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Adult perceptions of youth leadership development

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ADULT PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

in

The School of Human Resource Education and Workforce Development

by

Laura Marie Brumbaugh
B.S., Louisiana State University, 2005
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe southern region 4-H educator’s training experiences and attitudes, demographics, and leadership beliefs and attitudes. Based on a review of literature, most youth development workers tend to bring similar beliefs and attitudes to their work (Huebner, 2003). The Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development Questionnaire, a twenty seven item survey, including multiple choice, open-ended, ranking, likert scale, and demographic questions, was developed and distributed online to all 4-H agents in the following United States southern regional states: Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

Overall, southern region youth educators viewed youth leadership development training as very or somewhat important. The most attended youth leadership development training method by youth educators was workshops. Youth educators most preferred face to face type trainings, such as workshops and district/regional/area trainings.

Southern region youth educators ranked the ability of a leader to make decisions as the highest item in the leadership belief and attitude, which could be very helpful when teaching about youth and adult partnerships during a youth leadership development training. Youth educators felt that group leaders did not have to be knowledgeable about leadership theory, which would suggest that youth leadership development clubs tend to focus on context rather than content.

The majority of the respondents were Caucasian and female. It was found that southern region youth educators hold rather similar views about leadership, regardless of age, gender, office location, level of education and years of service.
Numerous scholars have studied leadership and defined it many different ways (Bass, 1981; MacNeil, 2006; Rost, J., 1993). Common definitions include a position of authority one possesses; an action of leading a group; a set of characteristics one possesses, the ability to lead one’s self and what motivates one to success. Adults have been the focus of leadership research and have served as the population around which leadership theories have been developed (MacNeil, 2006). Historically, youth have often been overlooked in the field of youth leadership development, where learning leadership happens by accident (Klau, 2006). Today there is a growing emphasis on leadership development in schools, as well as non-formal education programs (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Roach, 1999; Strobel & Nelson, 2007). Positive youth development programs are identified as such because they have a variety of both structured and unstructured activities for youth to participate in that promotes healthy development (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Program objectives and the environment in which the program is implemented are other integral parts of positive youth development (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Another essential component which much emphasis is placed is leadership development (Larson, 2000; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). From the most traditional methods of youth holding officer positions in a club, to a more involved approach of youth advocacy, there are numerous ways that leadership is practiced. In 4-H youth development, developing leaders is a focus of the program. In the 4-H program, it is implied that members learn leadership by being a 4-H member. Simply allowing a youth to hold an office in a club does not make them a leader (MacNeil, 2006; O’Donoghue, Kirshner, & McLaughlin, 2006). The youth
educators who are responsible for the program hold a great amount of responsibility to teach leadership. It is important that youth educators are aware of the great responsibility of teaching leadership to the youth participants in the program and that they have a great effect on learning (Astroth, Garza, & Taylor, 2004). According to Astroth et al. (2004), there is agreement within the field that a program’s effectiveness relies on certain attitudes and beliefs held by youth workers.

Rationale

The 4-H youth development program is a part of each state’s land grant university system. In the 4-H youth development program, youth leadership development is a focus under the citizenship mission mandate. Leadership development in youth is of vital importance because it aids in positive development by allowing youth to explore their internal motivations, establish a sense of control over their lives, and develop a moral compass. (Camino & Zeldin, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). To ensure that youth grow into contributing members of their communities, it is essential that leadership education be present during adolescence and into adulthood in order for individuals to develop and practice leadership skills (MacNeil, 2006; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

As young adults, the opportunities to practice leadership in 4-H are abundant. There are numerous formal ways youth can experience leadership, as a club officer, state board member, or an appointed advisory committee member. However, acknowledging only those formal leadership positions as opportunities to learn about leadership is dangerous (MacNeil, 2006). Youth leadership development happens internally through both learning and practicing leadership (O’Donoghue, Kirshner, &
McLaughlin, 2006; Zimmerman, 2000). It is important to not only hold an office in an organization, but to attend trainings on communication skills, group facilitation and internal leadership. This approach allows for practice, reflection and application of learning, which is an example of using the experiential learning model to teach leadership skills. It is a process that, over time, youth learn the ability to inspire change within themselves and their communities building social capital (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).

