Journal

of

Leadership Education

...is an international, refereed journal that serves scholars and professional practitioners engaged in leadership education.

...provides a forum for the development of the knowledge base and professional practice of leadership education world wide.

...is made available through the continued support and efforts of the membership of the Association of Leadership Educators.

Volume 5, Number 1

Summer 2006

The Journal of Leadership Education

The Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE) is the official publication of the Association of Leadership Educators. The purpose of JOLE is to provide a forum for development of the knowledge base and practice of leadership education. The journal is intended to promote a dialogue that engages both academics and practitioners. Thus, JOLE has a particular interest in applied research and it is the premise of JOLE that feedback between theory and practice tests both and makes each better. The journal provides several categories for submittals to promote diversity of discussion from a variety of authors.

The members and board of the Association of Leadership Educators became aware of the need for a journal about leadership education in the early 1990s. The challenge of educating people about leadership is particularly provocative, complex, and subtle. Other journals with leadership in the title focus primarily on defining and describing leadership, and journals concerning education seldom address the subject of leadership. Indeed, one common argument in society is that leadership is innate (you have it or you don't) and teaching leadership is difficult and often ineffective. This attitude is expressed, perhaps, in the dearth of leadership courses on our university campuses.

In this context, JOLE provides a means to test the hypothesis that leadership education is possible. Our journal sits at the nexus of education theory and practice and leadership theory and practice, and from this divide, this mountain pass, there is a need to look "both ways". Whether or not leadership education is a discipline of its own is unclear, at least at present. If nothing else, by looking both ways this journal hopes to provide a passageway between two disciplines, enriching both in the process.

JOLE is an electronic journal open to all, both as writers and readers. The journal has been conceived as an "on-line" journal that is available on the world-wide web and is to be self-supporting. To this end, at some time in the future a fee may be charged for publication. At present, all editorial, Board, and reviewer services are provided without cost to JOLE or its members by volunteer scholars and practitioners.

Copyright 2006 by the Association of Leadership Educators.

All rights reserved.

ISSN 1552-9045

Editorial Staff

Editor in Chief

- Christine D. Townsend, Texas A & M University

Associate Editor

- C. B. Crawford, Fort Hays State University

Editorial Reviewers

- Elizabeth Bolton, University of Florida
- Chester Bowling, Ohio State University
- Barry Boyd, Texas A&M University
- Christie Brungardt, Fort Hays State University
- Curt Brungardt, Fort Hays State University
- Marilyn Corbin, Pennsylvania State University
- Kathryn Cox, Ohio State University
- Ken Culp III, University of Kentucky
- Renee Daugherty, Oklahoma State University
- Garee Earnest, Ohio State University
- Nancy Franz, University of New Hampshire
- Susan Fritz, University of Nebraska, Lincoln
- Scott Homan, Purdue University
- Tracy Hoover, Pennsylvania State University
- Nancy Huber, University of Arizona
- Christine Langone, University of Georgia
- Jeri Marxman, University of Illinois
- Jeffery P. Miller, Innovative Leadership Solutions
- Lori Moore, University of Idaho
- Martha Nall, University of Kentucky
- Robin Orr, University of Illinois
- Penny Pennington, Oklahoma State University
- John Ricketts, University of Georgia
- Richard Rohs, University of Georgia
- Mark Russell, Purdue University
- Chris Sieverdes, Clemson University
- Wanda Sykes, North Carolina State University
- Kelleen Stine-Cheyne, Texas A&M University
- Laurie Thorp, Michigan State University
- Willis M. Watt, Methodist College
- Bill Weeks, Oklahoma State University
- Larry Wilson, University of Illinois
- Jim Wolford-Ulrich, Duquesne University
- Karen Zotz, North Dakota State University

Table of Contents

From the Editor's Clipboard **1**
Christine D. Townsend, Texas A & M University

Majoring in Leadership: A Review of Undergraduate Leadership Degree Programs **4**
Curt Brungardt, Fort Hays State University
Justin Greenleaf, Fort Hays State University
Christie Brungardt, Fort Hays State University
Jill Arensdorf, Fort Hays State University

Understanding the Perceptions of Service Learning with Teen Leaders **26**
Nicole S. Webster, Pennsylvania State University
Jacklyn A. Bruce, Pennsylvania State University
Tracy S. Hoover, Pennsylvania State University

Development of Youth Leadership Life Skills of Texas Youth as San Antonio Livestock Exposition School Tour Guides **39**
Laura A. Real, Gillespie County Extension
Julie F. Harlin, Texas A & M University

The Consultancy Protocol: Future School Leaders Engage in Collaborative Inquiry **54**
Estelle Kamler, Long Island University

Core Competencies for 4-H Volunteer Leaders Differentiated by Occupation, Level of Education, and College Major: Implications for Leadership Education **61**
Patrick Nestor, West Virginia University
Renee K. McKee, Purdue University
Ken Culp III, University of Kentucky

Submission Guidelines **78**

Le Culminant **80**

From the Editor's Clipboard

The authors selected for publication in The Journal of Leadership Education continue to develop and enhance the body of knowledge surrounding leadership education theory and practice. As a refereed scholarly journal, it is the intention of the Journal of Leadership Education to provide a three-pronged forum for scholars to disseminate their discoveries. As the journal matures, it is time to reinforce and review the journal categories. The manuscript categories for the Journal of Leadership Education consist of Features, Briefs, and Commentaries. Scholars who study leadership education are encouraged to submit manuscripts to the categories related to their research and programmatic results.

FEATURES are thorough discussions of research findings or creations of new leadership education theory. Within the Features category are 2 subcategories: Research and Theory. RESEARCH FEATURES are reserved for research-based papers containing a clear statement of a question or hypothesis, a review of related literature, description of methods, findings, discussion, and conclusions. The research method may be qualitative or quantitative. Research Features focus primarily on findings related to creating new knowledge related to leadership education action-oriented research. Manuscripts considered for the THEORY FEATURE category consist of analysis of leadership education scholarship in order to develop conclusive steps to forward the science of leadership education.

BRIEFS are application discussions of an idea, program, or other leadership education product. The brief manuscripts are shorter and more concise than a "Feature" document. IDEA BRIEFS are discussions of innovative ideas built from developed leadership education theory. APPLICATION BRIEFS are reserved for discussion of a leadership project or program including objectives, outcomes, and effectiveness. Application Briefs should relate to theory and whether the theory was supported or contradicted.

COMMENTARY MANUSCRIPTS provide scholars the opportunity to share an opinion related to leadership education. A commentary may be a response to a previous manuscript or may be intended to promote debate among leadership education scholars.

See the journal website for a more detailed discussion of these categories www.fhsu.edu/jole/.

The Journal of Leadership Education continues to strive for excellence in manuscript review and acceptance. Acceptance rates are calculated for each issue and vary depending on the number of submissions. The JOLE acceptance rate for this issue is 45%.

In their review of the submitted documents, representatives of the JOLE Editorial Board provided a juried assessment of a manuscript's scholarly significance and relevance. The Theoretical Features, Research Features, Application and Idea Briefs were closely scrutinized to ensure selected manuscripts advance the theory and practice of leadership education. This issue of JOLE supports scholars in their development of new knowledge in the quest for successful leadership education.

Respectfully submitted, Christine D. Townsend, Editor

Accepted Research Features

Majoring in Leadership: A Review of Undergraduate Leadership Degree Programs

Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, and Arensdorf investigated collegiate academic leadership programs located in the United States. Their study provides readers with an excellent review of how leadership programs differ throughout universities and colleges. Their conclusions are useful to evaluate current programs and plan programs for the future. In addition, they open the dialogue for longitudinal research to investigate career and life contributions of leadership education graduates.

Understanding the Perceptions of Service Learning with Teen Leaders

A qualitative study to investigate implications of service learning in youth was completed by Webster, Bruce, and Hoover. Their article identifies several key components to implement teen service learning programs. The teens are able to articulate their contributions to community and service and suggest adults do not need to be the sole organizers of the projects. Adults are needed to assist in evaluation but may be able to release some planning authority to the teens. This study provides an important insight into how teens view the service learning component of leadership education.

Development of Youth Leadership Life Skills of Texas Youth as San Antonio Livestock Exposition School Tour Guides

In another study, Real and Harlin, discovered that a youth activity can build leadership skills. Their article identified one example of how an applied activity can make a difference in the leadership development of young people. One interesting conclusion is that females with previous leadership experience developed greater leadership efficacy than those females with no previous leadership experience. Their study provides a platform for other researchers to investigate the leadership education competencies developed in other youth activities.

Accepted Application Briefs

The Consultancy Protocol: Future School Leaders Engage in Collaborative Inquiry

This article provides readers with the results of a administrative leadership course. In this study, Kamler investigated a specific clientele – school principals – who participated in a role-play format to enhance their leadership skills. Kamler proposes that as the participants continue to discuss leadership dilemmas in their contexts (schools), they become more likely to make the right leadership decisions. This Application Brief is a good discussion of how to improve a practitioner's leadership efficacy in the context of their careers.

Core Competencies for 4-H Volunteer Leaders as Differentiated by Occupation, Level of Education and College Major: Implications for Leadership Education

Another type of leadership education practitioner is the volunteer leader. Nestor, McKee, and Culp isolated one specific volunteer leader in their study. As a representative group of volunteers who benefit from leadership education knowledge, these leaders did not share any one critical similarity. The study confirms that many people can become volunteer leaders and effectively support community and other youth development groups.

Majoring in Leadership: A Review of Undergraduate Leadership Degree Programs

Curt Brungardt, Ph.D.
Omer G. Voss Endowed Professor
Department of Leadership Studies
Executive Director
Center for Civic Leadership
Fort Hays State University
Hays, KS 67601
cbrungar@fhsu.edu

Justin Greenleaf
Instructor
Department of Leadership Studies
Fort Hays State University
Hays, KS
jgreenleaf@fhsu.edu

Christie Brungardt
Instructor
Department of Leadership Studies
Fort Hays State University
Hays, KS
cjbrunga@fhsu.edu

Jill Arensdorf
Instructor
Department of Leadership Studies
Fort Hays State University
Hays, KS
jrarensdorf@fhsu.edu

Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative study was to compare and contrast the leadership major in identified programs from universities in the United States. This was done in an attempt to develop a foundation for the leadership discipline. Utilizing interviews, surveys, websites, and evaluation of school materials as data sources, an initial list of 70 schools was narrowed to 15 upon examination of their academic curricula. A thorough evaluation of these 15 leadership degree programs was then conducted. Noticeable differences included varied school sizes, host departments, and credit hour requirements. Other inconsistencies included the focus of the program, the major scholars evident within the curricula,

and the disparity between theory versus skill development. Recommendations include further study of other leadership programs across the nation, examination of leadership graduates in the workforce, and collaboration among leadership programs nationwide.

Introduction

It is well documented that over the last two decades there has been an explosion in the growth of student leadership programs on college campuses in the United States (Schwartz, Axtman, & Freeman, 1998). Now reaching nearly 1000 in number, these programs can be found in all areas of the academy. Some are co-curricular in nature and housed in student affairs and residential life programs while others are found in various academic departments. According to a recent study by Riggio, Ciulla, and Sorenson (2003), part of this growth can be found in academic courses, certificates, and concentrations. What is most interesting, however, is that a few selected colleges and universities have even developed full undergraduate degree programs in leadership.

This research is the first attempt to learn more about these unique schools and degree programs. It is our hope that this study can and will provide valuable information for leadership scholars, educators, and others who wish to explore the "leadership major." While this initial leadership degree analysis is limited in scope, the research team believes that the data does provide useful information for the field of leadership education.

Purpose and Research Themes

In most established academic disciplines, from art history to business management to sociology, for example, there are some agreed upon building blocks and standards by which nearly all universities and scholars adhere (Mangan, 2002). We ask the question "Is this true with the relatively new majors in leadership?" Do the program architects, curriculum developers, and the faculty of these leadership degree programs share common philosophies and approaches to leadership studies? The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a common framework or foundation to this new emerging discipline. And if so, what is it? For the most part a typical political science student would be exposed to roughly the same subject matter whether they attend university X or university Y. Would that also be the case for leadership studies? Have these educators agreed on the basic elements of an undergraduate leadership major?

The purpose of this study is to carefully evaluate the 15 colleges and universities identified as having leadership degree programs for their commonality or lack of them. This study looks for consistency and patterns of uniformity among program elements. It seeks to identify both the similarities, as well as the differences between the various programs. To accomplish this, the data is divided into four categories or research themes:

1. School Profile – university type, enrollment, host school/college.
2. Program Profile – major name, degree type, requirements, description.
3. Mission and Purpose – central theme, learning objectives, theory and application.
4. Curriculum – course type, sequence, pedagogy.

The first area evaluated was the school profile. This included the college or university type (public or private), size of the institution (undergraduate enrollment), and the host school and college of the major. This information provided general insight into the schools offering degrees in leadership. The second research theme examined was the program profile data. Here the research team reviewed more of the technical aspects of the leadership degree program. This included the name of the major, host department, student enrollments, degree type, description, and course delivery options. This material provided a much more detailed picture of the leadership degree program itself. Third, the study examined the mission and purpose of the 15 leadership degree programs. This research theme evaluated the schools in the study by analyzing their theoretical foundation and learning objectives. This included the central program theme and philosophy, scholar impact, learning objectives and theory and application orientation. This information provided a more in-depth look at the overall philosophy and purpose behind the curriculum. Finally, the research team examined the major elements of the leadership curriculum. Here the research team sought to gain a better understanding of how the schools went about accomplishing their mission and purpose. The curriculum profile included the course types, the sequence of courses and course pedagogy. This data allowed us to make critical judgments on specifics of the various programs.

It is our hope that this study can begin the process, or at least a discussion, on these important program and curriculum development issues. We believe that this discussion is paramount to the future success of leadership as an academic discipline.

Methodology

The method of inquiry in this research was primarily qualitative in nature. Multiple data sources were used which included interviews, surveys, internet searches, and evaluation of school materials. Although several different techniques were used to gather information, the assessment survey instrument remained consistent throughout the study. This instrument was designed by the research team to collect data in a manner which minimized bias and maintained consistency. The survey questions were grouped by the research themes to reflect the purpose of the research (Krathwohl, 2004).

Data Collection and Analysis

The research team collected the research data from the spring of 2004 through the fall of 2005. First, the research team began the process with the identification and evaluation of schools that publicize their offering of an undergraduate major in leadership. Through an exhaustive web-based search, conversations with leadership educators at professional conferences, and the resource book *Leadership Education: A Source Book of Courses and Programs* (Schwartz, Axtman, & Freeman, 1998), the search initially returned a list of over 70 schools who offer a leadership major.

In this stage of the research, three types of majors were identified (a) majors with the word "leadership" in the title, i.e., "organizational leadership" (b) majors without the word "leadership", i.e., "agricultural development" and (c) majors offered abroad. The research team chose to focus on the majors with the word "leadership" in the title for the purpose of this study. This narrowed the list of degree programs to 40.

The research team carefully compared curriculum requirements for each of the 40 degree programs. While many schools titled their major as leadership or organizational leadership, it was apparent that these schools were in fact renaming traditional business administration and management programs. If the major included only one, or in many cases, zero leadership based courses, they were also eliminated from the study. After a closer examination of the 40 degree programs using the title(s) of the major that included "leadership," as well as thorough evaluation of the curriculum, the research team narrowed this list of schools to 15 (see Table 1). However, there could be undergraduate leadership degree programs that were left out due to study limitations.

Table 1. Colleges and Universities

Bellevue University	Our Lady of the Lake University
Benedictine University	Peace College
Carroll College	Penn State University
Chapman University	Purdue University
Dominican University	Rockhurst University
Fort Hays State University	University of Richmond
Franklin University	Wright State University
Marietta College	

After narrowing the list, the research team then began collecting program material from the participating schools. In addition to the assessment survey discussed above, the researchers closely examined program materials using the research theme categories. Follow-up email conversations and phone interviews were used to clarify and confirm accuracy of the data. Once collected, data was grouped according to the established research themes. This information was then used in

the creation of a corresponding matrix to effectively display the data for analysis (see Tables 2-7).

Throughout this study, the research team participated in four different levels of analysis when making judgments about the data. Level one analysis consisted of summarizing the information provided by each school independent of other data in the matrix and forming conclusions accordingly. Level two analysis compared and analyzed information horizontally across the matrix within one particular school and produced conclusions based on all available information regarding that school. Level three analysis compared the schools on specific issues (course type, enrollment, etc.) through vertical analysis of the 15 different schools in the matrix. Finally, level four analysis grouped both the horizontal and vertical analysis data together to draw overall conclusions (Creswell, 1998).

