program.

Dr. Jacklyn A. Bruce is an Assistant Professor of Youth and Adult Leadership Development at The Pennsylvania State University in the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education. In this position, Dr. Bruce provides leadership for a variety of state level leadership development programming for the Pennsylvania 4–H program, maintains a rigorous research program in the area of transfer of leadership training and skills and an outreach program on working with teens for Pennsylvania's 4–H Youth Development Extension Agents.

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Presenters' Bios:

Dr. Joe Albert is currently an assistant professor in the Department of Organizational Leadership at Gonzaga University in Spokane, Washington. For the past five years he has directed the Comprehensive Leadership Program for undergraduate students at Gonzaga. He holds a Ph.D. in leadership studies, a master's degree in counseling- psychology both from Gonzaga and, an undergraduate degree in business management from St. Joseph's University in Philadelphia.

Originally from Soldotna, Alaska, Kaitlin Vadla is the only student at Gonzaga ever to have been inducted simultaneously into the Comprehensive Leadership Program, Entrepreneurial Leadership Program, and Honors Program. Kaitlin recently returned from the Middle East where she attended the Leaders in Dubai Business Forum as one of only two students at the conference. After listening to Kofi Annan, Steve Forbes, Muhammad Yunus, and others speak at Leaders in Dubai, Kaitlin has been working to create a grant program at her university to help more students take part in international leadership opportunities. Kaitlin spent a year studying at Magdalen College at Oxford University in England, and she graduates from Gonzaga in the spring of 2008 with a major in International Relations and minors in Spanish and Political Science.

2. Title of Presentation:

The uses of storytelling in the leadership development process:
Transformative classroom pedagogy

3. Presentation Track: Practice (this could also be included in a research track but at the time of this submission we are only at the beginning of collecting data about he class experience.)

4. Session Description/Abstract:

Based on an innovative course called Leadership and Storytelling, this interactive workshop explores the convergence of narrative, identity, and leadership and investigates what this convergence means for leadership development. Discover what it is about narrative that makes it such a powerful tool in developing authentic leaders.

5. Submission Description:

(We would be willing to be accepted for a poster presentation if the paper is not accepted.)

a. Introduction:

Stories have played a critical role in the communication of traditions, history, and values since the beginning of civilization (Fulford, 1999). Most people know how to tell stories and do so frequently, to explain our motives, to tell a joke, or to illustrate a point. However, we are not as adept at understanding how narrative explicitly transfigures the commonplace, how it shapes our identity, and how it relates to leadership (Bruner, 2002). There is something more powerful than we notice about narrative. This proposal is based on the transformative classroom experience of the teacher and undergraduate students in a course called Leadership and Storytelling. We would like to use the insights of the instructor and the students to answer four questions, that serve as the objectives, during the span of the workshop. 1) What is the significance of narrative for leaders? 2) How was the course structured to investigate and convey that significance? 3) What was it about the course that made it such a meaningful experience for students? 4) How can workshop participants incorporate narrative into their own lives to become better leaders? Following is a brief outline of how we will address these four questions.

b. Background and Description:

<u>1). Significance of narrative</u>.

While there is long and sustained interest in folklore and narrative, the critical role of storytelling in leadership has only recently become a focus of attention. The reasons for the increased interest are varied. Recent literature illustrates a diverse range of situations where leaders might use stories as tools for communicating a vision, socializing new employees into the culture or to maintain a current culture (Trice & Beyer, 1993), providing hope and inspiration (Gardner, 1995), and to stimulate change (Denning, 2001).

In addition to the benefits derived for leaders in impacting their organizations, the creation of a leadership story can also offer benefits related to increased self-awareness. Tichy (1997) suggests,

> The most effective leaders are those who are in touch with their leadership stories…The story shapes our attitudes, actions and reactions. When we know our stories we know ourselves. Stories, however, are equally important because they allow other people to know us. Stories create real, human connections by allowing others to get inside our minds and our lives (p. 77-78).

2). Classroom experience.

The Leadership and Storytelling class was based on developing and sharing three types of stories: Who I Am stories, Who We Are stories, and Future stories (Tichy, 1997). *Who I am* stories deal with personal stories about the individual. They include descriptions of events, relationships and situations that have been important in shaping the individual and the beliefs he or she holds. These personal narratives identify key values the individual may hold and how they were developed. Utilizing the notion of personal turning points, as suggested by Bruner (1994), students were invited to explore experiences from their lives that caused a significant impact and change in their values, career interests, and worldview.