Educators play an important role in youth leadership development (Barcelona, Hurd, & Bruggeman, 2011; MacNeil, 2006; Woyach, 1996). They create the program’s goals and objectives and serve as partners with youth throughout the development progression. They are the primary educators managing the program. Attitudes and beliefs of leadership can greatly influence the approach educators take to leadership development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). The program’s capacity to make an impact on the youth it serves relies on the educators that work with the youth (Astroth, Garza, & Taylor, 2004).

Youth leadership is important because adolescence is an ideal developmental period for leadership development because present and future social capitalism can be increased through leadership education programs. Also, leadership development has become a focus in higher education as universities have begun to offer classes in leadership.

**Adolescent development as an ideal time for leadership development.** Why is adolescence the ideal time for youth leadership development? Leadership development assists the adolescent during the transitional time between childhood and adulthood (Hancock, Dyk, & Jones, 2012; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). During
adolescence, youth frequently examine their abilities to lead (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). When youth receive leadership development opportunities during adolescence, the process awakens their inner voice and their power to make decisions that impact their life (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

During this time in their development, adolescents are able to start thinking about the world in a new, broader context (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). They become idealists, wanting to reject practical applications to problems (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Idealism creates a perfect context for youth to practice leadership, as they strive for others to see their solutions to existing problems in society (Muuss, 1980; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). They see themselves as capable of making an impact on the world’s problems (Menge, 1982; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). During this time of development, leadership skills can be formed and practiced using a preferred idealistic approach to solving problems (Menge, 1982; van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

Adolescence is a period when youth seek independence (Juhasz, 1982; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). This happens in different circumstances, including establishing a separation from primary adults in their lives such as parents and teachers, making their own decisions and learning how to accept the consequences of the decisions they make (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). While establishing their own independence, adolescents are thus leading themselves, which is a first step in leadership development (Ryan & Deci, 2000; van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

Along with establishing independence during adolescence, leadership is developed during identify formation, as youth begin to learn socially acceptable behavior and social expectations (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). During this stage of
development, youth begin to form their identity, which generally involves finding their place in society (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Adolescents usually gravitate to people who they want to be like and categorize themselves by who they want to become rather than who they are now (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). They start to understand the meaning of values and their role in social groups, thus beginning to understand the role of power and influence in leading people (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). The danger is if they do not fully appreciate the power their leadership has on a group of people and they misuse their leadership through negative behaviors.

Adolescence is a time of physical, emotion and cognitive development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). It can also be an ideal time for leadership development as well (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

**Opportunity to Increase Social Capital.** Social capital can be defined as, “the web of cooperative relationships between citizens that facilitate resolution of collective action problems” (Brehm and Rahn, 1997, p. 999). Leadership helps build social capital within communities. As youth learn leadership, they develop an increased awareness of what is expected of them as a leader (Smith, Gary, & Ketring, 2005). Research suggests that youth who learn leadership through a positive leadership development program gain a sense of autonomy and increased confidence (Rose-Krasnor, et al., 2006; Richman & Shaffer, 2000). The independence and confidence gained by youth gives them the tools to build relationships between community members. Youth make contributions within their communities through involvement (MacNeil, 2006; Zeldin & Camino, 1999).
Social capital is also increased through leadership development by equipping youth as resources to be used in the community. Youth’s leadership skills can offer an abundance of resources to solve problems within a community including role models, mentors, committee members, and well educated youth (Rose-Krasnor, et al., 2006). Youth’s involvement in positive youth leadership development has been linked to educational achievements and a reduction in disruptive and risky behaviors (Rose-Krasnor, et al., 2006). Youth participants receiving youth leadership education have also stayed in school, attended college and are able to set career goals (Rose-Krasnor, et al., 2006). Lastly, leadership development has been linked to positive social development in youth participants (Rose-Krasnor, et al., 2006). Social development includes the ability to develop healthy interpersonal connections, peer support, social integration and community ties, which establishes a commitment to helping others (Rose-Krasnor, 2006, p. 385). All of these factors will invariably increase the potential of social capital being produced in a community.