Findings

School Profile

Table 2.
School Profile Matrix

College/University	State	Type of University	Undergrad Enrollment	Host College of the Major
Bellevue Univ.	Nebraska	Public	5,524	Arts & Sciences
Benedictine Univ.	Illinois	Private	2,000	Arts & Sciences
Carroll College	Wisconsin	Private	2,100	Professional Studies
Chapman Univ.	California	Private	4,500	Professional Studies
Dominican Univ.	Illinois	Private	2,700	Adult Learning
Fort Hays State Univ.	Kansas	Public	9,000	College of Business & Leadership
Franklin Univ.	Ohio	Private	9,600	School of Management & Leadership
Marietta College	Ohio	Private	1,300	McDonough Center for Leadership & Business
Our Lady of the Lake Univ.	Texas	Private	3,000	
Peace College	N. Carolina	Private	700	
Penn State Univ.	Pennyslvania	Public	40,000	Liberal Arts
Purdue Univ.	Indiana	Public	69,847 (All Campuses)	Technology

Rockhurst Univ.	Missouri	Private	2,500	Professional Studies
Univ. of Richmond	Virginia	Private	2,976	Jepson School of Leadership
Wright State Univ.	Ohio	Public	15,000	Education & Human Services

The findings presented are summaries of the data gathered through the collection procedures. Utilizing the four levels of analyses, the research team assessed, evaluated, and made judgments about the data. Categorized by the research themes, 22 different findings were identified.

1. While most leadership degree programs are found at small private schools, our research tells us that these leadership programs are not limited to a particular type or size of institution (large division one research universities – Purdue and Penn State; small regional public institutions – Bellevue, Fort Hays State, Wright State; and small private schools – Benedictine, Carroll, Chapman, Dominican, Franklin, Marietta, Our Lady of the Lake, Peace, Rockhurst, and Richmond).

2. Most degree programs are located in professional and adult studies programs (Carroll, Chapman, Dominican, and Rockhurst), followed by colleges of arts (Penn State, Bellevue, and Benedictine), and colleges of business and leadership (Fort Hays State, Franklin, and Marietta).

Leadership Program Profile

3. The majority of the schools name their major Organizational Leadership (10). Other names used include Leadership (Bellevue), International Leadership Studies (Marietta), Leadership Studies (Peace and Richmond), and Non-Profit Leadership Studies (Rockhurst).

4. Data showed there was very little consistency in which academic department housed the leadership major. For example, Benedictine's program is in the psychology and sociology department, while at Wright State, the department of education and human services hosts the leadership degree.

5. The credit hour requirements range greatly between the various degree programs (30 credit hours to 71 credit hours).

6. All programs in the study were created between 1993 and 2003. As noted earlier, the leadership major is new to the landscape of the academy.

7. Careers of graduating students from these programs varied greatly. The data showed occupations in government, social service, religion, business, and industry.

Table 3
Program Profile Matrix

University	# of FTE Faculty	Name of Major	Host Department	Type of Degree	Credit & Additional Requirements	Delivery Options	# of Majors/ Year Started	Typical Students & Career Options	Major Description
Bellevue Univ.	5-Part Time	Leadership		Bachelor of Arts	36 + Electives Must have Associates Degree and 3 years work experience	Both, however primarily degree completion cohort	50/1995	Non-Trad Distance	To give students the theoretical & practical preparation they need to assume positions of leadership.
Benedictine Univ.	1	Org. Leadership	Psychology & Sociology	Bachelor of Arts	39 Open	Adult Learners- Nights & Weekend		Adult	Designed for adults interested in the behavioral perspectives of organizations.
Carroll College	1	Org. Leadership	Business Admin. & Economics	Bachelor of Science	64 Open		10/2001	Traditional On-Campus Student	Program incorporates courses in leadership, business, administration, & politics.
Chapman Univ.	7	Org. Leadership	Leadership & Management	Bachelor of Arts	54 Credits Open Admission	Both	560/1995	Non-Trad distance completion students	Program provides education for & about leadership… emphasizing life & work.
Dominican Univ.	2-Part Time	Org. Leadership	Institute for Adult Learning	Bachelor of Science	42 + Electives Open			Adult Learner	Program designed for leaders who wish to synthesize leading edge concepts with practical experiences.
Fort Hays State Univ.	5 + Part Time	Org. Leadership	Leadership Studies	Bachelor of Arts	33 + Cognates	Both	235/2000	Both trad. On Campus &	Focuses on the study of

				or Science				Adult Distance	leadership in the context of the modern organization.
Franklin Univ.	5	Org. Leadership	School of Management & Leadership	Bachelor of Science	36	Both	80/1995	Trad On Campus	Turning business managers into leaders.
Marietta College	1 + 11 Adjunct	International Leadership Studies	McDonough Center for Business & Leadership	Bachelor of Arts		On Campus	2001	Trad On Campus	The ILS Major offers students an opportunity to study global leadership issues from an interdisciplinary perspective.
Our Lady of the Lake Univ.	6	Org. Leadership	Leadership Studies & Human Sciences	Bachelor of Science	71 Open	Both	90/2002	Industry, Government, Social Service background	Preparing individuals to serve as catalysts for community development & improvement.
Peace College	2	Leadership Studies	Org. Studies	Bachelor of Arts	30/Open Co-Major Requirement	On Campus	45/2001	Traditional on campus	Interdisciplinary in nature & focus on developing leadership knowledge, skill, & attitudes.
Penn State Univ.	10	Org. Leadership	None/ Interdisciplinary	Bachelor of Science	69/Restricted, must meet admission guidelines for students	Both	542/2003	Non-trad distance. Most working full time with business or service background	The program addresses 21st century issues & leadership from different angles.
Purdue Univ.	16 (Multiple Campus)	Org. Leadership & Supervision	Org. Leadership & Supervision	Bachelor of Arts	42/Open	Both	450/1991	Trad on campus Supervision, HRM, Gov., etc.	Emphasis on real world work concepts & principles of leadership over short term supervisory approach.

Rockhurst Univ.	Primarily Adjuncts	Nonprofit Leadership Studies		Bachelor of Prof. Studies	45	On Campus	38	Non-Profit Organizations	Prepares students to serve as leaders of non-profit organizations (social service agencies, hospitals, churches, etc.).
Univ. of Richmond	10	Leadership Studies		Bachelor of Arts	39/Restricted-apply fall semester of sophomore year. Chosen by a number of criteria	On Campus	111/1992	Trad on campus Law, government, business, health care	Critical and ethical leaders who pursue change in organizations & communities.
Wright State Univ.	10	Org. Leadership	College of Education & Human Services	Bachelor of Science	48/Restricted-For students who have completed a 2 year degree	Both (some virtual)	450/2001	Youth leadership, college recruiter, special events manager, outreach director	Degree completion in a management focus, multidisciplinary & application oriented.

Mission and Purpose

8. The overwhelming majority of schools describe their leadership major as having a focus on both theory and application.

9. Benedictine, Franklin, Penn State, Purdue, and Wright State primarily focus on a civic mission, whereas, Chapman, Dominican, Rockhurst, and Richmond focus on a more organizational theme. Peace, Fort Hays State, Our Lady of the Lake and Carroll describe their missions as including both civic and organizational objectives.

10. Participating schools shared little commonality among major scholars who impacted the development of their programs.

11. While most programs define and describe leadership as a process of change, there is a stark difference in how that change should be brought about. Some programs focus on the collective (Rockhurst, Peace, Our Lady of the Lake, and Franklin) while others focus on an individual or leader (Richmond, Wright State, and Purdue).

12. Several universities in the study focused their learning objectives on cognitive theories (Peace, Richmond, Bellevue, and Benedictine) while others focused on the development of skills and behaviors (Purdue, Rockhurst, Our Lady of the Lake, and Wright State).

13. Only five schools reported using service-learning as a pedagogy (Fort Hays State, Marietta, Peace, Rockhurst, and Richmond).

Table 5.
Mission and Purpose Matrix

University	Theory or Application	Central Theme	Major Scholars	Learning Objectives
Bellevue Univ.	Both	Prepare students for leadership roles in profit & nonprofit organizations		Lead creative & constructive lives & encourage others to do the same
Benedictine Univ.	Both	Behavioral perspectives in organizations & management. (Social science base)		Deeper understanding of the cultural & personal dynamics in organizations
Carroll College	Application	Three tracks- business, nonprofit, & government		Create new generation of leaders characterized by passion, integrity, & competency

Chapman Univ.	Both	Interdisciplinary & anchored in humanities, social sciences, & communication	Dr. Mark Meyer (founder) & Greenleaf	Develop interpersonal, problem solving, empowering, & critical analysis skills
Dominican Univ.	Both	Incorporates contemporary & holistic courses…focusing on people skills & preparing leaders for global environment		
Fort Hays State Univ.	Both	Social change & organizational development	Joseph Rost & Curt Brungardt	Understanding, competencies, & commitment in leadership
Franklin Univ.	Both	Grasp the newest methods for rapidly changing business (Requires business core)	Advisory board built curriculum	Communicating a vision, developing leader/follower relationships, & supporting the workforce
Marietta College	Both	Practicing leadership in the liberal arts context		Recognize multiple perspectives in problem solving through teamwork & shared vision
Our Lady of the Lake Univ.	Both	Develop successful leaders in business, gov, edu, and non-profit…engage leadership & individual commitment to service		Skills necessary for social change, responsibility, & community development
Peace College	Both	Develop leadership capacity & assume leadership positions		Students will examine philosophy, history, & ethical dynamics to be effective leaders in both workplace & community
Penn State Univ.	Both	Preparing students for leadership in the modern workforce	Ron Filippelli – Associate Dean of Liberal Arts	

Purdue Univ.		Create students who are prepared for leadership in business, industry, & service agencies		Instilling knowledge, skills, & behaviors required of highly effective leaders
Rockhurst Univ.	Both	Preparing leaders in the service of others		Understanding of non-profit sector through human needs, diversity, community service, & skill development
Univ. of Richmond	Both	Multidisciplinary & rooted in the liberal arts	James McGregor Burns	Create students who understand the moral responsibilities of leadership & are prepared for leadership in service to society
Wright State Univ.	Application	Provide students with broad background to prepare for supervisory & management careers	Kotter, Posner & Kouzes, Tichy	Provide students with knowledge, skills, & values necessary for advancement in careers

Curriculum

Analysis of the curriculum was based on the type of courses, sequence, and the volume of the subject matter. The research team defined and divided courses into six categories which emerged from the data. They include (a) *theories/history* – examination of the leadership theories and the historical foundation; (b) *skills/behaviors* – courses that focus on a particular leadership skill or set of skills (conflict management, strategic planning, decision making, etc.); (c) *context* – courses that study leadership in a particular "context" (organization, business, community, non-profit, etc.); (d) *issue* – courses that directly relate to a specific issue (ethics, gender, law, etc.); (e) *practicum* – usually independent courses like internships that include hands-on experience in leadership; and (f) *support courses* – usually offered by outside departments that support the leadership curriculum.

14. Twelve of the 15 schools offer at least one foundations course. Usually this course is early in the program. Chapman, Franklin, and Marietta offer three courses in the theories and history area. There are fewer courses under this section than the other course types.

15. Fourteen of the 15 programs offer courses in skill development. Thirteen of the 15 offer two or more courses in this area. Richmond, Penn State, Purdue, and Franklin offer at least four courses. The most popular skills courses include general leadership skills, change making, communication, critical inquiry,

motivation, and conflict management. Other courses include decision making, team processing, persuasion, planning, negotiations, professional skills, and policy making.

16. All programs have at least one context course. For most programs this is the largest area in the curriculum. Most programs have at least three or four courses under this heading. The most popular courses included organizational behavior and leadership, groups/teams, society/community, international perspective, business, and social change/movements. Other courses included political, personal, non-profit, and cultural/multicultural courses. Additionally, 13 programs have a course in organizational behavior.

17. There were a total of 42 issue courses in the 15 programs. Many of these courses served as major electives in their respective programs. The most popular included ethics, gender issues, diversity, law and policy, and service and volunteerism. Other courses included supervision, public policy, activism, human resources, and leadership development and training.

18. Most programs include an internship, practicum, or a senior project as part of their curriculum. Usually offered at the senior level, this provides students with real life experiences in leadership. Eleven of the 15 programs have at least one course in this area, and six have at least two or more courses.

19. Most programs also include supporting courses as either core, major electives, or as cognates. These are courses that are usually offered from outside the host department. Thirteen of the 15 programs include supporting courses and seven include two or more. Most of these supporting courses are traditional business, social research methods, statistics, or social psychology. Other courses include public speaking, psychology, technology, and public management.

20. While three host departments teach the overwhelming majority of coursework (Bellevue, Purdue, and Richmond), most programs use coursework from other departments and disciplines to build their curriculum.

21. The research team found that most programs have an even balance between the different types of courses in their program. While curriculum balance may or may not be a goal, most programs do have an even mixture of the different course types.

22. Finally, the research team found that most programs follow a similar course sequence pattern. Usually foundation courses were first, followed by skill, context, and issue courses and generally finished with independent study practicum.

Table 6.
Curriculum Matrix

University	Theory/History	Skills/Behaviors	Context	Issues
Bellevue Univ.	*Principles	*Leadership Skills *Managing Change *Communication	*Case Studies *Global *Business	*Emotional Intelligence *Ethics
Benedictine Univ.			*Org. Behavior *Org. Analysis *International Business *Business Anthropology *Group Process	*Social & Cultural Change
Carroll College	*Leadership Theory and Practice	*Leading Change	*Small Business *Org. Behavior *Non profit Org. (4)	*Ethics *Research and Development *Critical Issues *Laws
Chapman Univ.	*Intro *History and Theories	*Communication *Critical Inquiry	*Team Development *Understanding Organizations *Multicultural Organizations	*Service Theme *Ethics *Great Leaders *Topics
Dominican Univ.	*The Art of Leadership	*Negotiations *Org. Communication	*Org. Behavior	*Law and Ethics *Org. Promotion
Fort Hays State Univ.	*Concepts	*Behaviors *Supervisory Leadership	*Team Dynamics *Org. Leadership *Personal Development	*Ethics *Women and Leadership
Franklin Univ.	*Theory *Philosophies for Leading	*Strategies for Motivation *Planning *Communication *Negotiation	*Org. Behavior *Small Group/Teams *Self Development	*Special Topics *Business Ethics *Diversity
Marietta College	*Foundations *American Leadership *Theories and Models	*Behavior *Dialogues (styles)	*Org. Leadership *Global Context	*Great Leaders of Latin America *Business Ethics *Science Public Policy *Environmental Activism

Our Lady of the Lake Univ.	*Foundations *History & Theories	*Decision Process *Strategies & Process	*Leadership in Organizations & Society *Community & Political Context *Social Change *Rural & Urban Communities	*Gender Issues *Multi-culturalism *Topics
Peace College	*Foundations	*Leadership Lab *Group Process Lab	*Context of Leadership *Group Process *Social Change *Political Leadership	*Special Topics *Ethics *Leadership Development
Penn State Univ.		*Critical Thinking *Motivation & Work Satisfaction *Speech Communication *Persuasion	*Industry Psychology *Industrial Revolution *Org. Communication *Small Groups *Work & Occupations	*Race & Gender *Ethics *Law & Policy
Purdue Univ.	*Principles *Leadership Philosophy	*Applied Leadership *Meeting Management *Org. Change *Conflict Management	*Human Behavior in Organizations *Teams *Global Environment *Work & Occupation	*HR Issues *Integrity *Quality *Gender/ Development
Rockhurst Univ.		*Admin. of Non-Profit Organizations *Program Planning	*Intro to Non-profit Organizations	*Community Engagement *Volunteer Management

Univ. of Richmond	*Foundations *History & Theories	*Critical Thinking *Motivation *Conflict Resolution *Leading Change *Analysis & Making Policy	*Service to Society *Groups *Leadership in Organizations *Political Context *Social Movements *International Conflict *Community & Volunteer *Cultural & Historical Context	*Ethics
Wright State Univ.	*Leadership Studies	*Professional Skills *Managing Conflict	*Org. Behavior *Urban Leadership *Org. Structure	*HR *Diversity Workforce *Training *Ethics

Table 7.
Additional Curriculum Matrix

University	Internships	Support	General Comments
Bellevue Univ.	*Capstone Project	*Social Psychology	*All come from Leadership Dept.
Benedictine Univ.		*Org. Research *Management *HR Management *Production & Operation Management *Stats *Social Psychology	*Come from 4 departments - Psychology - Management - Sociology - International *Business
Carroll College	*Internships	*HR Management *Marketing *Management *Stats *Accounting *Economics *Financial Management	*Comes from the Leadership Dept., Business Dept., and Politics Dept.
Chapman Univ.	*Laboratory *Individual Study	*Social Research	

Dominican Univ.		*Accounting *Econ I *Econ II *HR *Marketing *Org. Management *Managing Technology	
Fort Hays State Univ.	*Fieldwork *Internship	*Management *Stats *Business Cognates	*Electives from other Departments
Franklin Univ.	*Capstone	*Psychology	*Also needs Business Core *Electives from other Departments
Marietta College	*Practicum I *Practicum II *Practicum III		
Our Lady of the Lake Univ.		*A Selection of Business Courses *Public Speaking *Selection of Group & Org. Courses *Research & Stats Courses	*Elective, Core, & Cognates from other Departments *71 hours
Peace College	*Context Lab *Self in Community *Capstone/Personal Portfolio *Internship		*Electives from other Departments
Penn State Univ.		*Research Methods *Stats *Information Technology *Economics	*Courses from many Departments
Purdue Univ.	*Experiential	*Project Management	*One Department
Rockhurst Univ.	*Practicum *Professional Field Experience	*Marketing *Finance	
Univ. of Richmond	*Internships *Senior Seminar *Senior Project I & II	*Research Methods	*One Department
Wright State Univ.	*Leadership in Practice	*History of Management *Research in Management *Public Management	

Summary of Findings

In many ways this study has provided the research team with more questions than answers. The research, while limited in scope, does provide the discipline of leadership with its first examination of the leadership major. Do these leadership degree programs share a common framework? Are there patterns of uniformity and consistency? The answer to these questions and the results of our research are definitely mixed at best. While these pioneer programs have differences in mission, philosophy, and learning objectives, it is surprising the similarities found in the various curricula.