Who we are stories are stories about a group, family or organization that involve significant events and experiences that have shaped their common identity. The purpose of these stories is to clarify or emphasize certain beliefs, common history or shared values within the group. This type of story invites a great deal of reflection on collective identity and group definition.

The final type of story is the *future story*. This type of narrative is a sharing of a view into the future. It usually deals with goals, dreams, and vision. President Kennedy's future story of landing a man on the moon managed to mobilize the energy and resources of thousands of scientists to that end and energize the nation to a seemingly impossible goal. This section also allows for an exploration of "plot *revisioning*" or narrative approaches to therapy (Leiblich, McAdams & Josselson, 2004).

3). Why was the classroom experience meaningful.

Taking a life stories approach to leadership allows for the creation of coherence. Looking at one's life from a narrative perspective invites one to rediscover oneself and to begin to create meaning of one's own life. We would like to discuss three phenomena that we feel are at the heart of why it was such a meaningful experience:

A). Creation of a safe space

Students described the space in the classroom as "peculiarly truthful," "open," and "a place where I could be vulnerable and honest in a way that I hadn't even been able to be with myself." The space was created in part due to the instructor's understanding of himself and of others, and to his willingness to take the risk of being candid. In addition to the influence of the instructor, the space was created out of the recognition of the shared fear and vulnerability of the participants; "there is much more at stake than a grade here," one student remarked, "this is about *identity*."

B). Fostering the notion of authorship

The course created a paradigm shift for how students could view their lives. Using the work of McAdams (1993) as a prime source, students were encouraged to become authors of their own story. With the intent of fostering a more authentic leadership identity students were led through a process of reflecting on their life experiences and surfaced emerging themes that manifest in their current values, career choices and belief system.

C.) Taking students to the edge of knowing
There is a certain depth and vulnerability about this process that is more difficult for some than for others. It takes one to the center of oneself, to the root of one's motivations, and to the unexplored areas of one's life. The willingness of moving into the unknown or unexamined dimensions of ones life was facilitated through the use of narrative as a means of doing this self-exploration.

4. <u>How can workshop participants incorporate narrative into their own lives to become better leaders?</u>

In addition to the discussion of the class methodology the session facilitators will invite participants to identify 'Who I am?' stories from their own experience that they can develop and use to communicate their own values, beliefs and motives. These activities are useful to participants who seek tools for leadership development experiences in classrooms, in training, and in consulting. The goal will be to help participants experience the transformative process of using narrative as a methodology for leadership development.

d. Results: At this point we are in the process of gaining IRB approval to solicit feedback from students in the class. This proposal focuses on the pedagogical aspects of the classroom experience that resulted in such a powerful experience.

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Association of Leadership Educators
2008 Annual Conference
Practice Presentation Proposal

1. **Presenter Information:**

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2. **Title of Presentation:**
   Using Gallup's StrengthsQuest to Teach Leadership

3. **Presentation Track:**
   Practice

4. **Description:**
   Institutions of higher education across the country are now using the StrengthsQuest program from the Gallup Organization to help students understand themselves better, make good career choices, prepare for job interviews, and develop teamwork skills. This session will describe a workshop created to use the self-awareness generated through the use of StrengthsQuest to help students develop their leadership ability using Kouzes and Posner's five practices of exemplary leadership.

5. **Biographical Profile:**
   Carol McBryde is the Coordinator of the Leadership and Service Center in the Department of Student Activities at Texas A&M University. She works with the StrengthsQuest program and advises the Parents' Weekend Committee, as well as supervises the staff in the LSC. Carol recently completed her Ph.D. in Leadership Education from Oklahoma State University. Carol is passionate about helping students learn more about themselves and about leadership as theory and practice. She holds a M.S. in Higher Education and Student Affairs from Indiana University and a B.S. in Agricultural Development from Texas A&M University.

   Sarah Edwards is an advisor of the Leadership and Service Center in the Department of Student Activities at Texas A&M University. She works with the LeaderShape Institute, StrengthsQuest and Covey's 7 Habits of Highly Effective People for College Students, and advises the Aggie Recruitment Committee, Alternative Spring Break, and the Gilbert Leadership Conference. She completed her M.E. in Student Affairs Administration in Higher Education from Texas A&M University in 2007, and holds a B.S. in History, Technology, and Society from Georgia Institute of Technology.