**Higher Education Focus.** Higher education has invested in leadership programming (Birkenbolz, & Schumacher, 1994; Dugan, & Komives, 2007). Many universities offer leadership opportunities to students, which includes both academic and campus life experiences (Birkenbolz & Schumacher, 1994; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Leadership programs have been introduced into higher education through the expansion of curricular and co-curricular leadership programs and leadership research being conducted at higher education institutions (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The increased focus on leadership in higher education has proven to increase autonomy,
civic engagement, character development, academic performance, and personal development of those students participating (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 8).

In order to have a deeper understanding of the current 4-H leadership program in the southern region, youth educators’ leadership beliefs and attitudes need to be accessed for commonalities. Also, by looking at current youth leadership training opportunities, more meaningful future professional development opportunities can be developed. By describing both overall leadership attitudes and beliefs and training opportunities and attitudes, it may allow improvement upon existing local youth leadership development programs and statewide youth leadership professional development opportunities offered. The future will only benefit from the evaluation by providing an overall synopsis of how southern region 4-H educators feel about leadership and develop relevant youth leadership training opportunities in the future.

Problem Statement

The 4-H program has a variety of teen leadership development programs in each county. These clubs’ basic intent is to foster leadership skills within youth in 7th-12th grades. Delivery modes and club activities vary by county, and thousands of youth have participated in these clubs. The 4-H program claims success with the development of leadership skills among members of these clubs. However, there is no current evaluation that directly considers youth educator’s beliefs and attitudes on youth’s leadership skill development. It has been determined that most youth development workers tend to bring similar beliefs and attitudes to their work (Huebner, 2003). Identifying these beliefs and attitudes allows for the field to identify some youth worker commonalities that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth
leadership development program. These commonalities can help to develop an indicator of competency in youth workers. This indicator can assist in identifying beliefs and attitudes that they need more training in and help them develop a professional development plan that will strengthen those beliefs and attitudes that they may lack. In order to provide effective professional development opportunities for educators who work with youth leadership clubs, the following things need to be assessed, including describing youth worker’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership and youth leadership development training opportunities offered from the state level.

**Purpose of the Study**

The overall purpose of the study is to describe southern region 4-H educator’s training experiences and attitudes, demographics, and leadership beliefs and attitudes. The results of this study could help identify similar beliefs and attitudes of youth workers and allow for the field to identify some youth worker commonalities that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth leadership development program. The data collected may inform existing 4-H youth leadership development programs and existing training opportunities.

**Limitations**

The researcher does not have access to all southern region 4-H youth educators. Not all 4-H educators work with the leadership development program in their county.

**Assumptions**

All counties/parishes have some form of youth leadership development program, either formal or informal.
Research Objectives

Objective 1- To describe the educators who work with the youth leadership development programs in the southern 4-H region using the following demographics:

- Age
- Gender
- Race
- State of residence
- County/Parish office location
- Highest level of education
- Years as a youth educator
- Percentage of 4-H assignment
- Leadership positions held in an external organization

Objective 2- To describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training using the following topics:

- Types of youth leadership development training received while employed by cooperative extension
- Number of hours of youth leadership development training received
- Perceived importance of youth leadership development training
- Youth leadership development training received from the state 4-H office
- Sufficiency of training offered by the state 4-H office
- Potential topics requested to be covered
- Potential youth leadership development training delivery modes requested from the state 4-H office
Objective 3-To describe youth educator’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership.

Objective 4-To determine if differences existed between the mean score for leadership beliefs and attitudes and selected demographics:

- Age
- Gender

Objective 5-To determine if a relationship existed between leadership beliefs and attitudes and:

- Office Location
- Education Level
- Years of Service
- Percentage of 4-H appointment

**Significance of Study**

This study may inform the 4-H program youth leadership development component. It has been determined that most youth development workers tend to bring similar beliefs and attitudes to their work (Huebner, 2003). Identifying these beliefs and attitudes allows for the field to identify some youth worker commonalities that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth leadership development program. In order to develop youth leaders, southern region 4-H youth development programs need to provide youth educators with the tools and trainings to organize effective youth leadership development programs. This study seeks to inform professional development opportunities that are offered to youth educators the best practices of youth leadership development. Through this study, the researcher hopes to begin to develop a deeper understanding of southern regional 4-H youth educator’s leadership
development competencies through the description of youth educator’s common leadership attitudes and beliefs and preferred training experiences that could be offered by the state 4-H departments.