This study recognized six notable differences in the research themes. First, the schools with leadership majors are not limited to a particular type or size of institution. Second, there is little consistency on the host division or academic department of the leadership major. Third, the total number of credit hours for the major varied greatly. Fourth, there was a stark difference between the degree programs that focused on a civic mission versus those who promote an organizational leadership objective. Next, we found little evidence that the architects of these programs were impacted by the same scholars in the field. Finally, there is also a difference between the leadership major curricula that focus on the theoretical and those that focus more on skill development.

Despite these contradictions the various leadership majors also have some similarities. Most of the commonality is found in the curriculum area research theme. For example, all programs talk about the importance of balancing both theory and practical applications of leadership. Next, most degrees include coursework in theories, skills, context, issues, practicum, and other support areas. Skills and behavior courses focus mostly on general skills, change making, communication, and conflict management. Context courses most often include organizational behavior and team/group dynamics type courses, while the most popular issue courses focus on ethics, gender, diversity, and service. Finally, the research team found that most programs had a balance between these courses and followed a logical sequence.

Conclusion: A Call to Action

When examining this research, we must be cautious in that the material presented here only scratches the surface of a complex issue. It is our belief that this study does, however, provide a good beginning for understanding the similarities and differences between the various leadership majors. Most importantly, this study is a good starting point for collaboration and further research. This collaboration is critical if the leadership major is to ever become accepted as an academic discipline in higher education.

The research team suggests further exploration. More assessment data should be obtained from the 15 schools identified in this study. Further examination of leadership graduates in the workforce would provide needed evidence to strengthen the leadership major. In addition, further research into all other

categories of leadership programming not covered in this study may provide additional credibility. Combined, these studies could contribute to enhanced assessment instruments to be used across varied leadership contexts.

We recognize that it will take some time to construct the building blocks of a standardized leadership major. Current and future program architects will need to share information and seek opportunities for open discussion on these critical issues (Mangan, 2002). We encourage others to move beyond this study in the hopes of advancing this new, emerging academic major.

In closing, we as leadership educators must become much more intentional in our collaboration. We are so busy being “lone rangers” in the field that we fail to practice what we preach. We, like so many others in organizational life, talk the talk of collaboration, but fail to walk it. Until we work together and agree on common ground in teaching students historical, theoretical, and practical foundations and applications of leadership, we will struggle to gain credibility or make the case for leadership as a credible major. Furthermore, we are doing leadership graduates a disservice by not working together to create a cohesive framework within which to unify our efforts.

References

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

Brungardt, C., & Crawford, C. B. (1996). A comprehensive approach to assessing leadership students and programs: Preliminary findings. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3,* 37-48.

Brungardt, C. L., Gould, L. V., Moore, R., & Potts, J. (1997). The emergence of leadership studies: Linking the traditional outcomes of liberal education with leadership development. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 4,* 53-67.

Cavenaugh, T. D. (1997). Establishing leadership studies in the liberal arts curriculum through conflict resolution education. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 4,* 132-139.

Creswell, J. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly, 11,* 581-613.

Howe, W. (1997). Leadership education: A look across the courses. In F. Freeman, et al. (Eds.), *Leadership education: A source book, (Sixth edition, Vol. 2,* (p. 286) Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

Krathwohl, D. R. (2004). *Methods of educational and social science research (2nd ed.).* Lancy: Waveland Press.

Mangan, K. S. (2002, May 31). Leading the way in leadership education: The unending quest of the discipline's founding father. *Chronicle of Higher Education, A10-A12.*

Perruci, G. (1999). Leadership studies programs in the context of globalization. *Selected Proceedings of the International Leadership Association College Park: The James MacGregor Burns Academy of Leadership, University of Maryland,* 55-62.

Riggio, R. E., Ciulla, J., & Sorenson, G. (2003). Leadership education at the undergraduate level: A liberal arts approach to leadership development. In S.E. Murphy & R.E. Riggio (Eds.). *The future of leadership development.* (pp. 223-236). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rost, J. C., & Barker, R. A. (2000). Leadership education in colleges: Toward a 21st century paradigm. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 7,* 3-12.

Schwartz, M. K., Axtman, K. M., & Freeman, R. H. (Eds.). (1998). *Leadership education: A source book of courses and programs (7th ed.).* Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

Schwartz, M. K., & Gimbel, K. G. (2000). *Leadership resources (8th ed.).* Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

Sorenson, G. (2000). An intellectual history of leadership studies: The role of James MacGregor Burns. *Presented at a meeting of the American Political Science Association, Washington, D.C.*

Sorenson, G., & Howe, W. (2001). As strange a maze as e'er men trod: A history of leadership studies. *Presented at a meeting of the International Leadership Association, Miami, FL.*

Troyer, M. (1997). *The growth of leadership development programs in higher education.* Unpublished paper. University of Kentucky.

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

Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (1999b). Leadership in the making: A comprehensive examination of the impact of leadership development programs on students. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 6,* 50-66.

Biography

Dr. Curt Brungardt is currently the Executive Director of the Center for Civic Leadership and the Voss Distinguished Professor of Leadership Studies at Fort Hays State University. He has published several books and numerous articles in both the fields of leadership studies and leadership education.

Justin Greenleaf is the e-Leadership.net Coordinator for the Leadership Studies Department at Fort Hays State University. He serves as an instructor, advisor to virtual leadership students, and as an administrator of on-line classrooms. He has presented at several conferences concerning leadership and distance education.

Christie Brungardt is an instructor in the Department of Leadership Studies at Fort Hays State University. She is currently completing a Ph.D. from Kansas State University in Curriculum and Instruction. Her current fields of research include leadership studies, service-learning, and the scholarship of engagement.

Jill Arensdorf is an instructor in the Department of Leadership Studies at Fort Hays State University, where she teaches courses in leadership theory and

leadership behaviors. She has published several articles in the field of service-learning. Jill is currently pursuing a Ph.D. at Kansas State University.

Understanding the Perceptions of Service Learning with Teen Leaders

Nicole S. Webster
Assistant Professor
Department of Agricultural and Extension Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
814-863-2695
nsw10@psu.edu

Jacklyn A. Bruce
Assistant Professor
Department of Agricultural and Extension Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
814-863-1789
jab743@psu.edu

Tracy S. Hoover
Associate Professor
Department of Agricultural and Extension Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
814-865-1688
tsh102@psu.edu

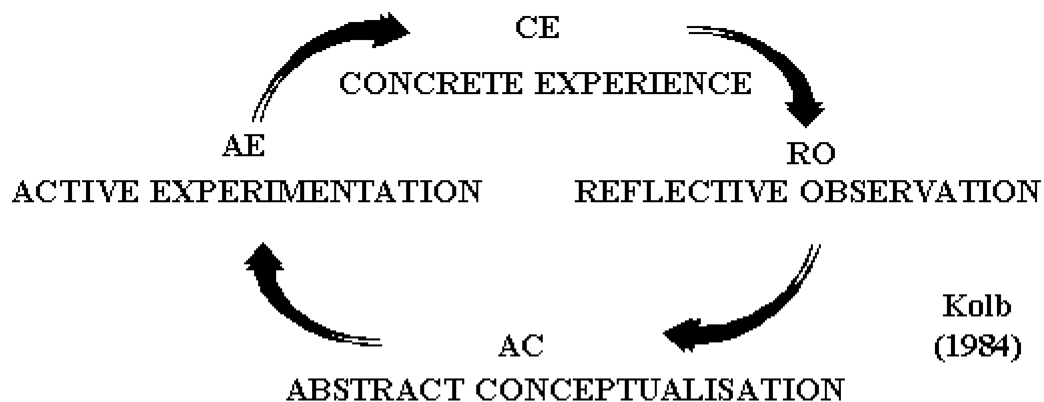
Abstract

This qualitative study was conducted to answer two questions concerning service learning in youth populations: Do teens understand their roles in the process of service learning? How do teens perceive service opportunities within their communities or organizations? The intent was to investigate these issues in order to provide depth to the research on youth voice and perceptions in service learning activities. Focus groups were conducted with teens involved in various organizations. Findings included that teens were able to articulate a strong definition of service learning as well as identify service activities. Most felt they had a voice in planning and implementation and saw adults as key to the evaluation of projects. Some teens felt, however, that adults often have too great a voice in the planning stages. Recommendations include professional development for adults on working with teens and evaluating current programs to make certain that youth voice is present.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Over the past decade, many individuals who work with youth have seen an increase in the importance of engagement among young people. The cornerstone of this engagement has been the implementation of service learning. The experiential nature of service learning is centered on the meaningful action and reflection of participants. According to Eyler and Giles (1989), "service-learning is a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students work with others through a process of applying what they are learning to community problems and, at the same time, reflecting upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves" (p.18). Participants are engaged in service activities which integrate curriculum or content and are performed in the community. After the experience, the participants engage in a structured reflection exercise that allows the participants to examine their role within the activity and explore their feelings, attitudes, and perceptions. Reflection is not just critical to the participants, but to the entire service learning experience and is the piece that distinguishes it from other types of service experiences. According to Kolb's (1976) model, this is a continuous cycle of thinking, acting, and reflecting is the basis for experiential learning within service learning (see Figure 1).

Figure 1
Kolb's experiential model



The emphasis of service learning is on both the learner and the recipient of the activity. Service learning experiences build upon existing knowledge of community members and the young person. The service learning pedagogy develops linkages between theory and service and connects the participant with the community in a structured and direct manner (Hoover & Webster, 2004). Through these experiences participants develop an understanding of how to specifically help communities and enhance their own theoretical learning. Service learning experiences connect youth with greater issues in contemporary society and help develop the social and technical skills needed to succeed as a

citizen. This engagement of youth creates a mutual benefit for the participant, the community, and the organization (Petkus, 2000).

Students who engage in service learning activities have been reported to have significant gains in academic, social, and personal growth. Service learning purports that participants gain social skills, participate in less risky behaviors, show an increase in academic achievement, have a greater sense of civic engagement and political affiliation, gain greater respect for peers and teachers, and develop a deeper understanding of self (Billig, 2000; Conrad & Hedin, 1991; Melchoir 1999; Yates & Youniss, 1996). In addition to these attributes, service learning has also been known to impact community development. Community members work with youth which help to shed a more positive light on the youth participant. Other positive impacts of service learning include greater empathy for others, increased cognitive complexity, a realistic perception of careers, and a more developed sense of self-esteem and self-efficacy (Furco, 2002; Shaffer, 1993). The value of service learning is multi-faceted with learning and development impacting both the learner and the beneficiary.

For the most part youth organizations were formed to provide young people with opportunities for leadership and personal growth, career exploration, affiliation with others who share similar interests and beliefs, have a place to belong, and to receive recognition for individual and group accomplishments. Whether youth organizations were formed for vocational, avocational, academic, athletic, or faith based reasons, most have a strong connection and reliance on committed individuals, organizations, and communities. One of the most common, traditional and historical components or norms found in youth organizations is service to others. Many youth organizations engage their members in some aspect of service. For example, the National 4-H organization has always supported and encouraged service to others and the community. Hairston (2004) noted that the emphasis on community service has expanded to include a service learning component. Safrit and Auck (2003) found a high level of service to community in Ohio 4-H members. They noted that 98% of the 4-H members (4th – 12th grade) in their 1999 study reported helping individuals other than family (without pay) or their neighborhood or community in the last 12 months (Safrit & Auck, 2004). These responses were based on types of service the youth engaged in through school, out of school group(s), as an individual, or through 4-H.

To date, various youth organizations and schools have placed a commitment on service activities within the scope of their teaching and learning agendas. Research has shown that these have been successful in the development of young people's academic, social, and character skills (Eyler & Giles, 1996; Billig, 2000). Other research highlights that service learning has been beneficial to the community and stakeholders involved in the service activities (Berkas, 1997; Melchior, 1999). Students have also expressed the importance of participation within service activities to their personal and social development (Leming, 1998; Scales & Blyth, 1997; Stephens 1995). While the literature points to the success

and benefits of service learning, there are some concerns within the field as it relates to leadership and service learning activities.

Teen Leadership and Service Learning

The engagement of youth leaders is critical to the effectiveness of service learning activities. Teen leaders are an essential voice because they provide the "input ..in developing and implementing projects, plans and policies to guide service-learning efforts" (Justinianno, Scherer, Johnson, & Lewis, 2001, p.13). However, in many service learning activities, youth leadership is stifled due to misconceptions adults have about youth voice and input. Without the voice of youth, service learning projects fail in their efforts to be a truly engaging and effective programs. Youth leaders who are involved in service learning experiences are able to gain valuable leadership skills such as how to work in diverse teams and groups, public speaking, expression of ideas, critical thinking, and understanding the process of being a vested member in the decision making process. Their leadership in a service learning program not only impacts their individual development, but also connects them to the organization and the community. Youth leadership within service learning programs creates an environment for developing effective decision making skills, negotiation, networking, greater communication, and a format to develop and use leadership skills (Connell, 1998; Scales & Leffert, 1999). Building youth leaders and their voice through service learning programs creates a learning situation that enhances the development of young people and encourages a true partnership of work and engagement between all individuals.

Statement of the Problem

Given the rising number of youth organizations that are requiring young people to complete community service or service learning activities, it is imperative that educators begin to know if these programs are facilitating the process of learning and development. Many youth organizations report that youth are becoming youth leaders and developing skills and character necessary for good citizenship and leadership. While this may be true in some instances, is it consistent in most youth organizations? Literature supports the notion that there are various states of service learning being conducted. Because a template does not exist for the implementation of service learning activities, it is difficult to measure how individuals (youth and adults) perceive service learning within youth organizations. This calls two points to question: (a) Do youth understand their role in the process of service learning? and (b) How do youth perceive service opportunities within their communities and organizations? This qualitative study was conducted to collect preliminary information on these questions. The intent was to investigate these issues in order to provide depth to the research on youth voice and perceptions in service learning activities in youth organizations.

Procedures

The researchers used purposive sampling, a technique intentionally seeking out participants because of certain qualities, to find participants who were willing to discuss their experiences participating in service learning projects while members of youth organizations. This study focused on seven teens who served as state officers in a youth organization. The participants ranged in age from 17 to 20, had all been involved in the organization for at least eight years, and had participated in service learning or community service activities in the organization as well as in their respective high schools. The targeted individuals were identified because of their participation and leadership positions in an organization that engages in service learning activities throughout the academic year. Within naturalistic inquiry there is no concrete rule for sample size. Patton (1990) suggests that sampling size adequacy is subject to peer review.

When a group of people is purposely brought together and asked the same questions at the same time in order to collect data and observe the groups' interactions it is called a focus group. Focus groups are used to acquaint a researcher with a particular concept, to help group members remember events by group conversation, or to triangulate other findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In the case of this study, two focus groups were scheduled and conducted and participation in these groups was voluntary. The focus groups took approximately one hour to complete. During this time participants were asked questions on their demographic background and their understanding of service learning activities using a semi-structured research protocol. The focus group was audiotaped and transcribed in order to serve as the primary data source. Secondary data consisted of field notes and supportive materials from the service learning literature.