Using Gallup's StrengthsQuest to Teach Leadership

Carol A. McBryde and Sarah Edwards
Texas A&M University

Introduction

Institutions of higher education across the country are now using the StrengthsQuest program from the Gallup Organization to help students understand themselves better, make good career choices, prepare for job interviews, and develop teamwork skills. At Texas A&M, the StrengthQuest inventory has been taken by over 6,000 students through participation in student organizations and academic courses that choose to use the inventory and the accompanying workshop. In an effort to take this new self-awareness to the next level, staff developed a program entitled Leading With Your Strengths. This four-hour workshop is designed to provide students with an opportunity for self-exploration through the StrengthQuest inventory and the Leadership Practices Inventory, and to help students find the connection between these two concepts and use their new self-knowledge to impact their practice as leaders. Specifically, the learning outcomes for this workshop include:

- Students will be able to describe their five signature themes (from StrengthsQuest) and provide examples of how these themes impact behavior
- Students will be able to define leadership and identify five exemplary practices of leadership (as described by Kouzes and Posner)
- Students will be able to articulate the application of their individual strengths to these practices of leadership.

Background

This workshop is grounded in two pieces of research, both strongly tied to the positive psychology movement. First, the workshop uses the StrengthsQuest inventory developed by the Gallup organization (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). This instrument and the accompanying materials are based on a 30-year research project of the "best of the best" from a variety of fields. The instrument has a high reliability among college students as well as the general population (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006), and provides an excellent tool for helping students begin to view their life from the perspective of building on what they are good at rather than fixing their weaknesses.

The second major framework for this workshop is Kouzes and Posner's five practices of exemplary leaders from their book *The Leadership Challenge* (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). This study provides a framework for describing leadership, as well as for helping students begin to understand how to develop as leaders. The student version of the Leadership Practices Inventory provides a tool for students to self-assess their current leadership ability, and begin to think about how to develop this ability.

Description of the Practice

Each fall and spring the Leading with Your Strengths workshop is offered to up to 25 students. Students are asked to sign up in advance, and take the StrengthQuest inventory and the Leadership Practices Inventory prior to the start of the workshop. The workshop is marketed campus-wide, so the group of students who take the workshop ends up being quite diverse. Typically there are a number of student leaders in the room, some of whom have taken Strengths in the past but are interested in deepening their knowledge. Often there are also several graduate students in the room who are interested in learning about leadership and how this knowledge will help them when they move into the business world. The workshop is a mixture of lecture, discussion, small group work, and reflection. Following is an outline of the workshop:

I. **Introduction to Workshop**
   a. Introduce presenters
   b. Go over learning objectives
      Students will be able to:
      - *Describe their five signature themes and provide examples of how these themes impact behavior*
      - *Define leadership and identify five exemplary practices of leadership*
      - *Articulate the application of their individual strengths to these practices of leadership*
   c. Ice-breaker

II. **Understanding Your Strengths**
   a. Activity: Writing Challenge
      Students write their name 5 times first with dominant hand, then with non-dominant hand. Process by having the group describe what it felt like to write with each hand. This is the difference between operating from your strengths and operating from your weaknesses.
   b. Why Focus on Strengths?
      Unhappiness on the job affects one-fourth of the American Workforce
      One-third of Americans say, "I hate my job."
      Two-thirds of your fellow citizens labor in the wrong career
      Others find employment success, but not satisfaction
      US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998
      Miller, D., 48 Hours to the Work You Love
   c. The Organizational Focus
      Share statistics on engagement level of employees based on focus by manager: ignored by manager, manager focuses on weaknesses, manager focuses on strengths.
   d. Strengths Assumption
      Share example of speed reading training study with much greater improvement from participants who were already above average readers.
   e. Strengths Building: The Right Assumptions
      - *Some behaviors can be learned. Many are nearly impossible to learn. There is a difference between talent, skills, and knowledge.*
      - *The best in a role deliver the same outcomes, but use different behaviors.*
      - *Weakness fixing prevents failure. Strengths building leaders to success.*
   f. Research and Background of StrengthsQuest
      - *Gallup – not just polling, Education Division*
      - *Instrument to identify strengths has been developed, 180 pairings, 34 themes measured, top 5 provided (explain why only top 5).*
      - *Interviewed over 2 million people over 3 decades in 30 different cultures, the best of the best in a myriad of fields*
      - *Identified over 420 different strengths*
      - *Measured which strengths were the strongest and placed them in groupings of 34 signature themes; 33,700,000 permutations of 34 (top 5)*
      - *At this time, over one million people have completed strengthsfinder*
      - *Where else Strengths is being used*
        1. *Best Buy*
        2. *Toyota*
        3. *The majority of Big 12 Institutions are using in some form or fashion*
        4. *All incoming freshmen in the Business School*