**Definition of Terms**

For this study the researcher has defined the most commonly utilized terms:

**Leadership**: Leadership is an interpersonal process, developed over time, through a duel process of learning and practicing both “ability” leadership through “knowledge, skills and talents” with “authority” leadership “voice, influence and decision-making power” that not only makes the individual better, but guides and inspires the people, groups and “community” they interact with (MacNeil, 2006).

**Youth Leadership Development**: An approach to youth leadership development from Libby et al. (2006) “emphasizes the developmental areas of leading and connecting and includes training in skills such as self-advocacy and conflict resolution; exposure to personal leadership and youth development activities, including community service; and opportunities that allow youth to exercise leadership” (p. 18).

**Jr. Leader Club**: a club established in each county that provides leadership development to youth (Enfield, 2001).
CHAPTER 2.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Leadership Overview

The noun “leadership,” first used in 1821, is defined as “the office or position of a leader” (Webster’s Dictionary, 2008). This is a disserving definition to leadership research. If leadership was this easy to define and understand, then why have there been seemingly countless hours of research dedicated to developing a further understanding of the topic? The amount of people who have attempted to define leadership is probably the same number of leadership definitions that can be found (Kleon & Rinehart, 1998). Finding a universal definition of leadership is difficult.

According to MacNeil (2006), “For nearly a century, leadership scholars have attempted to define the concepts of “leadership” and “leader” and to understand the essential attributes, functions, and circumstances that characterize effective leaders” (p. 27). Leadership is complex, and despite the numerous publications addressing leadership, the concept remains rather elusive. (Bolman & Deal, 1991; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Although there are numerous definitions, in this literature review the following will be used to define leadership. Leadership is an interpersonal process, developed overtime, through a duel process of learning and practicing both “ability” leadership through “knowledge, skills and talents” with “authority” leadership “voice, influence and decision-making power” that not only makes the individual better, but guides and inspires the people, groups and “community” they interact with (MacNeil, 2006).
Types of Leadership

A century’s worth has been published on adult leadership theories. The concept has grown through an evolution, beginning with the influence from great man theories in its early inception, to looking at a more organizational approach today (MacNeil, 2006). In the past, adult leadership was defined as a position in one’s society. To date the notion of leadership is an ever-changing concept that is continually enriched and furthered by research and the addition of theories.

The earliest leadership theory was the great man and trait theories. The great man theory assumed that leaders were born and could not be taught leadership skills (MacNeil, 2006). This theory is one that many associate with leaders today. The next evolution in leadership theory came with the development of trait theory. Trait theory, similar to great man theory, focused on characteristics inherited by great leaders (MacNeil, 2006). The trait theory approach took notice of the different characteristics of leaders and how they contrasted with others who were not known as leaders. (MacNeil, 2006). Theorists wanted to identify core traits of effective leaders and to understand how those traits led to effectiveness. (MacNeil, 2006).

As leadership theories continued to be developed, the contingency model theory emerged. It is suggested by the contingency model, that the enactment of interacting groups is conditional upon the interaction of leadership styles of group members and group leaders and a favorable response of the group to those styles (Fiedler, 1971). This model attributed group effectiveness to the skills of a leader and the situation that leadership takes place (Fiedler, 1971). Contingency theorists also recognized that no one leadership style works in all situations. The theory takes into consideration the
personality and motivations of the leader, task or relationship which may lead to a successful outcome (Fiedler, 1971). Another factor of the contingency model is the situational control concept. This concept looks at how the situation lends itself to the leader’s success (Fiedler, 1971). Situational control suggests that motivations of leaders will influence the success of group (Fiedler, 1971). The contingency model theory allowed the expansion of leadership within the field and the acceptance of different leadership styles to achieve success.

The next wave of leadership theories focused on behavior of the group (Rost, 1993). Behavioral theorists used psychology concepts to develop the theory (MacNeil, 2006). Motivation and influence started to be recognized as factors for people to practice leadership within a group (Bass, 1981; MacNeil, 2006). These works looked at why certain leaders gained followers (MacNeil, 2006). During this time, the modern leadership theory began to take shape when group dynamics began to be noted.