Content analysis was used to interpret the data. Typed transcripts were compared with the audiotapes for accuracy. NUDIST Nvivo 2.0 was used to analyze the data. Initial coding of the transcripts was done by the principal investigator and a colleague. The two met to discuss coding and to delimit categories. Following the development of the categories, data reduction occurred resulting in themes and sub-themes. The analysis was reviewed by a third colleague in the same department.

In this study, the researchers established credibility through triangulation, peer debriefing, and reflexive journaling. The researchers used thick description in the reporting of respondents' thoughts and ideas relative to the research questions and purposive sampling to establish transferability. Peer debriefing meetings occurred throughout the study. An audit trail and journaling were used to establish dependability and confirmability. Using the above mentioned techniques as a part of the methodology of the study establishes trustworthiness of the data.

Results

Youth organizations across the United States of America have implemented the concept of service learning to enhance the learning and development of young people. As adults and youth participate in these activities, they learn a wealth of knowledge about themselves and others. While is it well documented what they learn, there is scant information on how young people perceive their role and voice within service learning projects within their communities. The following discussion highlights the perceptions of respondents regarding their role within service activities, the involvement of adults in relation to young people in service activities, and their perception of service learning.

Defining Service Learning

In order to gain a greater understanding of young adults' perceptions of their roles within service learning activities, it was essential to understand the concept of what service learning was and how it was defined by teens. The respondents were able to articulate some of the key points essential to effective service learning programs such as working with participants or community members, educating everyone involved, and learning outside the classroom. Service learning was defined as "a project in which you plan to help others and makes you feel better as a person because you help others" and "a project with an objective – [a] project with the intention of helping other people glean some sort of understanding- something you didn't learn before." All the respondents were able to articulate that service learning is something that you do for the greater good. It is not a self-gratifying act like community service activities which tend to solely focus on the recipient. Participants regarded service learning as a method of learning and teaching with the greatest intent to help, educate, and support other people.

Current Involvement in Service Learning Activities

Participants responded to the question, "What types of service learning activities have you helped to coordinate/plan in your organization(s)?

Respondents were able to identify their idea of several types of service learning activities they were currently involved in or had been a part of in the past years. They identified these activities as annual events that were incorporated into the standard mode of "service" activities done within their organizations. Examples of the service activities identified are found in Table 1. All respondents identified these as annual events that were done throughout the year either in conjunction with school clubs or within afterschool programs such as 4-H. A few of the young adults described activities which focused on collaborating with other community partners or organizations. For example, a local church was the site for an after school club service learning program. Students worked with the clergy and church members to decide on the specific needs and the timeline for the service event. Other projects were conducted with local hospitals, community organizations, and

other school clubs. Although the projects were conducted in various settings, they all involved youth and community members.

Leadership Roles in Service Learning Activities Teen Driven Versus Adult Driven

Participants responded to the question, “Are roles assigned by the leaders or do you volunteer for assignments?

All of the respondents felt that their roles in the planning of service learning activities within their organizations were voluntary. They described their involvement as student leaders who organize, plan, and implement the service learning activities or programs. One clear example of this was a respondent who described her experience in a school based program, stating, “At the college level, advisors don’t do a whole lot of work for the club. Students step forward and organize events and make sure that all the ducks are in a row. Advisors come out for support and attend, but don’t do much of the work.”

The concept of teen driven versus adult driven involvement began to emerge as a theme. Their comments supported the idea that young adults have the responsibility to be leaders “who step forward and volunteer.” Respondents began to understand that their role as responsible young adults was not only to volunteer, but to be the voice to drive activities. One respondent discussed her involvement in the planning of a program where teens drove the content and theme of the program, stating, “Teen camp [leadership is equal] – teens have the choice (teens decide theme) decide what event will be and advisors tell us if that will work-senior counselors decide pretty much everything.”

Youth Voice

Although some teens felt they had a voice to make decisions, there were those who did not agree that they had a voice in their organization. One respondent gave an account of her experience in working with adults on planning a service program, stating, “Our adults take over a lot. It is disgusting. At the teen leader planning retreat last year, people wrote letters at how involved our adults are and how they didn’t like it.”

This respondent expressed that adults had been involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of practically all parts of the service programs in their organization. There was the perception that the adults as taking over the ideas of youth and not allowing the young adults to have a voice in any major decisions. It was believed that the adults gave them limited amounts of power and limited access to information in order to make decisions. A feeling existed that youth and young adults do not have a voice. This was supported by a comment from one respondent who described a personal understanding of youth voice within the planning and implementation of service programs, stating, “In one

county the adults let us run everything until they realize that there is a problem. Counselors pretty much run everything. Advisors or adults in charge will step forward if they see we need it or if we need help they help us, give input if we need it, help if we need it, if there is something wrong they help us."

While some of the respondents felt they had a voice, there was a strong feeling that they did not have the ability to carry out their plans because service activities were "planned before we got there" or the adults "didn't listen to anybody." Although the respondents identified the presence and voice of adults as a limiting factor, they still felt they had an influence on the actions within the organization. For example two participants commented on how their voices are carried out through actions, stating, "I would say that, advisors sit down and listen, don't say this is my idea and we have to go with this one, everyone is all equal- and we discuss what will work best and go from there." and "We plan all of our activities at the beginning of the year, but it is with limited help from our advisor. She makes suggestions, but we do all the work- we make phone calls, plan, and do the service on the day of the activity. We like it like that because we feel like we are the ones who are actually making the difference."

They even expressed that after the service learning project is over they had the ability to act as evaluators of their service learning programs. Respondents emphasized their role as individuals who evaluate how the program went and to see what the participants thought of it and to make improvements for the following year. They played an active role in summarizing the data and discussing how to make changes. Although they had expressed the role of adults as a hindrance in other parts of the service learning program, they positively acknowledged the role of adults during this process. "They give a lot of input at that point about improvements that can be made. We are all equal and everyone listens." The young adults realized the importance of the adult voice during this process despite their interpretation of adult involvement in other parts of the service learning process.

Table 1.
Service Activities Identified by Respondents

Service Activity	Description
Relay for Life	
Tales for Tots	Collect books for youth throughout the state or county
Camps	Plan overnight weekend at a campground for youth ages 8 to 13
Teen Retreat	Plan the activities for the overnight weekend
Santa's Workshop	Teens make toys/decorations and wrap gifts with disadvantaged kids in neighborhood
Learning Days	Assist with fun learning activities at the county fair
Food Drives	Volunteer time to collect food for various holidays/events throughout the year
Special Olympics	Assist as volunteers for the sports activity for disabled individuals
Nursing Home Visit	Organize activities and games with elderly patients at nursing homes (make crafts for nursing home patients)
Bingo	Play games with elderly at the Veterans hospital

Summary and Conclusions

Several key issues arose from this study as it relates to youth leadership, role identification within an organization, and level of involvement in decision making in service learning projects. Teens should be valuable members of the planning, implementation, and evaluation of projects. They should be encouraged by adults to provide a valuable voice throughout the entire process. The role of the adult should be balanced to complement the input given by teen participants in order to ensure a reciprocal process and exchange of ideas and dialogue. The findings of this study mirror and underscore the value of involving youth in the decision making process. Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, and Calvert (2000) reported positive and synergistic outcomes of youth and adult contributions when involved in organizational decision making. Recommendations for youth governance and positive youth-adult partnerships include a high level of commitment and practice at the institutional level (Zeldin, et al., 2000). Additionally, adult leaders of youth organizations may need information on adolescent development and how this impacts the ability, skills, and perspective of youth in decision making (van Linden & Fertman, 1998; Zeldin, et al., 2000).

With the relatively recent emphasis on service learning versus community service, professional development opportunities could be offered to adult leaders of youth

organizations from a process and product perspective in service learning. Several studies provide evidence that those youth organizations successfully retaining older adolescents offer increased chances to participate in leadership, decision making, and relevant service activities (Kirshner, O'Donoghue, & McLaughlin, 2005; Pittman, Tolman, & Yohalem, 2005;Walker, Marczak, Blyth, & Borden, 2005). As adult leaders and organizations continue to engage in service based programming with youth "program designers need to make sure programs are developmentally appropriate by providing the opportunity for increased autonomy, participation in program decision making, leadership, and exposure to intellectually challenging material as participating youth mature" (Eccles & Gootman, 2002, p. 65).

References

Abravanel, S. A. (2003). *Building community through service-learning: The role of the community partner* (ECS Issue Paper). Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

Berkas, T. (February, 1997). *Strategic review of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation's service-learning projects, 1990-1996*. Battle Creek, MI: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Billig, S. (2000). The effects of service learning. *School Administrator*, *57*(7), 14-18.

Conrad, D., & Hedin, D. (1991). School-based community service: What we know from research and theory. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 743–749.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds). (2000). Handbook of Qualitative Research (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Eccles, J., & Gootman, J. (2002). (Eds.) *Community programs to promote youth development*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.

Eyler, J., & Giles, D. (1989). *The impact of service learning program characteristics on student outcomes*. Paper presented at the National Society for Experiential Education Conference, Snowbird, UT.

Furco, A. (2002). Is service-learning really better than community service? A study of high school service. In A. Furco & S. H. Billig (Eds.), *Advances in service-learning research: Vol.1. Service-learning: The essence of the pedagogy* (pp. 23–50). Greenwich, CT : Information Age.

Hairston, J. (2004). Identifying what 4-H'ers learn from community service learning projects. *Journal of Extension*, *42*(1). Retrieved October 5, 2005, from http://www.joe.org/joe/2004february/rb4.shtml

Hoover, T., & Webster, N. (2004). Modeling service learning for future leaders of youth organizations. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *3*(3), 58- 62.

Justinianno, J., Scherer, C., Johnson, L., & Lewis, B. (2001). *Youth voice: A guide for engaging youth in leadership and decision-making in service-learning programs.* Washington, DC: Points of Light Foundation.

Kirshner, B., O'Donoghue, J., & McLaughlin, M. (2005).Youth-adult research collaborations: Bringing youth voice to the research process. In J. Mahoney, R. Larson, & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Organized Activities as Contexts of Development-*

Extracurricular Activities, After-School and Community Programs (pp. 131-158). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Leming, J. (1998). *Adding value to service-learning projects*. Unpublished manuscript.

Kolb, D. A. (1976) *The learning style inventory: Technical manual*, Boston, MA.

Melchior, A. (1999). *Summary report: National evaluation of learn and serve America.* Unpublished manuscript, Brandeis University.

National Center for Education Statistics. (1999). *Service learning and community service in K-12 schools* (NCES 1999-043). Washington, DC: US Department of Education.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Petkus, E., Jr. (2000). A theoretical and practical framework for service-learning in marketing: Kolb's experiential learning cycle. *Journal of Marketing Education, 22*, 64-70.

Pittman, K., Tolman, J., & Yohalem, N. (2005). Developing a comprehensive agenda for out-of-school hours: Lessons and challenges across cities. In J Mahoney, R. Larson, & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Organized Activities as Contexts of Development- Extracurricular Activities, After-School and Community Programs* (pp. 357-398). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rhoads, R. A., & Howard, J. (1998). *Academic service learning: A pedagogy of action and reflection*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Safrit, D., & Auck, A. (2003). Volunteerism, community service, and service-learning by Ohio 4-H'ers in grades 4-12. *Journal of Extension*, 41 (4). Retrieved September 22, 2005, from http://www.joe.org/joe/2003august/rb6.shtml.

Scales, P., & Blyth, D. (1997). Effects of service-learning on youth: What we know and what we need to know. *Generator*, pp. 6-9.

Shaffer, B. (1993). *Service-learning: An academic methodology*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Department of Education, cited in Bhaerman, Robert, Cordell, Karin, and Gomez, Barbara (1998). *The Role of Service-Learning in Educational Reform*, Raleigh, NC: National Society for Experiential Education and Needham, MA: Simon and Shuster, Inc.

Stephens, L. (1995). *The complete guide to learning through community service, grades K-9.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

van Linden, J., & Fertman, C. (1998). *Youth leadership – A guide to understanding leadership development in adolescents*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Walker, J., Marczak, M., Blyth, D., & Borden, L. (2005). Designing youth development programs: Toward a theory of developmental intentionally. In J Mahoney, R. Larson, & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Organized Activities as Contexts of Development- Extracurricular Activities, After-School and Community Programs* (pp, 399-418). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Yates, M., & Youniss, J. (1996). A developmental perspective on community service in adolescence. *Social Development, 5*, 85–111.

Zeldin, S., McDaniel, A., Topitzes, D., & Calvert, M. (2000). *Youth decision-making: A study on the impacts of youth on adults and organizations*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Biography

Nicole S. Webster is an assistant professor at Penn State University in the Department of Agricultural Education and Extension Education. Her responsibilities include conducting research in the area of service learning and outreach with children, youth, and families. Nicole's focus includes understanding the impact of service learning on minority communities and youth and the relationship the young person develops with community, peers, and self as a result of the service learning experience. Through her extension appointment she provides state support and training on service learning and outreach.

Dr. Jacklyn A. Bruce is an assistant professor in Agricultural and Extension Education at Penn State University. Her areas of research include ways to enhance of the formal education of future educators using subject targeted youth development programming experiences. In addition, her research includes the effectiveness of various methodologies of leadership training and programming in formal and informal settings on the training transfer process. She also provides statewide leadership development programming for youth and adults in communities through extension and outreach

Tracy S. Hoover joined the faculty in the department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida in 1993 teaching undergraduate and graduate courses in leadership development, pre-service teacher education, and teaching and learning. Hoover returned to the department Agricultural and Extension Education at Pennsylvania State University as an associate professor with responsibilities in youth leadership development as well as pre-service and in-service teacher education. Hoover recently assumed the role of department head in Agricultural and Extension Education.

Development of Youth Leadership Life Skills of Texas Youth as San Antonio Livestock Exposition School Tour Guides

Laura A. Real
Extension Agent-4-H and Youth Development
Gillespie County
Fredericksburg, TX

Julie F. Harlin
Assistant Professor
Texas A&M University
2116 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-2116
979-862-3014
j-harlin@tamu.edu

Abstract

This study's purpose was to determine the youth leadership life skills of Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members participating as school tour guides. Descriptive characteristics were evaluated to determine those affecting leadership life skills development. School tour guides participating in the exit-meeting during the 2004 San Antonio Livestock Exposition were asked to complete the questionnaire. This resulted in 1,691 responses and a 94% response rate. The questionnaire was a 28-item survey that was based on the scales: working with groups, understanding self, communicating, making decisions, and leadership. Conclusions showed that school tour guides were developing leadership life skills. The most influential descriptive characteristics were gender, previous leadership experiences, and ethnicity. Females and those participants who had previous leadership experiences reported stronger perceptions of their leadership life skills. In addition, African and Asian Americans, Hispanics, and Anglos all had stronger perceptions of their leadership life skills when compared to Native Americans.

Introduction

Since the beginning of 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA (Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America) programs, the goal has been to produce productive members of society through the development of leadership life skills in the youth enrolled in those programs. Youth organizations offer countless opportunities for members to learn and develop leadership life skills that are important in becoming contributable members of society as adults. 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA are just three of many youth organizations available. The 4-H program is the youth component

of the Cooperative Extension Service serving youth ages 8 to 19 (Texas Agricultural Extension Service, 2001). The National FFA Organization is an agricultural education program that serves secondary school youth (National FFA Organization, 2003). FCCLA is a national vocational organization for high school students interested in family and consumer sciences education (Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America, 2003). Members of these organizations can participate in numerous types of projects ranging from cooking to animal projects and public speaking to leadership. These programs employ the motto of "learning by doing." By participating in hands-on experiences, youth are better able to learn and apply these necessary skills to their lifestyles (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Howard, 2001).

Members are given numerous opportunities to engage in leadership development activities. One such activity is the School Tours Program at San Antonio Livestock Exposition. The San Antonio Livestock Exposition (SALE) School Tours Program was created in 1990 to provide a safe, guided tour of the show grounds to students of San Antonio and the surrounding areas. Each year, about 20,000 kindergarten through third grade students are invited as guests of the School Tours Program who are guided through exhibits by 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members. Guides are selected by county agents and teachers to participate in the program and undergo a 30 to 90 minute training session including information to relate to students and routes to take. Guides are assigned a class for the day; the guide leads the class through the different barns and educational exhibits on the grounds. Before entering each barn, the guide provides background information to the students and answers questions.

Review of Literature

Leadership education has been an integral part of experiential youth leadership organizations. Three of these organizations are 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA. By their very nature and purpose, these organizations focus on the development of youth through various activities. Most assume that these organizations are successful at developing leadership life skills through the programs and opportunities they offer to their members. Nevertheless, is this perception true? Recently, organizations such as these are focusing on the effectiveness of the leadership training they offer to their members to provide accountability for and to continually improve their respective programs (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Howard, 2001; Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002).