g. Definitions
__Talent__: A naturally recurring pattern of thought, feeling, or behavior that can be productively applied. A talent is a potential strength.
__Knowledge__: What you are aware of. It may be purely factual knowledge. Or, it may be how you make sense of what you know – your understanding. (Declarative, Situational, Reflective)
__Skills__: The capacity to perform the fundamental steps of an activity. Skills deal with the "how-to" areas of your job. Once you have acquired the skill for something, you know how to do it. (procedural)
__Strength__: The ability to provide consistent, near-perfect performance in a given activity. To build your strengths, identify your talents, and add knowledge and skills.
Strength = Talent (Knowledge + Skills)

h. Strengths Development Model
Knowledge of Self
Knowledge of Others
Management & Leadership of Self
Management & Leadership of Others

i. 7 Demands of Leadership
(from Gallup study of great leaders and what separates them from the rest)
- *Visioning*
- *Maximizing Values*
- *Challenging Experience*
- *Mentoring*
- *Building a Constituency*
- *Making Sense of Experience*
- *Knowing Self*

j. Activity: My Strengths and How I Use Them
Students complete a worksheet defining each of their five strengths and writing how they think this strength helps them, and an example of when they have seen this strength in their life.
After students finish the reflection, lead a group discussion sharing some of the strengths and how they saw them in their life. This activity is focused on knowledge of self.

k. Activity: Scavenger Hunt
It is also important to understand others. During this activity, find 10 people who have one signature theme that is NOT among your top 5 themes. Record each person's name, theme name, and one benefit of that theme.

l. Activity: Pairs
In addition to understanding different strengths, it is helpful to understand how the same strength works differently for different people. For this activity, please pair up with someone who has one of the same strengths as you. Identify and discuss differences in how this strength plays itself out in your life and your partner's life. What are the differences? What are the similarities? Once the group has had a chance to do this, give them the opportunity to share examples of what they discussed.

II. BREAK – 20 minutes
During the break, participants should grab some pizza and spend some time writing their Personal Best Leadership Experience. Instructions are to think about a time when you have been at your personal best as a leader. Describe the situation, and how you felt during it. How did others perceive you in the experience? Identify five to seven key practices that made a difference in that experience.

III. Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders

a. Defining Leadership
Students share their personal definitions of leadership, followed by sharing Kouzes and Posner's definition: The art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations."

b. Introduction to the Five Practices
Describe the research study (sought examples of personal best leadership experiences of more than 10,000 interviewees), talk about credibility, this is where the five practices come from.

c. Model the Way
Describe the practice, and the two commitments:
- *Find your voice by clarifying your personal values.*
- *Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.*

After talking about the practice, ask participants to share what they think are applicable strengths and why.

d. Inspire a Shared Vision
Describe the practice, and the two commitments:
- *Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities.*
- *Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.*

After talking about the practice, ask participants to share what they think are applicable strengths and why.

e. Challenge the Process
Describe the practice, and the two commitments:
- *Search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve.*
- *Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes.*

After talking about the practice, ask participants to share what they think are applicable strengths and why.

f. Enable Others to Act
Describe the practice, and the two commitments:
- *Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust.*
- *Strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.*

After talking about the practice, ask participants to share what they think are applicable strengths and why.

g. Encourage the Heart
Describe the practice, and the two commitments:
- *Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence.*
- *Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.*

After talking about the practice, ask participants to share what they think are applicable strengths and why.

h. Student Leadership Practices Inventory
Describe the SLPI
Hand back scored LPIs
Talk a little bit about what the scores mean
Did it turn out the way you thought it would?