Transactional leadership theory began looking at the transactions between individuals and that leadership existed within those relationships. (MacNeil, 2006). Management leadership theories identified a transactional leadership model. This model of leadership is dependent upon an interchange between the leader of a group and the group participants (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). The theory focuses on what the leader does in terms of getting followers to follow them. It looks at what rewards work to get the group to buy into the leader (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Transactional leaders are usually those that can be seen and heard within the organization (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).
Next, literature started to recognize the transformational leadership model. Transformational leadership focuses on the process of developing into a leader and assisting in understanding the process of becoming a leader (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees by being captivating, encouraging and understanding to those they are leading (Bass, 1990). It has been found that these types of leaders have differing personal leadership styles (Bass, 1990). Within the transformational leadership theory is the concept of self-determination theory. Bass found that many transformational leaders are found to have self-determination and self-confidence characteristics (Bass, 1990).

Adult leadership theory and practice has evolved over time and is not finished progressing. As leadership literature continues to evolve, the concept of leadership can become more diluted. However, adult leadership theory is by no way linear, and it is possible to see other leadership theories in modern applications (MacNeil, 2006). By looking at leadership in terms of abilities and authority in the definition stated above, it allows the field to look at leadership in a way that was first begun by trait theorists. To expand the knowledge base of leadership can only enhance the field and bring about new ideas and approaches to adult leadership. Do these leadership theories apply to the training and development of youth leadership today? And where is an evolution of youth leadership theory in the literature?

**Adult vs. Youth Leadership Theory**

With the evolution of adult leadership theory spanning a century, there is an evident gap in youth leadership theory. When comparing youth and adult leaders, it has
been professed that the theoretical foundations between the two should be different (Kress, 2006). Literature that focuses on adult leadership development suggests that an emphasis on both the ability of adults to learn leadership and the ability to carry out actual leadership tasks are both imperative in the development of a successful leader (MacNeil, 2006). Youth leadership development literature focuses on the youth learning about leadership, and does not focus on making the learning meaningful through experiential learning opportunities (MacNeil, 2006). The focus is more on content and not on the context of how youth are learning leadership (MacNeil, 2006). “Simply inviting youth to be a part of the “leadership team” doesn’t mean that young people will come away with a self-concept of “leader” or improved leadership skills, or that they will have had opportunities to influence the group’s direction or make decisions” (MacNeil, 2006, p. 37). The youth development field should take note of the differences between adult and youth leadership research. The evidence is limited however, because there is a significant shortage of youth leadership development research available.

**Youth Leadership Development Overview**

Youth leadership development is a relative new field of study (Libby, et al., 2006). “For example, in a comprehensive review conducted by Bass of more than five thousand leadership studies, there is nothing about youth as leaders or about leadership development for youth” (MacNeil, 2006, p. 29). The lack of rigorous research is a factor, along with the absence of youth leadership theories. “At worst, youth leadership programs are described as an almost negative space into which practitioners project their own beliefs about what youth need” (Klau, 2006, p. 60). There are numerous programs that teach youth leadership development. Examples of those
are 4-H, FFA, the YELL program, etc. The real examination needs to be not only on the context in which information is being delivered to program participants but the content that is being taught as well. The mystery and gap of youth leadership development theory allows for the ease of applying numerous approaches to leadership without youth workers really grasping what should be taught.

Libby, et al. (2006) identified some key concepts that the youth leadership development field would benefit from further studying. These concepts were identifying components of effective youth leadership development; the use of youth-adult partnerships in youth leadership development and what things can enrich youth engagement (Libby et al., 2006). A clear set of competencies that a youth development worker can use as a checklist for effective youth leadership, across the field, would be highly beneficial. This would allow some continuity in key concepts that all youth leadership development programs would incorporate. In youth leadership development programs, youth-adult partnerships must exist in order to have success (Calvert, 2005). When identifying key concepts to incorporate into youth leadership development programs, youth adult partnerships would partner well with teaching practices identified. If the field has a better understanding of the things that got youth engaged those things could become intentional components added to sustain youth leadership development programs (Libby et al., 2006). The mystery of youth leadership development will not go away until there is rigorous research provided on not only a practicum but principles of youth leadership. The bottom line is youth leadership development theory needs to be created. The purpose of this literature review is to look at youth leadership
development that exists, theory, practice, effective youth development programs and effective youth worker characteristics and competencies.