Holder and Wilkinson (2001) state that to be a good leader, one needs to develop several types of skills that can be used in many ways throughout life; thus, they are called leadership life skills. They define seven leadership life skill areas: (a) understanding self, (b) communicating, (c) getting along with others, (d) learning to learn, (e) making decisions, (f) managing, and (g) working with groups. These seven areas match the seven constructs of youth leadership life skill development (YLLSD) as described by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995). These seven

constructs where originally based on work of Miller (1976) who defined youth leadership life skills as the "development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life" (p. 2). Townsend and Carter (1983) also studied youth leadership life skills and provide five scales of leadership: (a) working with groups, (b) understanding self, (c) making decisions, (d) communication, and (e) leadership.

Boyd, Herring, and Briers (1992) compared YLLSD of Texas 4-H members to non-members, and examined the relationship between YLLSD and level of participation in 4-H. The researchers found that Texas 4-H members' perceptions of their YLLSD were significantly higher than the perceptions of non-members. In addition, the researchers found that Texas 4-H members' level of YLLSD increased as their level of participation in 4-H activities increased.

Determining predictors of YLLSD of youth in Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico was the purpose of two similar studies conducted by Seevers and Dormody (1994) of senior 4-H members and by Dormody and Seevers (1994) of FFA members. The two major findings of this study were that three variables – achievement expectancy, participation in FFA leadership activities, and gender – explained statistically significant amounts of variance in YLLSDS scores; and YLLSD was not related to self-esteem, years in FFA, age, ethnicity, or place of residence. The findings of this study are in contrast to the results of the similar study conducted by Seevers and Dormody of 4-H members. Four variables attributed to variance in YLLSDS scores: participation in leadership activities, ethnicity, achievement expectancy, and gender.

Using an adapted version of the YLLSDS developed by Seevers et al. (1995), Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) explored the relationship between Iowa FFA members' self-perceived leadership and life skills development and their participation in youth leadership activities. The researchers found "the strongest statistically significant relationship existed between [YLLSD] and FFA leadership activities" (p. 23). Other factors that related to YLLSD were years of membership in FFA, age, jobs, achievement expectancy, club officer, church groups, and class officer. These researchers also found that the female FFA members participating in "this study significantly outscored their male counterparts on the YLLSDS section" (p. 23).

A study conducted by Thorp, Cummins, and Townsend (1998) looked at a college student population. These researchers evaluated gender as it specifically related to the development of leadership skills and examined the relationship between women's previous leadership experiences and their self-perceived leadership skills, as well as the differences between women in an all-female educational setting and women in a coeducational setting. The researchers found statistically significant relationships between gender, participation in high school and collegiate leadership activities, and participants' self-perceived leadership skills. In addition, women in the all-female section had stronger perceptions of

themselves on all five measured scales. Other researchers have confirmed that gender does play a role in students' self-perceived youth leadership life skills development (Farley, 1989; McKinley, Birkenholz, & Stewart, 1993; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach et al., 1997).

Many researchers have studied leadership life skills through overall involvement of experiential youth leadership organizations and indicated that youth truly are developing these skills and they are retaining them into their adulthood (Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Howard, 2001; Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002). However, none of these studies have specifically addressed the youth leadership life skills of one specific activity.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine the youth leadership life skills of Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members participating as school tour guides. The following objectives were set to guide this study.

1. Describe the characteristics of school tour guides at the 2004 San Antonio Livestock Exposition.
2. Determine the leadership life skills of Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members serving as school tour guides according to the Leadership Skills Inventory.
3. Determine which descriptive characteristics affected youth leadership life skills development.

For the purpose of this study, leadership life skills referred to the five scales measured by the Leadership Skills Inventory including (a) Working with Groups, (b) Understanding Self, (c) Communicating, (d) Making Decisions, and (e) Leadership. Also, descriptive characteristics were defined as gender, age, ethnicity, youth organization membership, years of membership, years of experience as a school tour guide, and previous leadership skills training.

Procedures

Population

Pre-experimental, descriptive survey methodology, and a correlational design were used in this study. The dependent variable was youth leadership life skills development. The independent variables were gender, age, ethnicity, youth organization membership, years of membership, years of experience as a school tour guide, and previous leadership skills training. Both the dependent and independent variables were measured following their natural occurrence ex post facto. The population of interest was Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members that served as school tour guides at the San Antonio Livestock Exposition. To ensure parental consent, letters were sent to teachers of each participating 4-H County,

FFA Chapter, and FCCLA Chapter. A cover letter was sent to all sponsors requesting that an additional letter be sent home with each school tour guide for parental review. Parents were to review the letter before their child participated as a school tour guide. All school tour guides returning for the afternoon exit-meeting during the 2004 San Antonio Livestock Exposition were asked to complete the questionnaire (1800). A total of 1,691 questionnaires were returned resulting in a response rate of 94%. Some respondents did not complete all the questions, as a result the response numbers for specific questions may not be equal to the total number of survey respondents.

Instrumentation

The instrument used was the Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI) developed and tested at Iowa State University (Townsend & Carter, 1983). The LSI consisted of 21 statements describing different leadership and life skills. The instrument contained five internal scales: (a) Working with Groups, (b) Understanding Self, (c) Communicating, (d) Making Decisions, and (e) Leadership. Responses were based on a five-point Likert-type scale with 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = undecided, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. A higher numeric value attributed to a statement indicated a stronger agreement or self-perception of the skill. Subject responses for each statement within a scale were averaged to create an individual response for each scale. Other researchers using the instrument (Thorp et al., 1998; Boyd, 1991) reported reliabilities of .63 to .83 and .65 to .83, respectively. The statements used on the survey instrument are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.
Internal Scales for Leadership Skills Inventory

Scale	**Item #**	**Statement**	**Reliabilities**	
			Thorp	Boyd
Working With Groups	1.	I can cooperate and work in a group.	.75	.72
	2.	I get along with people around me.		
	4.	I believe in dividing the work among group.		
	8.	I listen carefully to opinions of group.		
	12.	I believe that group members are responsible.		
Understanding Self	3.	I feel responsible for my actions.	.67	.75
	5.	I understand myself.		
	13.	I am sure of my abilities.		
	17.	I accept who I am.		
	18.	I feel responsible for my decisions.		
Communicating	10.	I can lead a discussion.	.73	.69
	14.	I am a good listener.		
	19.	I can give clear directions.		
	20.	I can follow directions.		
Making Decisions	7.	I consider all choices before making a decision.	.63	.65
	11.	I use past experiences in making decisions.		
	15.	I use information in making decisions.		
Leadership	6.	I feel comfortable teaching others.	.83	.83

9.	I am respected by others my age.
10.	I can lead a discussion
16.	I feel comfortable being a group leader.
19.	I can give clear directions.
21.	I can run a meeting.

Limitations

Limitations of the study included self-selected participation by the subjects. It is also recognized by the researchers that the data reflects leadership perceptions of respondents assumed to be leaders because of they were selected to participate as a school tour guide. Therefore, this study provides a description of self-perceived leadership skills and is not generalizable to all 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members or school tour guides.

Findings

The first objective was to describe the characteristics of school tour guides at the 2004 San Antonio Livestock Exposition. The SPSS procedure FREQUENCIES was used to compute the descriptive characteristics of gender, age, ethnicity, organization membership, years of membership, years as a school tour guide, and previous leadership skills training. These results are shown in Table 2. There were slightly more than twice as many female respondents as male respondents. Reported ages were as follows: 120 participants were 14 years old or younger (12.3%), 178 were 15 years old (18.2%), 233 were 16 years old (23.9%), 228 were 17 years old (23.4%), 178 were 18 years old or older (18.2%). The mean age of the group was 16. The largest ethnic group represented was White/Anglo with 571 respondents (58.5%). This was followed by Hispanic with 241 respondents (24.7%).

School tour guides were members of one of three groups: FFA (36.3%), FCCLA (35.1%), or 4-H (22.5%). Nearly half of all students have been members of their respective organization for only one to two years (47.1%). The majority of students were first-year educational school tour guides (56.7%). A total of 377 (38.6%) of students indicated that they had previous leadership training experiences and 528 (54.1%) claimed they had not; and, 71 did not respond. Of these 377 respondents who have had previous leadership skills experience, 117 (31.0%) respondents received at least a minimum of this experience through their respective 4-H, FFA, or FCCLA program.

Table 2.
Selected Descriptive Characteristics of School Tour Guides

Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	282	28.9
	Female	623	63.8

	Did not report	71	7.3
Age	14 years or younger	120	12.3
	15	178	18.2
	16	233	23.9
	17	228	23.4
	18 years or older	178	18.2
	Did not report	39	4.0
Ethnicity	African American	54	5.5
	Asian American	46	4.7
	Hispanic	241	24.7
	Native American	14	1.4
	White/Anglo	571	58.5
	Mixed Ethnicities	12	1.2
	Did not report	38	3.9
Organization Membership	4-H	220	22.5
	FFA	354	36.3
	FCCLA	343	35.1
	Did not report	59	6.0
Years as a Member	1-2 years	460	47.1
	3-4 years	213	21.8
	5-6 years	109	11.2
	7-8 years	91	9.3
	9-10 years	64	6.6
	Did not report	39	4.0
Years as Tour Guide	1 year	553	56.7
	2 years	212	21.7
	3 years	88	9.0
	4 years	43	4.4
	5 years	38	3.9
	Did not report	42	4.3
Previous Leadership Training	Yes	377	38.6
	No	528	54.1
	Did not report	71	7.3

The second objective was to determine the leadership life skills of Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members serving as school tour guides according to the Leadership Skills Inventory. All scales had means of 4.13 or greater, indicating that school tour guides perceived that they are developing leadership life skills (see Table 3).

Table 3.
School Tour Guides Self-Perceptions of Youth Leadership Life Skills Development

Scale	Mean[a]	SD
Understanding Self	4.40	.55
Working with Groups	4.39	.53
Making Decisions	4.23	.67
Communicating	4.22	.63
Leadership	4.13	.69
Overall	4.29	.53

Note. [a]1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

The third objective was to determine which descriptive characteristics affected youth leadership life skills development. For the purpose of this study, descriptive characteristics were defined as gender, age, ethnicity, youth organization membership, years of membership, years of experience as a school tour guide, and previous leadership skills training. A *t*-test of independent means was computed to determine if youth leadership life skills development differed by gender. A summary of these results are presented in Table 4. Statistically significant differences were found in all five scales at the 0.05 significance level. Females had a stronger perception of their abilities on all five levels than when compared to males.

Table 4.
Independent Samples *t*-test: Gender and Youth Leadership Life Skills Development

Scale		N	Mean[a]	SD	p
Understanding Self	Male	271	4.35	.57	.005**
	Female	615	4.45	.48	
Working with Groups	Male	275	4.28	.58	<.001**
	Female	616	4.46	.46	
Making Decisions	Male	277	4.09	.68	<.001**
	Female	619	4.30	.62	
Communicating	Male	276	4.15	.66	.007**
	Female	619	4.27	.60	
Leadership	Male	274	4.07	.68	.042*
	Female	611	4.17	.68	
Overall	Male	258	4.19	.55	<.001**
	Female	595	4.35	.47	

Note. [a]1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.
*Significant when $p < .05$. **Significant when $p < .01$.

To determine if youth leadership life skills development differed by age, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed between each of the measurement scales and age. The correlation coefficient was evaluated using a two-tailed test with a significance level of 0.05. Table 5 presents the correlation coefficients for each of the five measurement scales. A statistically significant correlation was found between age and the scales of Working with Groups, Understanding Self, and Communicating. These correlations coefficients were 0.078, 0.071, and 0.067, respectively. This indicated only a negligible relationship between age and youth leadership life skills development (Davis, 1971). This suggests that the older the school tour guides were, the greater perception they had of the abilities to work with groups, understand themselves, and communicate.

Table 5.
Pearson Correlation Coefficient Between Age and Leadership Life Skills Development

		Age	
Scale	**N**	**r**	**p**
Understanding self	918	.071*	.032
Working with groups	921	.078*	.017
Making decisions	927	.050	.131
Communicating	925	.067*	.043
Leadership	912	.048	.150
Overall	876	.072*	.034

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

To determine if youth leadership life skills development differed by ethnicity, an analysis of variance of scales was computed using the procedure ANOVA. A summary of these results are displayed in Table 6. Statistically significant differences were found in three of the scales (Working with Groups, Understanding Self, and Making Decisions) and overall leadership life skills development. Tukey's HSD post hoc comparison was used to detect differences among ethnic groups. Table 6 displays these results. Three scales measuring leadership life skills development were statistically different at the .05 level when grouped by ethnicity: Working with Groups, Understanding Self, and Making Decisions. Two scales were statistically different at the $p < .01$ level when grouped by ethnicity: Communicating and Leadership.

Table 6.
Analysis of Variance of Scales Measuring Leadership Life Skills by Ethnicity

	Mean Score by Ethnicity							
Scale	Afr	Asian	Hisp	Nat	Anglo	Mixed	F	p
Understanding Self	4.36^{a}	4.24^{a}	4.40^{a}	3.76^{b}	4.44^{a}	4.15^{ab}	5.649	<.001*
Working with Groups	4.48^{ac}	4.26^{abc}	4.42^{ac}	4.02^{b}	4.39^{abc}	4.03^{bc}	3.362	.005*

Making Decisions	4.17^{ab}	4.25^{a}	4.26^{a}	3.52^{c}	4.24^{a}	3.67^{bc}	5.168	$<.001^{*}$
Communicating	4.19^{ab}	4.12^{ab}	4.20^{b}	4.21^{a}	3.73^{b}	4.25^{ab}	2.505	$.029^{**}$
Leadership	4.16^{a}	4.16^{a}	4.22^{a}	4.11^{b}	3.49^{a}	4.14^{a}	2.682	$.020^{**}$
Overall	4.32^{a}	4.25^{a}	4.31^{a}	3.74^{b}	4.30^{a}	4.00^{ab}	3.750	$.002^{**}$

Note. [1]1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree. [2]Afr = African American, Asian = Asian American, Hisp = Hispanic, Nat = Native American, Anglo = White/Anglo, Mixed = Mixed Ethnicities. [3]Means not sharing a letter are different as determined by Tukey's HSD post hoc comparison. *Significant at $p < .05$. **Significant at $p < .01$.

To determine if youth leadership life skills development differed by previous leadership training experiences, the researchers examined the data in three different forms. The first was an analysis of the number of previous leadership training experiences by calculating a Pearson correlation coefficient between each of the measurement scales and the number of previous leadership training experiences (see Table 7). The second analysis was simply whether the school tour guide had previous leadership training experience. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated between each of the measurement scales and whether the student had previous leadership experiences (see Table 8). This resulted in a statistically significant difference between those with previous leadership experience and those with none. The final analysis only took into account those school tour guides that provided examples of previous leadership experience. A *t*-test was used to determine if a difference existed between a previous experience in 4-H, FFA, or FCCLA ("Ag") and another organization or program ("Non-Ag") (see Table 9).

Table 7.
Pearson Correlation Coefficient Between Numbers of Previous Leadership Experiences and Leadership Life Skills Development of School Tour Guides

	Number of Previous Experiences		
Scale	**N**	**r**	**p**
Understanding self	930	.103**	.002
Working with groups	935	.054	.096
Making decisions	940	.100**	.002
Communicating	937	.119**	<.001
Leadership	922	.157**	<.001
Overall	885	.119**	<.001

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8.
Pearson Correlation Coefficient Between Previous Leadership Experiences and Leadership Life Skills Development of School Tour Guides

	Previous Experience (Yes or No)		
Scale	**N**	**r**	**p**
Understanding self	890	.090**	.007
Working with groups	890	.089**	.008
Making decisions	897	.113**	.001
Communicating	897	.158**	<.001
Leadership	884	.204**	<.001
Overall	853	.156**	<.001

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 9.
Independent Samples *t*-test: Ag or Non-ag Previous Leadership Experience and Leadership Life Skills Development

Scale		**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**p**
Understanding Self	Ag	116	4.55	0.46	.209
	Non-Ag	56	4.46	0.43	
Working with Groups	Ag	114	4.49	0.46	.613
	Non-Ag	56	4.53	0.43	
Making Decisions	Ag	116	4.39	0.54	.931
	Non-Ag	57	4.38	0.59	
Communicating	Ag	115	4.36	0.59	.822
	Non-Ag	57	4.38	0.52	
Leadership	Ag	115	4.34	0.67	.563

	Non-Ag	57	4.29	0.52	
Overall	Ag	112	4.43	0.45	.867
	Non-Ag	55	4.42	0.42	

Note. [a]1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Conclusions, Discussion, and Recommendations

Objective 1 was to determine descriptive characteristics of school tour guides at the 2004 San Antonio Livestock Exposition. These descriptive characteristics included gender, age, ethnicity, youth organization membership, years as a member, years as a school tour guide, and previous leadership training experiences. The typical respondent in this study was a 16 year old White/Anglo, female who had been in FFA from 1-2 years, was serving as a tour guide for the first time, and had not received previous leadership skills training.