i. Activity: Personal Best
Discuss the Personal Best stories students wrote during the break. Specifically:
- *Where do you see the 5 practices in your story?*
- *How does this compare to your results on the LPI?*
- *Where do you see your Strengths in the story?*
- *How does this application give you insight into why it's your "personal best"?*

j. Activity: Putting it All Together
Students are asked to complete the reflection activity Putting It All Together. They write their scores on the five practices and their strengths at the top of the page, then answer the following questions:
- *Which of the leadership practices and behaviors are you most comfortable with? Why? How does this relate to your strengths?*
- *What strength are you most comfortable and competent in? How does this relate to your scores on the leadership practices?*
- *What Strength are you most interested in developing?*
- *What Leadership Practice are you most interested in improving?*

IV. Specific Applications

a. The Seven Demands of Leadership revisited

Earlier today we talked about the seven demands of leadership. Which one do you think we've been working on the most today? (knowing self). Also touched on a couple of others (making sense of experience in particular)
Today we are also going to focus on another one of the seven demands: (ex: Visioning)

b. Visioning lecture, discussion, and activities
Each time we do the workshop we focus on another one of the demands, and do about 30 minutes focusing on that particular aspect of leadership.

c. Activity: Action Planning
At the end of the workshop students have the opportunity to complete the Action Planning Worksheet and discuss it:
- *Write a specific goal for one thing you would like to be better able to do. Base it off of the Leadership Practice and Strength that you are most interested in developing.*
- *What specific actions will you take to accomplish this goal?*
- *What tools or resources do you need to be able to accomplish this goal?*
- *What is the* first *action you will take? Who will be involved? When will you begin?*
- *"I will know I have improved in this leadership skill when . . ."*
- *Who will help hold you accountable? Write their name and contact info here:*

Results to Date

The Leading with Your Strengths workshop has been offered at least once a year for the last three years. Originally the workshop was a seven-hour workshop, spread out over two days, with a strong emphasis on the Strengths portion of the content. Based on feedback from students the workshop has morphed into a shorter, more concentrated time block, and the content has been adjusted to focus more on how to utilize what you know about your Strengths to develop yourself as a leader. Student feedback from the workshop has been very positive. Students tend to agree that the workshop was helpful, and that they will use what they learned. Some comments from recent workshops have included:

> "Learned that my belief, connectedness and input were strengths, I thought they were habits, will be more aware of how I can relate to others"
>
> "I have a potential of being a leader-my general idea about myself being a leader was guided in the right direction"
>
> "I learned my strengths and how I can apply them to leadership."
>
> "Build on strengths to cover weaknesses and do things I didn't think I was good at or could do."

Conclusions and Recommendations

For leadership educators who want to help students develop their knowledge of self from a positive perspective, StrengthsQuest is an invaluable tool. It provides an excellent opportunity for students to really begin to understand their talents, and to learn what this can look like in the real world. In addition, Gallup provides some excellent educational tools for higher education that make implementing this on your campus pretty straightforward. These educational materials focus not only on understanding the results of the instrument, but on understanding the philosophy behind it – that is, build your life around your strengths, not your weaknesses. This message is an important one for future leaders, and this tool helps bring it home in a way that college students often find timely and applicable.

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2) Utilizing True Colors™ to Enhance Team-building and Communication Skills in a College Ambassador Program

3) Practice Paper

4) Abstract

The True Colors™ personality typing system workshop was administered to illustrate the personality makeup of the members of the Virginia Tech College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Ambassador program. The workshop provided tools to improve communication which could positively impact the teamwork and leadership development of the Ambassador team.

5) Yes, please consider this proposal for a poster if it is not first accepted as a paper.

6) Biography

Ms. Jamie Cowell-Lucero is the Director of Alumni Relations for the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences at Virginia Tech. In this role, she serves as the faculty advisor to the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Ambassadors. Ms. Cowell-Lucero recently joined the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education to pursue a doctoral degree with a focus on student leadership development in college.

Dr. Rick Rudd

Dr. Rick Rudd is professor and head of the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at Virginia Tech. Rudd joined the faculty at Virginia Tech in 2006. Previously, Rudd was a professor in the Department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida (1994-2006).

Utilizing True Colors™ to Enhance Team-building and Communication Skills in a College Ambassador Program

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Abstract

The True Colors™ personality typing system workshop was administered to illustrate the personality makeup of the members of the Virginia Tech College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Ambassador program. The workshop provided tools to improve communication which could positively impact the teamwork and leadership development of the Ambassador team.