While there is no youth leadership development theory per say, successful youth leadership development programs exist and are thriving. Youth leadership development is an approach over time that not only teaches about leadership, but allows youth the opportunity to apply leadership principles to their everyday lives. This application can be serving as a mentor, teaching a workshop, leading a meeting, speaking to a group, service-learning or community service projects. It also allows the youth to identify their internal motivators and use those to learn leadership. These internal motivators can be aspirations, perceived self-competence, motivation to do well and initiative (Klau, 2006). The real key to successful youth leadership development is to explore what outside barriers are there to the internal motivators and how to use their leadership skills to overcome the barriers and succeed (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Just like finding a universal definition of leadership, a standard approach to teaching youth leadership development is also difficult to find. However, just like with leadership, incorporating ideas from several can provide a comprehensive approach to youth leadership development and give us a broad area of focus. An approach to youth leadership development from Libby et al., (2006) “emphasizes the developmental areas of leading and connecting and includes training in skills such as self-advocacy and conflict resolution; exposure to personal leadership and youth development activities, including community service; and opportunities that allow youth to exercise leadership” (p. 18).
Youth leadership development is a broad topic; however it is not something that needs to be approached with a future orientation. Youth have the ability to learn and practice leadership in the present. Many times, in the literature, youth are mentioned as only having the ability to lead when they become adults rather than acknowledging that youth have the ability to lead in the present (Kress, 2006; MacNeil, 2006). Many times in the past, literature has suggested that youth learn now and practice later (Gardner, 1990). The idea that some things cannot be taught but must be learned through experience is a key element of youth development (Kress, 2006). This rhetoric gives adults comfort as they perceive youth as being trained for the future and will not be threatened by youth’s leadership ability and authority (Kress, 2006).

“The field of youth development, and the increasing body of research in the field, has also contributed to arguments for the need for youth leadership development, often emphasizing how those learning experiences might be structured, implemented and measured” (MacNeil, 2006, p. 30). A focus on leadership development should be a focus on youth development professionals. By providing high quality leadership development experiences, it will provide an opportunity for those youth to gain a sense of independence and find a place where they belong by working within a group of peers and caring, supportive adults (MacNeil, 2006). Within the limited youth leadership development literature, a large focus is on core pieces of a program and specific programming practices (MacNeil, 2006). Without the use of a standard youth leadership theory, what is the youth development field using to develop effective programs for participants?
Exploring Youth Leadership Theory and Practice

Youths’ adolescent developmental needs could help guide leadership development practice. The developmental needs of adolescents clearly support leadership development throughout their growth. During this developmental stage, adolescents seek an opportunity to separate themselves from their parents and other authority figures (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). They want to develop autonomy through establishing their own identity and are open to learning and trying new things (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). They have the ability during the developmental stage to alter their way of thinking about the world (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). An adolescent’s behavior can be uncertain at times (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). It is a time in their development to explore (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). If youth educators understand adolescence development, they can apply these developmental needs into leadership programming. The youth leadership development program will not only teach leadership, but aid in positive adolescent development.

van Linden and Fertman (1998) identified four areas in adolescent development that can be used as concepts in youth leadership programs. The four areas are motivations of adolescents, establishing a sense of control over their lives, developing a sense of right or wrong, and determining the effects of gender on leadership development among adolescents (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

Examining what motivates adolescents can be very insightful into development, because learning can be correlated to these motivations. In adolescent development, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs provides the foundation for adolescent motivation. According to Maslow (1970), humans have a hierarchy of needs, which range from the
lower-level basic need of survival to a higher level need of self-actualization. When looking at Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, lower-level needs are survival, safety, self-esteem and belonging and love (Maslow, 1970). The higher-level needs are knowing and understanding, aesthetics and self-actualization (Maslow, 1970). Using Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, the theory looks at the person as a whole. If the youth in the program do not have their lower-level needs met, then it may mean that they have little interest or concern with learning leadership (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). In order to have success with each participant, educators must value that each participant is different and has different development needs based on the level their needs are being met. Youth need to feel safe and know where they stand before any type of learning of leadership can take place (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Youth development educators must also realize that their program goals may conflict with the needs of the adolescents they are working with (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Youth educators need to allow youth the chance to understand the process of learning leadership as one of intentional learning opportunities of skills that aid in their overall development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