Objective 2 was to determine the leadership life skills of Texas 4-H, FFA, and FCCLA members serving as school tour guides according to the Leadership Skills Inventory. The overall mean for leadership life skill development was 4.29 indicating that school tour guides "agreed" with all statements within in the Leadership Skills Inventory. Tour guides perceived themselves as having a higher level of leadership life skill development for the scales Understanding Self (4.40) and Working with Groups (4.39) than the remaining areas. The means for Making Decisions (4.23) and Communicating (4.22) were also similar to one another. Even though guides perceived themselves as having the least development in the Leadership (4.13) scale, they still perceived themselves as developing leadership skills.

Objective 3 was to determine which descriptive characteristics affected youth leadership life skill development. Descriptive characteristics were defined as gender, age, ethnicity, youth organization membership, years of membership, years of experience as a school tour guide, and previous leadership skills training.

Females perceived themselves as having stronger leadership life skills in all five scales: (a) Working with Groups, (b) Understanding Self, (c) Communicating, (d) Making Decisions, and (e) Leadership than did males. Differences in means for Working with Groups, Understanding Self, Communicating, and Making Decisions were all significant at the.01 level. Differences in means for the scale of Leadership were significant at the .05 level. This concurs with other research finding that gender does play a role in students' self-perceived youth leadership life skills development (Thorp et al., 1998; Farley, 1989; McKinley et al., 1993; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach et al., 1997), but still does not answer the question as to why females tend to have higher self-perceived youth leadership life skills than males.

Negligible, positive relationships existed between age and the three scales of Working with Groups, Understanding Self, and Communicating. Correlation

coefficients ranged from .067 to .078. School tour guides perceived themselves as being better able to work with groups, understand themselves, and communicate as they mature. This supports the findings of Seevers and Dormody (1994).

In looking at overall leadership life skills development, Native Americans differed from African Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanics, and Anglos. These four groups all indicated a stronger perception of their leadership life skills development than did Native Americans. No other research using the Leadership Skills Inventory could be found either supporting or contradicting this finding. Although the number of Native Americans participating in this study was relatively small, it certainly warrants further study.

Positive relationships existed between previous leadership experiences and leadership life skills development. This indicated that participants receiving any previous leadership training experience had a higher level of leadership life skills development. This finding supports the research of Seevers and Dormody (1994) and Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) and certainly should not be surprising. What was surprising was the number of students indicating no previous leadership training. Even though the average student had been participating in their organization from one to two years, it could be expected that they would have been exposed to some type of leadership training during that time, especially if they were selected by their teacher or extension agent to serve as a school tour guide.

Recommendations for Additional Research

The following recommendations are based on the findings and conclusions of this study.

1. It is recommended to further investigate school tour guides to determine where guides are developing leadership life skills. A pre-test, post-test design using a random sample may be used to determine if participation as a school tour guide is contributing to the development of leadership life skills.
2. It is recommended to investigate the reasons why female school tour guides perceived themselves as having a higher level of leadership life skills development than males.
3. Another recommendation is to investigate the differences between ethnic groups. Specifically, what causes Native Americans to perceive themselves as having lower levels of leadership life skills development when compared to other groups?
4. The relationship between participation in previous leadership experiences should be investigated to determine which activities are contributing the most to the development of leadership life skills.
5. It is recommended that students who are not involved in extracurricular youth organizations be studied to understand the differences between members of youth organizations and other students.

References

Boyd, B. L. (1991). *Analysis of 4-H participation and leadership life skill development in Texas 4-H club members.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station.

Boyd, B. L., Herring, D. R., & Briers, G. E. (1992). Developing life skills in youth. *Journal of Extension, 30*(4). Retrieved July 7, 2003, from http://www.joe.org/joe/1992winter/a4.html

Davis, J. A. (1971). *Elementary survey analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Dormody, T. J., & Seevers, B. S. (1994). Predicting youth leadership life skills development among FFA members in Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico [Electronic version]. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(2), 65-71.

Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America, Inc. (FCCLA). (2003). About FCCLA. Retrieved October 23, 2003, from http://fcclainc.org/about

Farley, L. W. (1989). *Gender relationships of established national leaders and their mentors.* Unpublished master's thesis, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Holder, S., & Wilkinson, R. (2001). Leadership 2001 (MSU-ES Publication No. 2200). Mississippi State University, Starkville, MS.

Howard, J. W. (2001). *Impact assessment of the Texas 4-H and youth development program*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas.

McKinley, B. G., Birkenholz, R. J., & Stewart, B. R. (1993). Characteristics and experiences related to the leadership skills of agriculture students in college. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 34*(3), 76-83.

Miller, R. A. (1976). Leader/agent's guide: Leadership life skills. Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.

National FFA Organization (2003). *The FFA Mission & Strategies.* Retrieved July 19, 2003, from http://www.ffa.org/about_ffa/organization/html/mission.html.

Rutherford, T. A., Townsend, C. D., Briers, G. E., Cummins, R., & Conrad, C. R. (2002). Leadership self-perceptions of WLC participants [Electronic version]. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 43*(2), 22-33.

Seevers, B. S., & Dormody, T. J. (1994). Predicting youth life leadership skills development among senior 4-H members: A tri-state study [Electronic version]. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(3), 63-69.

Seevers, B. S., Dormody, T. J., & Clason, D. L. (1995). Developing a scale to research and evaluate youth leadership life skills development. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 36*(2), 28-34.

Texas Agricultural Extension Service. (2001). *Texas 4-H Management System: County Management Guide* (4-H Publication No. 1-5.059). College Station, TX: Johnson, K., James, D., Couch, M., & Howard, J.

Thorp, L., Cummins, R., & Townsend, C. (1998). Women's self-perceived leadership skills in a collegiate agricultural education course. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 39*(1), 55-62.

Townsend, C. D., & Carter, R. I. (1983). The relationship of participation in FFA activities and leadership, citizenship, and cooperation. *Journal of the American Association of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, 24*(1), 20-25.

Wingenbach, G. J., & Kahler, A. A. (1997). Self-perceived youth leadership and life skills of Iowa FFA members [Electronic version]. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 38*(3), 18-27.

Biography

Laura Real received a B.S. in Animal Science in May 2003 and a M.S. in Agricultural Education in 2004 from Texas A&M University. She is currently a County Extension Agent for 4-H and Youth Development for Texas Cooperative Extension in Gillespie County and resides in Fredericksburg, Texas. She enjoys working with youth to help prepare them for their future.

Julie Harlin received a B.S. in Agricultural Science and M.S. in Agricultural Education in 1993 and 1994, respectively, from Texas A&M University and a Ph.D. in Agricultural Education from Oklahoma State University in 1999. She is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications at Texas A&M University where she serves as program leader for the agricultural science teacher education workgroup.

The Consultancy Protocol: Future School Leaders Engage in Collaborative Inquiry

Estelle Kamler
Associate Professor
Department of Educational Leadership and Administration
Long Island University, C. W. Post Campus
Brookville, New York
estelle.kamler@liu.edu

Abstract

Decision-making is key to being an effective administrator. The saying, "You are only as good as your last shot," sometimes applies to the way principals feel when a new plan that addresses a problem is met with opposition from disapproving faculty, staff, parents, or students. Experienced school principals learned early in their career that asking the right questions underscores the search for the best solution to the problem. In framing and reframing the issue through comprehensive query and gathering input from others, it is more likely that the school leader will seek all the relevant data and then be able to formulate, weigh, and determine a plan of action that will engender support. This brief discusses the use of a collaborative role-playing format based on consultancy protocol to develop aspiring school leaders' skill at in-depth problem-solving and enhance the quality of their decisions through peer input.

Introduction

One of the most difficult issues I faced as a novice elementary principal was the emotionally and politically charged closing of my building. It was easy to be consumed by the despair of the school community. In retrospect, my initial missteps that caused a decline in student and staff motivation as well as some repercussions from the central office were created by my not having all the facts and selecting a course of action solely riveted on saving the building. Rather than grasping the full extent of the problem which extended beyond the loss of our school, I needed to raise more questions directed not only to the members of my immediate school community, but also to other stakeholders in the district as well as colleagues from other districts in order to understand the arduous and heart wrenching process of redistricting. In time I better understood that my first responsibility was not to fuel the opposition which continued the struggle for the school's survival, but to ensure that teaching and learning remained in focus during the two turbulent years prior to the final decision to close the school.

As I began to revise my frame with assistance from the faculty, parents, and administrative colleagues which led to a burst of positive energy and recommitment to our mission, the pervasive high anxiety, hopelessness, and lack of motivation in the school significantly diminished. I can now say that some of my most exhilarating times as an educator occurred during this period. After a bumpy start and with a clearer picture of the real possibility that this may be the last reminiscences of this once joyous and productive school setting, the faculty, parents, and I set out to craft as many stimulating and challenging learning experiences as we could hoping to provide everlasting memories for the children as well as the adults. Evening science and social studies fairs, a reading club that engaged all of the 350 students and a Grandparents' Day replete with original poetry, songs, and plays became the school's legacy. Twenty years later, as a professor of educational leadership, I was reminded of these years when one of my graduate students excitedly told the class about her elementary school experiences and then surprised me when she said, "And you were my principal."

Becoming a School Leader: A Balance of Theory and Practice

Transitioning from teacher to school leader can be thorny with decision-making being at the forefront of an aspirant's angst. In the Core I course which I teach, three interrelated areas, human relations, leadership, and school community relations, are presented with a balanced viewpoint of theory and practice through analysis of current issues in administration. This course is designed to enable students to:

1. Acquire comprehensive knowledge of administrative theory, organizational culture, and educational leadership and make connections between theory and practice.
2. Demonstrate an understanding of schools as social systems and the impact of historic and current developments on organizational change.
3. Demonstrate the ability to think systematically and critically about school leadership and understand and present multiple solutions to educational leadership issues.
4. Enhance leadership skills in communication, teambuilding, and decision-making.
5. Develop an awareness of one's personal leadership style(s), identifying strengths as well as areas for improvement.
6. Articulate a vision for schools and in the process become more conscious of one's own values, beliefs, and assumptions about the purposes of education.

Theoretical study including models of decision-making as well as administrative processes which promote positive organizational culture, effective communication, motivated faculty and staff, and openness to organizational change provides the foundation for practical exercises such as fieldwork experiences, case studies, role-plays, and simulations. Through these activities students are able to learn the science and art of leadership in a risk-free

environment. Decision-making with an emphasis on understanding issues from multiple perspectives, generating and evaluating alternative solutions, and choosing a beneficial course of action are developed in my leadership classroom through problems of practice underscored by a theoretical base.

It general, the participative process tends to improve the quality, creativity, acceptance, understanding, judgment, and accuracy of decisions (DuBrin, 2002). With this orientation, one of the activities which I use to assist aspiring school leaders in learning the classical decision-making model, in conjunction with a student's self-selected real-life case study, is a modification of the consultancy protocol. The protocol was initially designed for critical discussion of a lesson plan, unit, or classroom issue by the Coalition of Essential School's Program and further adapted and revised as part of an Annenberg Institute Project to provide a structure for teachers to scrutinize a professional issue and gain insights from peers in a conversation designed to further illuminate the subject. In this "administrative" consultancy protocol, the emphasis is also on query development to acquire increased knowledge and information about the school problem and create a greater number of solutions as well as evaluate the alternatives through planned interaction with colleagues.

Understanding the Consultancy Protocol

The purpose of the consultancy protocol is to assist an individual to think through an issue. Its primary function is to define and position the problem in a "descriptive rather than judgmental" fashion with the concern for the person who is consulting rather than on the individual experiences of the consultancy group members (McDonald, Mohr, Dichter, & McDonald, 2003). Critical Friends Group was established by three professional developers from the Annenberg Institute for School Reform. It was designed as a program using protocols to train coaches to create a collegial culture within their teaching groups focused on improvement of student learning through the examination of student work or observation of each other (Dunne, Nave, & Lewis, 2000).

The protocol provides helpful parameters that "ease the anxieties of revealing the heart of one's practice to colleagues" (Cushman, 1999). In its purest form, the protocol structures the time, behavior, and discussion format of the consultancy session to ensure maximum time on task, support learning, and facilitate positive group dynamics. Depending on the topic of discussion, consultancy groups may meet from 40 minutes to two hours and include a designated timeframe for each step of the process. Within this period, the participants move through the protocol stages to uncover and more closely examine the layers of the issue. In 10 blocks of time lasting 20 minutes each, the group proceeds to address specific tasks such as the ones listed below.

- Present the problem
- Raise clarifying questions
- Pose probing questions

- Offer suggestions
- Engage in discussion
- Debrief the process

Implementing Consultancy Protocol in the Leadership Classroom

In the course syllabus the consultancy protocol is described as a brief oral presentation in which the student assumes the role of an administrator who is presenting a case study to a small group of administrative colleagues who will help the presenter to clarify the issue by asking probing questions, expand thinking about the problem, and further analyze the dilemma. Solutions may be discussed since this outside perspective should assist the presenter in determining the most appropriate resolution to this issue.

Preparing for the Consultancy Protocol

Prior to the consultancy protocol, each student outlines a dilemma or a set of complex issues around a change or school reform observed and personally or professionally involved in. Assurances for anonymity are maintained by changing names and any other identifiable information. The student gathers data through review of public records and reports as well as interviewing school community members or conducting brief surveys. In addition, the student postulates possible solutions to the problem by researching current practice through viewing resources that are directly related to the issues presented in the case. As a student prepares for the individual consultancy, the student assembles the following information.

- Profile of the school district or school—demographics (i.e., location, student population, staff profile, socio-economic background)
- The players--administrative organization— centralized, decentralized, different positions, formal and informal chain of command
- Philosophy—vision, mission, goals, procedures as related to this case
- Background of the situation—origin, history
- Description of the situation and problem and relevant data and research

Engaging in the Process

The consultancy protocol group consists of six participants. When the session begins each student assumes the role of an administrator and puts on the self-selected "administrator's hat." The students choose a particular administrative role based on a prior assignment in which they conduct an in-depth interview of a practicing administrator in a position to which they aspire. From this personal interchange, they begin to grasp some of the issues as well as concerns that school leaders need to consider in their decision-making process. The students are given a 40-minute period to present their case, ask for clarifying and provocative questions, and generate discussion. There is a suggested time frame for each

segment of the consultancy protocol; however, since another goal for these aspirants is to learn to facilitate group discussion, the presenter as the facilitator of the protocol is allowed some leeway in adjusting the timeslots with the understanding that the objective is to maximize the assistance they receive from engaging their "administrative" colleagues in this collaborative inquiry method.

Reflecting on the Process

The debriefing, or reflective component of the consultancy protocol, is completed after the students conclude their discussion. Two forms, one for the presenter and another for the other group participants, are distributed. Within a 10-miniute period students are required to complete these reflection sheets either from the perspective of the presenter or from the "administrative" consultant's depending on the role they played during the specific protocol. The presenter is asked to respond to the questions noted below.

- What issues and questions were raised that you didn't think of?
- How has the consultancy discussion altered or solidified your thinking about a course of action to resolve your problem?

In addition the presenter is encouraged to comment on the process and the individual's delivery of the information as well as the ability to facilitate a focused, meaningful discussion. The other participants (administrative consultants) note the underlying theories that can inform the resolution to this problem, indicate the clarifying and thought-provoking questions, write their reflections about the process, and comment on their contributions in assisting the presenter in the decision-making process.

Solidifying the Decision

The forms completed by the "administrative" consultants are given to the presenter for review and reflection of the session. All the reflection responses are attached to the finalized written case study submitted to me the following week. This written document is presented in the form of a memo in which the student in the role of administrator reports to a supervisor. With the added perspective gained through the consultancy protocol, in this document, the student describes the situation, discusses the various resolution possibilities with supportive data and research, and recommends a course of action with justification. In addition to the memo, students attach a one-page brief presenting the underlying theories that serve as the foundation for this decision.

Gaining an Administrative Perspective

In review of the students' evaluations of their own performance as a facilitator as well as an "administrative" colleague, many recorded their delight in stepping into the administrative role and viewing issues with new lenses. On the other hand, students commented that they needed to remind themselves to think about all

school community stakeholders and the questions that they may pose in the decision-making process. The opportunity to work on a relevant problem which required them to think differently and listen to others' viewpoints allowed them to experience in some measure the world of a school leader. The additional practice in presentation delivery also promoted confidence. Faced with a complex parent problem, one student noted the ability to successfully address and resolve the issue through reframing the problem learned in the consultancy process. With the concern for administrative team building as cited in recent school reform literature (Elmore, 2000), it is interesting to observe that this experience appears to reinforce the importance of having a leadership "collegial circle" for feedback, support, and reflection. Therefore, these aspiring leaders at entrée level may, hopefully, embrace the concept of developing and being an active participant in a professional community that encourages learning through team inquiry.