Introduction

The Virginia Tech College of Agriculture and Life Sciences (CALS) Ambassador program was implemented in 2001 with the mission of, "Developing leaders through service to and assistance for collegiate and student initiatives for the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences" (CALS Ambassador Handbook, 2007, p. 15). The stated objectives of the program were to "(1) develop student leadership through service-learning activities, (2) promote and collaborate with alumni and development offices to promote college interests, (3) promote interest in the college by providing visibility and public relations on behalf of the college, and (4) enhance recruitment of prospective students" (CALS Ambassador Handbook, 2007, p. 15).

The program is open to all undergraduate students in the college with at least 30 hours of completed coursework and a minimum 2.6 grade point average. Each applicant is required to complete an application which includes a resume, response to a series of essay questions, and the request of a reference letter from a faculty member on their behalf. Each applicant is interviewed by the executive committee and faculty advisor of the program. Membership requirements are attendance at monthly meetings and completing a designated number of service hours each semester.

Over the course of the last seven years, the program has had four different faculty advisors and has been under the administrative leadership of two college Deans and three Academic Associate Deans. These inconsistencies resulted in the lack of a clear picture of the role of the program in the college. In addition, with the need for general assistance in helping to set up various college special events and changes in the format of undergraduate recruiting for the college, the clarity of the four original objectives of the program was clouded.

The first objective, to develop student leadership through service-learning activities, is the main concern. The role of college Ambassadors became diluted with providing labor at college functions that did not require much more than physical activity and their presence. Little attention was given to the students' leadership development as a member of the Ambassadors. Assisting with college special and recruiting events does not leave time in the students' schedules to focus on service projects that develop student leadership. The few service projects completed in the last three years were individual efforts rather than the work of the team.

Bennis and Nanus stated, ‘leadership is what gives an organization its vision and its ability to translate the vision into reality’ (Conners, Velez, and Swan, 2006, p. 94). The leaders of undergraduate student organizations in colleges of agriculture are our future leaders of agricultural businesses and organizations, so it is vital that they are afforded opportunities to develop their leadership skills while at the university (Conners et al., 2006). “According to *A Social Change Model of Leadership Development* (H.S. Astin and A. Astin (1996, p. 10)), ‘service is a powerful vehicle for developing students’ leadership skills’”(Althaus, 1997). Althaus (1997) described the outcomes of the Benedictine University course, *Leadership and Social Context*, in which the curriculum “taught leadership using the pedagogy of service-learning” (p.123). The course “integrated leadership practice, academic inquiry, community service, and the knowledge students have gained from their past and present experiences to actively analyze and practice leadership” (Althaus, 1997, p.123). The students enrolled in the course took their first steps to recognizing leadership, assessing their own skills, and developing a personal leadership model (Althaus, 1997).

According to a study by Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt (2001), students who “participated in leadership education and training programs showed growth in civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, understanding of leadership theories, and personal and societal values” (p.15).

In the past, specific leadership training and development for the Ambassadors was limited to one annual activity. In addition, attention to leadership development for the members of the CALS Ambassador team became a low priority. The diversity of the membership, leadership background, and field of study appear to have inhibited a cohesive, team-oriented environment in membership meetings and projects. In addition, the constant influx of new members at the start of each semester makes it difficult to integrate new Ambassadors into the group.

In an attempt to refocus the program on its original mission and objectives, leadership training activities have become a major priority in the 2007-2008 academic year. At the fall semester retreat, a current member (with assistance from the executive committee), led the members in a workshop on team-building. At the spring semester retreat, efforts were made to help the members understand each other on a more personal level, so that they could begin to dissolve the barriers of diverse leadership backgrounds and fields of study.

The most powerful activity of the retreat was the assessment and activities associated with the True Colors™ personality typing system. This paper will illustrate the personality makeup of the members of the Ambassador program and provide observations of how completing this activity impacted the teamwork and communication skills of the Ambassador team.

Background

True Colors™ was developed in 1978 by Don Lowry. In an attempt to establish a personality assessment that was easy to understand, apply, and retain, Lowry blended education and entertainment by combining audience interaction with insightful materials (True Colors™ web site). The mission of the programs is to enhance the way we live, work, communicate, and interact with those around us (True Colors™ web site). The programs expand upon previous work in the areas of temperament types, and personality and learning theory of David Keirsey, Marilyn Bates, Carl Jung, Katherine Briggs, and Isabel Myers.

Personality type theory, proposed by Carl Jung in 1923, "hypothesized that people exhibit biologically based, naturally preferred behaviors that can be classified according to attitude type and function type" (Evans, Forney, and Guido-DiBrito, 1998). "The merit of the theory" presented by Myers and Briggs "enables us to expect specific personality differences in particular people and to cope with the people and the differences in a constructive way" (I. Briggs Myers and P.B. Meyers, 1995, p. 1). "The basic personality differences concern the way people perceive and the way they make judgments" (Myers and Myers, 1995, p. 1). In the 1950's, referencing Jung's personality type theory, Isabel Myers and Katherine Briggs devised the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator that identified sixteen different temperament types (Keirsey and Bates, 1984). "Myers believed that each individual demonstrates a preference for either perception or judgment when dealing with the outside environment" (Evans et al., 1998, p. 246). The preferences (extraversion-introversion (EI), sensing-intuition (SN), thinking-feeling (TF), and judging-perception (JP)) are organized into the sixteen different temperament types (Evans et al., 1998).

Keirsey and Bates temperament theory partitions the eight preferences suggested by Myers-Briggs into four temperament types, rather than 16, as they believed the four types better explained people's behavior (Evans et al., 1998). These four types are: Dionysian or Artisan (SP), Epimethean or Guardian (SJ), Promethean or Rational (NT), and Apollonian or Idealist (NF) (Evans et al., 1998; Keirsey and Bates, 1984; Keirsey, 1998).

Having studied the work of Keirsey and Bates, Lowry developed a color spectrum which represents four different temperament types or "personality styles": Blue, Gold, Green, and Orange (True Colors™ web site; Miscisin, 2005). Honaker (2001) describes each of the four temperament types with the following adjectives: Blue represents a personality who is harmonious, compassionate, and communicative; Gold represents a personality who is organized, responsible, and orderly; Green represents a personality who is inventive, theoretical, and philosophical; and Orange represents a personality who is spontaneous, active, and realistic.

It is important to note that the True Colors™ programs recognize that all people are a unique blend of characteristics and the four colors (Miscisin, 2005). Each color has particular strengths and analyzes, conceptualizes, understands, interacts, and learns differently (True Colors™ web site). By identifying the color or temperament type that best represents an individual's dominant character, there is increased awareness of what motivates, frustrates, or stresses each type of personality (Meadows, 2008). By understanding these differences there is the opportunity to include everyone's unique strengths, increase productivity, create new ideas, improve communication, and develop relationships (Meadows, 2008). As stated by Meadows, "Personality is one's first personal property" (personal communication, February 16, 2008).

Description of the Practice

The True Colors™ workshop was administered to the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Ambassadors as part of the 2007-2008 academic year spring retreat by Dr. Robert Meadows, state 4-H director emeritus, Virginia Cooperative Extension.

Sixteen Ambassadors (13 females and three males), the Associate Dean of academic programs (female), and program advisor (female) completed the workshop. All of the undergraduate majors and academic levels of sophomore, junior, and senior were represented.

A large open conference room in one of the college's academic buildings served as the location for the workshop. The room was set up in theatre-style seating for the introduction and assessment portions of the workshop then the members of each color were seated in four opposite corners of the room. Each corner was designated by a poster representing one of the four colors (Blue, Green, Gold, or Blue). Groups were provided markers and large sheets of paper to record their responses to each of the activities.

After a brief introduction of the True Colors^{TM} program and group participation in identifying the characteristics of others that were unfavorable, the participants were asked to move to the area of the room where the adjective on the poster best represented their personality. The following adjectives were used: Harmonious (Blue), Responsible (Gold), Curious (Green), and Adventurous (Orange). The participants then were brought back together to complete the True Colors^{TM} Word Cluster Instrument. Described by Honaker (2001), the instrument is a self-report, self-scorable, Likert scale instrument in which individuals were asked to rank five sets of adjectives for each of the four personality types according to those most like the subject with a score of four, to those least like the subject with a score of one. The possible range of scores for any one personality type is zero to 20 (Honaker 2001).

In the final assessment, the participants were asked to respond to a series of ten questions that related to determining the personality types of introversion or extraversion.

<u>Activity 1</u>

Following the assessments, the participants were seated at the poster corresponding to their dominant color. One member of each group was selected as the recorder. Each group was instructed to list adjectives that described the traits of their respective personality type. The recorder of each group read the responses to all of the other participants.