Conclusion

Collaborative inquiry can be traced to Socrates. Raising question, reframing issues from alternate paradigms can be a provocative activity, but more importantly a necessary one to ensure that one is not blinded by one's own lens or viewpoint. The consultancy protocol has been effectively implemented by staff developers in assisting teachers in examining student work and teaching strategies to improve student learning through a non-threatening and group solidifying approach. In activating this procedure in the school leadership classroom, it appears that this technique has validity in addressing broader school issues. Site-based teams have been formed nationwide and when facilitated with objectivity and sensitivity to the participants, have provided invaluable insight and support for school reform. The consultancy protocol with its carefully designed procedure may be another approach to be used by today's school leaders in working with each other to deeply investigate issues and in the process reveal a host of new ideas.

References

Cushman, K. (1999, April). The cycle of inquiry and action: Essential learning communities. [Electronic version]. *Horace Journal,* 15(4).

DuBrin, A. J. (2002). *Essentials of management.* Belmont, CA: South Western Thomson Learning.

Dunne, F., Nave, B., & Lewis, A. (2000, December). Critical friends group: Helping teachers improve student learning. *Phi Delta Kappa Center for Evaluation, Development and Research, 28.* Retrieved January 3, 2005, from http//www.pdkintl.org/edres/resbul28.htm

Elmore, R. F. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership.* Washington, DC: The Albert Shanker Institute.

McDonald, J., Mohr, N., & McDonald, E. (2003). *The power of protocols: An educators guide to better practice.* New York: Teachers College Press.

www.essentialschools.org CSE National Web essential resources for school change.

www.annenberginstitute.org Annenberg Institute for School Reform at Brown University.

Biography

Dr. Estelle Kamler is an associate professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Administration at Long Island University, C. W. Post Campus. She is a former school superintendent who served as assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction, director for special educational services, and elementary principal. Dr. Kamler provides students with opportunities to experience many real-life administrative tasks and leadership events to build self-efficacy. One prong of her research agenda is the evaluation of her course work through self-reflection and more importantly the students' lenses.

Core Competencies for 4-H Volunteer Leaders Differentiated by Occupation, Level of Education, and College Major: Implications for Leadership Education

Patrick Nestor
Extension Specialist - Volunteer Development
West Virginia University
Weston, WV 26452
pinestor@mail.wvu.edu

Renee K. McKee
State 4-H Youth Development Program Leader
Purdue University
West Lafayette, IN. 47907-1181
rmckee@purdue.edu

Ken Culp III
Extension Specialist for 4-H Youth Development, Volunteerism
University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40546-0064
kculp@uky.edu

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to demographically describe 4-H volunteer leaders' competencies for effective delivery of 4-H youth development programs. As a subset of the data, occupation, level of education, college major of the volunteer leaders, staff and faculty were gathered as the primary focus the article. The study was descriptive and correlational in nature. The study found that 4-H volunteer leaders are more highly educated than those from earlier studies; educational majors are more diverse; 10 of the 32 competencies were found to be significant by level of education; and level of education has no impact upon the ten fundamental competencies needed to effectively deliver 4-H programs.

Introduction and Review of Literature

Volunteer leaders assume a wide range of responsibilities in 4-H, community, and civic organizations. Working with volunteer leaders is an Extension tradition (Patton, 1990). Since its beginning, volunteer leaders have been central to the success of the 4-H program (Wessel & Wessel, 1982). Extension professionals make extensive use of volunteer leaders by asking them to serve in a variety of roles and delegating to them responsibilities, activities, and roles in leadership and

leadership education. Volunteer leaders provide direct services to clients by performing both clerical and administrative tasks, contributing their public relations skills, fund-raising and grant writing talents, and often serving as policy makers, board members, and advisors (Murk & Stephan, 1990).Volunteer leaders are an essential component of the Cooperative Extension Service in the United States. Nearly 625,000 volunteer leaders deliver 4-H Youth Development programs to youth annually (National 4-H Headquarters, 2002) thereby making them the single largest group of volunteer leadership educators in the United States.

Denmark (1971) found the average 4-H volunteer leaders in Texas completed 12.7 years of formal education, had an annual income of $5,000 to $14,999, and are affiliated with one to three organizations other than 4-H. Likewise, Culp (1996) determined that the current 4-H volunteer leaders in Indiana completed high school with 13.93 years of formal education and had a combined household income in the $30,000 to $50,000 range. The adult job experiences during the volunteer leaders experience include careers as a professional (clergy, lawyer, medicine, education, finance, or the arts), a service worker (clerical, support staff, etc.), or a homemaker. Culp's study confirmed an earlier study by Clark and Skelton (1950) which was conducted in 12 counties in New York. The study indicated that the leaders were farm homemakers or public school teachers with 12 or more years of formal education and above average family incomes. Additional research conducted by Parrott (1977) in Oklahoma identified the volunteer leaders' educational level as high school graduates or above, with 37% of the volunteer leaders being college graduates.

This national study focused on competencies needed by volunteer leaders for effective delivery of 4-H youth development programs into the next decade. The primary focus of this article is the identification of the differences in the levels of education, occupation, and college major of the volunteer leaders, field staff and state staff, or faculty, along with the implications for leadership education that these differences will have for the volunteer leaders.

Problem Statements

1. There is no current national baseline data demographically describing 4-H volunteer leaders in the United States.
2. The need exists to prioritize, at a national level, the identification and development of volunteer leaders' characteristics which 4-H Youth Development Professionals can utilize in supporting, developing and delivering 4-H Youth Development and volunteer leadership education programs.
3. Studies from Ohio and Kentucky found that half of the 4-H Youth Development professionals in the Cooperative Extension Service have five years experience or less as both 4-H Youth Development and volunteer leadership development professionals (Deppe, 1998; Kohlhagen, 1999).

4. There has been no national comparison of the level of education, occupation, or college major of volunteer leaders, staff, and faculty. Consequently, there has been no national comparison or identification of the components of volunteer leadership education for 4-H volunteer leaders.

Objectives

The first objective of the study was to demographically describe 4-H Youth Development volunteer leaders in terms of the following characteristics: age, gender, level of education, marital status, number of children, occupational status, number of years as a 4-H volunteer leaders, number of volunteer leaders roles in which they are currently serving outside of 4-H, number of adult or youth volunteer leaders with whom they work directly, number of adult or youth volunteer leaders which they coordinate, number of years as a 4-H member or 4-H youth participant and the state in which they participated. The second objective was to determine how the demographic differences impacted the core competencies for volunteer leaders which these three populations identified.

Procedures

Research Design

This exploratory survey research was descriptive and correlational in nature and was conducted utilizing mail questionnaires as outlined by Dillman (2000). The target populations for this census were identified as adult volunteer leaders who interact directly with youth in the 4-H Youth Development program, 4-H Youth Development agents, and State Volunteer Leadership Specialists in the United States. A random sample of 100 adult volunteer leaders who served in direct-contact roles with youth were identified by the Extension Volunteer Leadership Specialist in the 12 participating states. All 4-H agents in their state who had been employed six months or more were included in the study; a census survey was employed for the state volunteer leadership specialists.

Three states were purposefully selected from each of the four Extension Regions (North East, South, North Central and West) with an additional state selected from the South and North Central, to more accurately represent the 4-H member and adult volunteer leaders' population distribution in the United States. Twelve of 14 states originally selected to participate in the study.

In order to satisfy sampling requirements, a minimum of 100 adult volunteer leaders were randomly selected to participate in the study (with a goal of 50 volunteer leaders' responses from each state). Additionally, 50 Extension Agents and Educators who had worked six months or longer were randomly selected. All state volunteerism specialists based at 1862 land-grant universities (N = 50) were census surveyed.

Instrumentation

The samples were sent a mailed questionnaire as outlined by Dillman (2000). The questionnaire contained one qualitative and two quantitative components. The qualitative component (Part I) asked respondents to identify current or future competencies which they perceived will be needed by 4-H Youth Development volunteer leaders who work directly with youth in order to effectively deliver 4-H programs in the next decade. Part II focused on the characteristics of the respondent's volunteer leader program, including number of 4-H members, number of youth and adult volunteer leaders, middle managers, and the number of agents working with 4-H. Part III contained demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Data Collection and Analysis

Questionnaires were distributed electronically to the population of specialists and sample of agents. Specialists and agents received an e-mail message which explained the research project and invited their participation. Both groups were directed to access the appropriate version of the questionnaire via the University of Kentucky 4-H Youth Development website. The questionnaire automatically transferred responses into a data set located at Purdue University.

Questionnaires disseminated to the volunteer leaders' samples in each state were distributed via US Mail, along with a cover letter and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. Reminder postcards were mailed to non-respondents three weeks after the initial mailing, asking for a response within two weeks. Because the data which were submitted to the Purdue database were anonymous, no attempt at non-respondent follow-up was made.

Table 1.
Regional responses in the volunteer leadership education competency study with return rate

Region	Volunteer Leaders		Agents		Specialists	
	Sample	Return	Sample	Return	Sample	Return
N. East	206	99	52	38	8	8
N Cntrl	368	176	339	136	13	13
South	310	79	240	63	11	11
West	471	166	118	71	11	11
Totals	1355	520	749	308	43	43
Return Rate	38.38%		41.12%		84.00%	

Limitations

1. Due to the qualitative, exploratory nature of this study, results cannot be generalized.
2. In the southern region, nearly twice as many of the responses were from Kentucky as were from Georgia and Texas (92 versus 50) with none from Mississippi. Therefore, the results in the southern region may not be representative of the entire region

Findings

The first objective was to demographically describe and compare the three populations (volunteer leaders, agents, and volunteerism specialists) who participated in the study. While the mean age for all three groups was "40-something," agents were significantly younger (41.76 years) than both volunteer leaders and specialists (46.33 and 48.05 years, respectively.). Agents also reported serving significantly fewer years in a volunteer role (4.30 years) as compared to both volunteer leaders and specialists (11.40 and 12.36 years, respectively). Both agents and specialists had served a similar number of years as a county-based Extension Agent and Educator (10.81 and 11.39 years, respectively) and also reported being employed a similar number of years in volunteer leaders administration (9.42 and 10.74 years, respectively). Volunteer leaders, agents, and specialists all reported working with significantly different numbers of adult volunteer leaders (10.06, 97.37 and 151.98, respectively) with volunteer leaders working with fewer youth volunteer leaders (21.53) as compared to agents and specialists (75.52 and 61.82, respectively). Volunteer leaders reported serving more volunteer organizations (2.18) than either agents or specialists (1.31 and

1.19, respectively). Surprisingly, agents and specialists reported drastically different numbers when asked to identify the number of state Extension specialists working in volunteer administration. While agents reported a mean of 3.50, state specialists reported 1.05. This could be attributed to state volunteerism specialists reporting only those individuals whose Extension appointment includes volunteerism. Agents, conversely, may mistakenly believe that any state specialists who work with volunteer leaders in a programmatic role also have an appointment in volunteer administration (see Table 2).

Table 2.
Demographic Mean Values for Volunteer Leaders, Agents and Volunteer Leadership Specialists

Variable	**Volunteer Leaders Mean**	**Agents Mean**	**Volunteer Specialist Mean**	**Grand Mean**
Age	46.33 [a]	41.76 [b]	48.05 [a, c]	44.89
Years served as a volunteer leaders	11.40 [a]	4.30 [b]	12.36 [a]	8.88
Years served as an agent/educator	0.38 [a]	10.81 [b]	11.39[b]	4.31
Years served as a specialist	0.008 [a]	0.17 [a]	8.58 [b]	0.44
Years served as an administrator	0.16 [a]	0.18 [a]	1.41 [b]	0.23
Years employed as a volntr. administrator	3.17 [a]	9.42 [b]	10.74 [b]	5.85
No. of adult volunteer leaders worked with	10.06 [a]	97.37 [b]	151.98 [c]	49.47
No of youth volunteer leaders worked with	21.53 [a]	75.52 [b]	61.82 [b]	45.83
No. of organizations volunteered for	2.18 [a]	1.31 [b]	1.19 [b]	1.81
No. of 4-H members	30.51 [a]	1262.26[a,b]	122,810.4 [b]	7157.6
No. of adult volunteer leaders	6.46 [a]	165.66 [a]	9,548.88 [b]	574.78
No. of 4-H agents in county	1.80 [a]	1.52 [a]	54.27 [b]	4.54
No. of state specialists in volunteer leaders admin.		3.50 [a]	1.05 [b]	3.11
No. of key leaders/volunteer leaders supervised	10.47 [a]	95.62 [b]	40.95 [a]	44.00

The highest educational level achieved was significantly different (p = .0001) for the three groups (see Table 3). The volunteer leaders (30.43%) reported that a high school diploma was their highest educational achievement (as compared to 0.36% of agents and 0.00% of specialists) followed closely by 30.04% of volunteer leaders who had earned a bachelor's degree. This compared with 21.15% of agents and 4.88% of specialists who reported the same academic achievement.

Conversely, 75.63% of agents reported holding a master's degree, as compared with 13.76% of volunteer leaders and 58.54% of specialists. While the majority of specialists reported a master's degree as their highest educational achievement, 36.59% reported that they had earned a doctorate, which compared to 0.72% of agents and 1.55% of volunteer leaders. In general, level of education tends to increase by occupational category with specialists reporting the highest educational level, followed by agents and volunteer leaders.

Table 3.
Highest Educational Level for Volunteer Leaders, Agents and Specialists

Highest Educational Level Completed	**Volunteer leaders** [a]	**Agents** [b]	**Specialists** [c]
Some High School	1.36	0.00	0.00
High School Graduate	30.43	0.36	0.00
Certification	22.87	2.15	0.00
Bachelor's degree	30.04	21.15	4.88
Master's degree	13.76	75.63	58.54
Doctorate	1.55	0.72	36.59
	n=516	n=279	n=41

Values are expressed in percentages of volunteer leaders, agents, and specialists reporting highest educational level.
[a, b, c] Columns with different superscripts are significantly different at the .0001 value when subjected to the Chi-square test

In an open-ended question, respondents were asked to identify the area of study for their highest degree. Responses were categorically grouped into 14 subject matter areas. Educational majors were significantly different (p = .0001) for agents and specialists when compared to volunteer leaders with agents and specialists being statistically different from each other (p = .0005) (see Table 4). While all three groups reported education as their most frequent educational major, the percentage of respondents in each occupational category was significantly different. The volunteer leaders (19.62%) majored in Education, as compared with 29.78% of agents, and 51.22% of specialists. These percentages

do, however, tend to equalize somewhat when the majors of Education and "subject-Education" are combined. The volunteer leaders (30.64%), 34.93% of agents and 58.54% of specialists reported a major in an Education-related field (with the exception of Agriculture and Extension Education). Volunteer leaders were much more likely to major in a vocational, technical, computer or secretarial field (15.05%) than were either agents (0.74%) or specialists (0.00%).

While the majority of agents reported an Education major, they were also more likely to have earned their highest degree in Agriculture (19.12% as compared with 13.44% and 4.88% for volunteer leaders and specialists, respectively). Additionally, agents were the most likely to have earned their highest degree in Agriculture or Extension Education (15.81% as compared with 0.54% and 9.76% for volunteer leaders and specialists, respectively).

While the majority (51.22%) of specialists had earned their highest degree in Education, those who did not identify Education as their major area of study were more likely than either volunteer leaders or agents to hold a degree in Family and Consumer Sciences (19.51% versus 5.65% and 12.50%, respectively). Finally, volunteer leaders posted the most diverse listing of educational majors (14 areas of study) as compared with 10 for agents and eight for specialists.

Table 4.
Educational Major by Occupational Category for Volunteer Leaders, Agents, and Specialists

Educational Major	**Volunteer leaders** [a]	**Agents** [b, d]	**Specialists** [c, d]
Agriculture	13.44	19.12	4.88
Agriculture/Extension Education	0.54	15.81	9.76
Education (Adult, El. MS, EDFA, CI)	19.62	29.78	51.22
English, Math, Art, Health, History Ed	11.02	5.15	7.32
Family & Consumer Sciences	5.65	12.50	19.51
Home Economics Education	0.81	4.04	0.00

Social Work	2.42	8.46	0.00
Communications	1.08	3.68	2.44
Voc./Tech/Computer/Secretary/ Trade	15.05	0.74	0.00
Public Administration	0.27	0.74	2.44
Professional (Account, Finance, Engineer, Clergy)	9.68	0.00	0.00
Business & MBA	10.75	0.00	2.44
General	1.08	0.00	0.00
Nursing & Medical	8.60	0.00	0.00
	n=372	n=272	n=41

Values are expressed in percentages of people in each educational category reporting each competency.