<u>Activity 2</u>

For the second activity, each group was asked to describe an elementary school in which only students with their same personality type could enroll. They were to include the school's motto, mascot, song, and two games that would be incorporated into the curriculum. The recorder of each group read the responses to all of the other participants.

Activity 3

The third activity entailed each group listing the traits that they appreciated about each of the other three personality types. Each group read the responses to all of the other participants. The workshop moderator then read a list of traits that were not favorable of each of the personality types.

Activity 4

The results of the final assessment to determine introversion or extraversion were reviewed. The moderator provided examples of how each of the personality types would respond to various situations.

Following a brief presentation of data describing various age groups and the distribution of the four personality types among the age groups, the participants were asked to complete a workshop evaluation. The students were later asked to respond to a series of six short answer questions sent by e-mail.

Results to Date

The distribution of personality types within the participants were as follows: Blue (one female), Gold (five females, two males), Green (five females, one male), Orange (four females). It should be noted that the two administrators were included in the five females with a Gold personality type.

The results of the evaluation were very positive, with scores of over four in a scale of one to five for all questions. The written comments also were very positive indicating a better understanding of one's self and others.

The most informative and descriptive observations resulted from the answers to the questions sent by e-mail. The six questions were as follows: (1) How did True Colors™ help you to better understand and/or identify your own personality traits and the traits of others? (2) How do you see yourself using the skills and information you learned from True Colors™ in your classes, organizations, personal relationships, etc.? Please expand on how you think you and the other members can apply these skills and information to the Ambassador program. (3) Is this activity something that we should repeat on a regular basis? How often? (4) Did you especially like or dislike any particular part of the activity? (5) Were you comfortable sharing your thoughts and ideas with the larger group and your color group? (6) Do you have any suggestions for further workshops both using True Colors™ and incorporating new leadership and team-building activities?

Six students responded to the e-mail survey. Four themes emerged from their responses.

<u>Theme 1</u>

A better understanding of how and why people behave the way that they do resulted. Student B commented, "It was nice to see what other Ambassadors' colors are. It explains a lot in how we interact, why people sign up for certain events or drift to a specific job without notice of their actions, and how we function together".

<u>Theme 2</u>

The potential of applying the skills learned to improve teamwork within the organization was anticipated. Student C commented, "In the Ambassador program, I think better teamwork will result from the True Colors™ program. I think people will take more effort in considering everybody's opinions".

Theme 3

All respondents agreed that the True Colors™ program should be repeated. Their suggestions varied regarding the scheduling of the program. Generally, they all believed new members and those members who were not able to participate in a prior program should be required to complete the workshop.

Theme 4

All respondents were comfortable sharing their thoughts and ideas and felt an instant camaraderie with the members of their respective groups. Student E stated, "Even though my group (Gold) was the largest of the four groups and I tend to be more introverted, I felt comfortable with these people because there was an automatic sense of commonality"

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of the True Colors™ program indicate the Ambassador program is headed in a positive direction in re-building the mission and objectives of the program outlined seven years ago. The students have a better understanding of each other's personality types and can use this knowledge to better communicate with fellow members. According to the literature in the area of service-learning, encouraging the students to continue their commitments to community service projects, especially those that require a team approach has the potential to continue to build upon their abilities to work as a team and to develop their leadership skills.

Additional personality assessments also may be helpful. Specifically, "Myers's concepts when used in staff development and team-building workshops are designed to help individuals understand each other and appreciate the different approaches each person brings to the organization" (Evans et al., 1998, p. 257). According to Evans et al. (1998), "personality type concepts can be effectively introduced in leadership development classes or workshops" (p. 257). Programs such as StrengthsQuest and Collegiate Life Knowledge also would be important programs to consider for future retreats. "StrengthsQuest is Gallup's strengths development program for college-age students. It gives students the opportunity to develop based on their strengths rather than their weaknesses. In other words, it helps students learn what they do best, then build their lives on those talents. The program helps students discover and develop their greatest talents, use their strengths to improve their grades and increase their learning, strategically determine a rewarding career path, and focus on their strengths rather than their weaknesses" (StrengthsQuest web site). Collegiate Life Knowledge is program developed by the members of The Consortium of Collegiate Agricultural Organizations to provide leadership and personal development resources to college students.

In conclusion, this attempt to utilize the True Colors™ program to enhance team-building and communication skills in the college Ambassador program of the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences at Virginia Tech provided positive results and was a good first step to re-applying the program's objective of developing student leaders.

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