[a, b, c] Columns with different superscripts are significantly different at the .0001 value when subjected to the Chi-square test.

[d] Columns with the same superscript are significantly different at the .0005 value when subjected to the Chi-square test.

Findings from this study support the concept that volunteer leaders are busy people. Almost two-thirds (61.70%) of all 4-H volunteer leaders were employed full-time, with just over one-fifth (21.08%) being employed part-time. Employment status was not found to be significantly different among Extension regions. One-sixth of 4-H volunteer leaders (16.44%) reported being unemployed. However, it is important to note that many respondents indicated on their questionnaire that they were unemployed due to retirement (see Table 5). The question then arises, how much time do volunteer leaders have to devote to their professional development as volunteer leadership educators?

Table 5.
Employment Status by Extension Region for Volunteer Leaders

	North Central	**North East**	**South**	**West**	**Total**	**n**
Full-Time Paid	58.86	63.27	65.38	62.05	61.70	319
Part-Time Paid	23.43	16.33	16.67	23.49	21.08	109

Not Employed	17.14	19.39	16.67	13.86	16.44	85
Disabled	0.57	1.02	1.28	0.60	0.77	4
	175	98	78	166		517

Values are expressed in percentages of people reporting marital status in each region for each. Values in row are not significantly different (.8588) when subjected to the Chi-square test.

4-H volunteer leaders were employed in a variety of occupations (see Table 6). The most frequently identified occupational category (29.90%) was Professional Specialty, which was listed twice as frequently as the second and third categories, Administrative Support (14.02%) and Executive/Administrator/Manager (13.81%). The fourth, fifth, and sixth most frequently identified occupational categories included Private Household (8.87%), Farming, Forestry, and Fishing (7.84%), and part-time farming (6.80%).

Table 6.
Occupations of Volunteer Leaders

Occupation	Percentage	Number
Professional Specialty	29.90	145
Administrative Support (including clerical)	14.02	68
Executive/Administrator/Manager	13.81	67
Private Household	8.87	43
Farming / Forestry / Fishing	7.84	38
Part-time Farmer (off-farm employment)	6.80	33
Technician & Related Support	4.54	22
Sales	3.51	17
Service (excluding protective & household)	2.27	11
Handlers, Equipment Cleaners, Helpers, Laborers	2.06	10
Farm Wife (listed farming & private household)	1.86	9
Machine Operating, Assembly & Inspection	1.24	6

Part-time Secretary	0.82	4
Protective Service	0.82	4
Transportation & Material Moving	0.82	4
Precision Production Craft & Repair	0.62	3
Student	0.21	1
		485

Values are expressed in percentages of volunteer leaders reporting employment in each occupational category.

The second objective focused on identifying the differences in the competencies identified by the three populations as stratified by occupation (specialist, agent, and volunteer leader). The competencies listed include: communication, organization and planning skills and records, subject matter skills, interpersonal skills, leadership, ages and stages of youth development, technology and computer, youth and adult partnerships, patience, time management and availability, organizational structure, group facilitation skills, teaching skills and program delivery, caring, diversity, behavior and conflict management, ethics and honesty and morals, risk management, recruitment, motivate, financial resources, community capacity building, experiential learning, empowerment and delegation, willing to learn, learning styles, assessment and evaluation, problem solving, marketing, club management, needs assessment, and recognition. Ten of the 32 competencies identifies in the study were significantly different when compared by the highest educational level (without regard to occupational category) of respondents. Seven of the 12 competencies exhibited a linear relationship with five of the 12 relationships increasing with level of education (see Table 7).

Table 7.
Statistically Significant Competencies Which Volunteer Leaders Need to Effectively Deliver 4-H Youth Development Programs by Highest Level of Education

Competency	**Some High School**	**High School**	**Certif -icate**	**B.S.**	**M.S.**	**Ph.D**	**Chi-square**
Ages & Stages	0.00	6.96	12.10	15.28	35.29	48.00	<.0001
Club Management	0.00	0.63	3.23	1.39	3.92	12.00	.0155
Experiential Learning	0.00	1.90	5.65	3.24	6.54	16.00	.0216

Learning Styles	0.00	0.00	2.42	3.70	5.56	8.00	.0428
Behavior/Conflict Mngmnt.	0.00	5.70	6.45	12.50	16.34	28.00	.0005
Diversity	0.00	6.96	8.06	12.96	17.65	8.00	.0084
Risk Management/Liability	14.29	5.06	8.87	9.26	12.09	32.00	.0017
Empowerment and Delegation	0.00	1.27	1.61	4.63	7.52	12.00	.0093
Care, Compassion, Love	14.29	19.62	12.10	17.13	8.82	8.00	.0151
Patience	42.86	20.89	20.97	21.76	11.44	4.00	.0018

Values are expressed in percentages of people at educational levels reporting each competency. Values in rows are significantly different when subjected to the Chi-square test.

Highly significant differences ($p < .0001$) were found between volunteer leaders, agents, and specialists on the number of organizations for which they volunteered (see Table 8). While the majority of volunteer leaders (52.40%) volunteer as leaders for one or two organizations in addition to 4-H, only about one-half that many agents and specialists (27.12% and 28.57%, respectively) did so. Moreover, 51.19% of agents and 50.00% of specialists reported no outside volunteer activity.

The variable “Ages and Stages of Youth Development” was the most significantly different competency, ranging from 0.00% for respondents with less than a High School diploma to 48% to those with a Doctorate. In general, as level of education increased, so did the frequency by which the following competencies were identified: (a) Ages and Stages, (b) Club Management, (c) Experiential Learning, (d) Learning Styles, (e) Behavior Management and Conflict Resolution, and (f) Empowerment and Delegation. Additionally, “Diversity” closely followed this pattern and was linear with all respondents except those with a Doctorate. Similarly, “Risk Management/Liability” also displayed a similar linear relationship, with the exception that those respondents without a High School diploma identified it at a level similar to that of agents (14.29 versus 12.09%).

A negative linear relationship was observed for two variables. As level of education declined, the greater the frequency with which the following competencies were identified: (a) Care, Compassion, and Love and (b) Patience. These competencies were the least frequently identified by those respondents with a doctorate and increased in frequency of response as level of education declined.

Table 8.
Number of Organizations Volunteered for by Occupational Code for Volunteer Leaders, Agents, and Specialists

	Volunteer leaders	**Agents**	**Specialists**	**Total**
0	13.15	51.19	50.00	28.80
1	27.35	12.20	19.05	21.45
2	25.05	14.92	9.52	20.68
3	15.87	8.81	4.76	12.75
4	10.86	10.51	16.67	11.03
5 – 15	7.73	2.38	0.00	5.39
	n = 479	n = 295	n = 42	

Values are expressed in percentages of people in each occupational category reporting the number of organizations for which they are volunteering.
Values in rows are significantly different ($p<.0001$) when subjected to the Chi-square test.

Although the three groups differed on the percent of the sample who volunteered for different organizations, volunteer leaders, agents, and specialists generally volunteered for the same types of organizations.

Implications and Conclusions

First, 4-H volunteer leaders are more highly educated than those from earlier studies (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Parrott, 1977) with 68.22% having earned a degree or post-high school certification. Agents should take advantage of this professionalization of the 4-H volunteer leader cadre by identifying and developing higher level volunteer leadership roles which utilize the expertise, talents and skills of a more highly educated cadre of volunteer leaders. Of those 4-H volunteer leaders who have earned a college degree or certification, just over 30% hold a degree in education. Staff could draw upon this expertise and engage volunteer leaders in teaching or leadership roles, either with youth or adults.

Nest, the higher educational level of volunteer leaders exerts an impact on both the content and delivery methods used for leadership education. Volunteer leaders are better able to learn about leadership education than they were 40 years ago due to their higher education levels. Additionally, today's volunteer cadre is more highly skilled than previously and is better equipped to deliver and teach leadership education to 4-H youth.

Because the educational majors for volunteer leaders are more diverse than those for agents or specialists, agents should take advantage of this broad range of backgrounds and experiences to involve current volunteer leaders as resource persons. This would afford the identification of educational resources that may be missing from existing volunteer leadership rosters. Additionally, selected volunteer leaders could also be qualified to teach leadership education to other volunteers.

Similar to volunteer leaders, "education" was most often identified by agents and specialists as their most frequently earned college major. Two important differences, however, should be noted. Ninety-five percent of specialists and 75.63% of agents have earned a master's degree, whereas only 13.76% of volunteer leaders have a master's. Additionally, 19.62% of volunteer leaders reported an education major compared with 29.78% for agents and 51.22% for specialists. Volunteer leaders, therefore, have greater diversity in educational degrees than do either agents or specialists. This wider variety of educational background should be used to advantage by agents when recruiting individuals to share learning experiences or delivery leadership education. Leadership education can, of course, be taught as a component of nearly every 4-H learning experience, project, or activity.

In addition, staff should be cognizant of the educational background of volunteer leaders and should provide volunteer leaders development opportunities (for those with the desire and the education) that focus on providing technical, subject-matter focused information, rather than on teaching and learning styles. Volunteer leaders without an educational background are likely to need development opportunities involving ages and stages of youth development, teaching methods and strategies, and learning styles.

Ten of the 32 competencies were found to be significant when stratified by level of education. Of these 10, eight were linear or nearly linear and increased in importance in direct relation to educational level. These eight competencies included ages and stages of youth development, club management, experiential learning, learning styles, behavior and conflict management, diversity, risk management-liability and empowerment-delegation. It could be argued that most, if not all, of these competencies are more academic in nature. Agents and specialists should plan to integrate these competencies into volunteer leaders' development activities and focus their attention on volunteer leaders with less education in order to ensure that they develop competence in these topics.

This study reveals that level of education has no impact upon 10 of the fundamental skills or competencies needed to effectively deliver 4-H programs and activities. People from all levels of education had consensus on many fundamental competencies needed to deliver 4-H programs. These included (a) communication, (b) organization and planning, (c) subject matter, (d) leadership, (e) technology, (f) youth and adult partnerships, (g) time management, (h)

organizational structure of 4-H and CES, (i) group facilitation skills, and (j) teaching skills. These "fundamental core competencies" upon which all three populations readily concur, could be offered as the foundation for leadership education for volunteer leaders. This leadership education program could consist of educational volunteer development workshops and should be supported by both volunteer leadership educators and extension professionals alike.

The belief that volunteer leaders are busy people was upheld by this study as 61.70% were employed full-time with an additional 21.08% being employed part-time. The percentage of full- and part-time employees was not significantly different among regions. Therefore, 4-H professionals should not hesitate to recruit prospective volunteer leaders who are employed outside of the home. However, highly significant differences ($p<.0001$) were found between volunteer leaders, agents, and specialists on the number of organizations for which they volunteered outside of 4-H. The majority of volunteer leaders (52.49 %) volunteered for one or two organizations, only about one-half that many agents and specialist (27.12% and 28.57% respectfully) did so. More over, 51.19% of the agents and 50.00% of the specialists reported no outside volunteer activity.

Finally, nearly 30% of employed volunteer leaders worked in a professional specialty field. An additional 14.02% worked in administrative support and 13.81% were employed as an executive, administrator, or a manager. This supports the concept that volunteer leaders bring tremendous skills and expertise to their volunteer leaders' role. Many of those employed in a professional specialty field can utilize these skills in their volunteer leaders' role. Agents should not hesitate to recruit volunteer leaders outside of the traditional club-oriented, direct contact roles. Given the current research base on episodic volunteer leaders' roles, agents should design short-term volunteer leaders' roles and recruit episodic volunteer leaders to serve those positions. In order to expand the volunteer leadership base of county programs, agents and volunteer leaders should recruit for specific skills

References

Banning, J. W. (1970). *Recruiting and training 4-H leaders—what studies show?* Washington, DC: Cooperative Extension Service, USDA and State Land Grant Universities Cooperating, 1970.

Clark, R. C., & Skelton, W. (1950). *The 4-H club leader*. New York State College of Agriculture, Bulletin 94. Ithaca: Cornell University.

Culp, III, K. (Dec. 1996). Identifying continuing and non-continuing adult 4-H volunteer leaders: How have they evolved over time? *Journal of Agricultural Education, 37, 4,* 44-51.

Denmark, K. L. (1971). *Factors affecting the identification, recruiting and training of volunteer 4-H adult leaders in Texas.* Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. Texas A & M University, College Station.

Deppe, C. A. (1998). O*hio 4-H agents' perceptions of the level of importance and frequency of use of the eighteen components of the GEMS model of volunteer administration*. Unpublished master's thesis. The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The total design method.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Johnstone, J., & Riveria, R. (1965). *Volunteer leaders for learning: A study of the educational pursuits of American adults*. Chicago: Aldine.

King, J. E. (1998). *Ohio 4-H agent's perceptions of the importance of and their competence with selected volunteer management competencies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Kohlhagen, B. S. (1999*). Kentucky 4-H agents' perceptions of the level of competency and frequency of use of volunteer development activities.* Unpublished master's thesis. The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Murk, P. J., & Stephan, J. F. (1990). *Volunteer leaders enhance the quality of life in a community...or (How to get them, train them and keep them).* Salt Lake City, UT. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 326 639).

National 4-H Headquarters (2002). *National 4-H Youth Enrollment Report, Fiscal Year 2001*. Retrieved from http://www.ces.ncsu.edu/pods/Volunteer/index/shtml.

Parrott, M. A. (1977). *Motivation, personal and social characteristics of 4-H*

leaders. Unpublished M.S. thesis. Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Editor's introduction. *Journal of Extension, 28(3),* 21.
SAS 8.01 (2002). SAS Institute, Cary, NC.

Stone, J. M. (1983). *How to work with groups: Guidelines for volunteer leaders.* Springfield, IL: CC Thomas.

Wessel, T., & Wessel, M. (1982). *4-H: An American idea 1900-1980.* Washington, D.C.: National 4-H Council.

Biography

Renee McKee, Ph.D., is the Program Leader for 4-H Youth Development at Purdue University. She served as the Volunteer Leadership Development President prior to being appointed State 4-H Program Leader. She is a member of NAE4-HA and ESP.

Patrick Nestor, Ed.D., is the Volunteer Development Specialist at West Virginia University at Jackson's Mill State 4-H Camp. Pat is actively engaged in leadership education for county staff, youth and adult volunteers in West Virginia, and heads up the WV 4-H Volunteerism Task Force.

Ken Culp, III, Ph.D., is the Volunteerism Specialist for 4-H Youth Development at the University of Kentucky. He has served as the past-president, president, vice-president and secretary of ALE and is also a member of NAE4-HA, ARNOVA, ALE, and was a member of AVA. He has authored or co-authored 22 journal articles.

JOLE Submission Guidelines

Appropriateness of Topic for JOLE

Articles should relate to both leadership and education, but need not be balanced in their focus and may emphasize either leadership or education. If you are uncertain about the appropriateness of your topic please review previous papers and, if needed, contact the editor. JOLE does not accept submittals published previously or under review by another journal.

Submitting an Article to JOLE

Papers are received by email only, sent to: leader@tamu.edu. All submittals must be sent as a Word file with a cover memo indicating authors, affiliation, contact, and proposed category. The journal solicits articles in four categories:

- Research Feature
- Theoretical Feature
- Application Brief
- Idea Brief or Commentary

Please focus your article on a specific category and indicate with your cover email. Complete information about the categories is provided at Categories of Articles.

Review Process

Upon receipt of your paper the editor will send notice of receipt to the contact author. The editor will review the submittal for suitability for the journal and specific category. If not suitable the editor will provide guidance for the author. If suitable, members of the editorial board, or selected guest referees, will review the submittal.

How to Prepare to Write an Article for JOLE

A proven strategy is to review past issues of JOLE and read articles in the same category. As JOLE is a new journal and the number of past issues is developing, authors are encouraged to look at the Journal of Extension www.joe.org which has similar categories. First time authors are encouraged to closely review, even outline, other papers to understand the logic and flow of an acceptable paper in each category.

Write for a Professional and Academic Audience

JOLE articles are intended to demonstrate scholarship but are also expected to be readable and useful to a wide audience, including people who speak English as a second language. Hence, they must be written clearly without losing their scholarly value.

For more information visit the JOLE website at: www.fhsu.edu/jole

Le Culminant

The Editor wants to remind any interested authors to submit articles to leader@tamu.edu as soon as possible for review in the Winter 2006 issue.

Note that the style guidelines for JOLE have undergone revision recently. As always…suggestions to the Editor are welcomed and they are often implemented!

"You cannot live a perfect day without doing something for someone who will never be able to pay you back."

- Sam Rutigliano, Retired Football Coach