Another area that provides adolescents with positive development is for youth to establish a sense of control over their lives. Rotter’s Locus of Control theory is useful in youth leadership development. Rotter concluded there are two types of locus of control, internal vs. external (Rotter, 1954). Individuals who are motivated by an internal locus of control typically make decisions based on the sheer pleasure of doing something (Rotter, 1954). There is no external reward for doing something (Rotter, 1954). External locus of control typically involves receiving some sort of tangible reward for
completing an activity (Rotter, 1954). The reward is the motivation for the completion of tasks (Rotter, 1954). Either type of control is determined by the individual (Rotter, 1954). It has been found that over time, youth begin with an external locus of control and by adulthood have switched to an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1954). Youth who feel they have control over their lives generally display stronger leadership skills (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). This is critical in leadership development to help adolescents feel they are in control and have the opportunity to practice decision making (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). By interjecting a youth leadership development program with opportunities for adolescents to have control over that particular aspect of their life, they can fulfill the desire to separate from adults during this developmental stage. They are making the decisions in a youth leadership development program. Also, because it is a time of exploration, adolescents can safely explore consequences of their decisions in a youth leadership development program.

Self-determination theory explains how one’s motivation and personality can be shaped by looking at the development of personality and how one controls one’s behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci, 2000, have “found that conditions supportive of autonomy and competence reliably facilitated this vital expression of the human growth tendency, whereas conditions that controlled behavior and hindered perceived effectiveness undermined its expression” (p. 76). Ryan and Deci’s (2000) theory can be used to address adolescent development within leadership programs and to understand what motivates them. Youth leadership development is a case for autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). By allowing for autonomy instead of external control when working with youth, adolescents can indeed satisfy their desire to separate
themselves from adult figures in their lives and explore new things and approaches. By gaining a desire to be challenged, adolescents can begin to take ownership in their own leadership development potential and start to discover what motivates them to be a leader. By applying this theory to youth leadership development, the process starts to propel adolescents to want to not only practice leadership but understand leadership within themselves.

In adolescent development, Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development is also a theory to consider when developing youth leadership programs. This theory helps educators understand how youth develop their sense of right or wrong (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1997; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Kohlberg’s theory states that “adolescents pass through a sequence of stages of judgment about right and wrong” (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1997; van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 30). The theory’s findings make us aware of the importance of teaching ethical leadership to the youth involved (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). An integral part of youth leadership development is also teaching youth the importance of leading others in an ethical way (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). By pointing out their power of influence, we make adolescents aware that their leadership abilities can be used for both positive and negative behavior. Once adolescent participants in the program determine how they want to utilize their leadership abilities, it allows for them to discover what motivations lie within them. Also, by teaching ethical leadership to adolescents they can start to change the way they look at world leaders and form their own opinions on how they view their world.

Lastly, exploration of gender in adolescents can help youth educators when developing youth leadership development programs (Gilligan, Ward, & Taylor, 1988). It
was found that girls think that morality is based on having responsibility for others; therefore they are most concerned with doing something to meet the needs of others (Gilligan, Ward, & Taylor, 1988). Males on the other hand tend to think they do not have a morality responsibility to others, as that would infringe on others’ rights (Woolfork, 1995). Understanding these two differences in development between males and females allows for the youth educator to build in different learning opportunities within a program. This approach will allow for a more developmentally appropriate way for both female and male adolescents to develop their individuality. It can also allow an opportunity for males and females to learn from one another because of their different approaches.

To have success in youth leadership development programs, educators must take into account adolescent developmental needs of their participants. Also, age, social status, economic status and community all play roles in development as well (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). If educators understand what motivates adolescents, how they develop a sense of control over their lives, how they develop a sense of right or wrong and how to build autonomy among them, then an intentional process with specific objectives to meeting the end goal of leadership development can start to begin.

There is a lack of literature on the topic of youth leadership development. Many times, adult theory is applied to youth leadership development (Klau, 2006; MacNeil, 2006). That is troublesome to the field, as it has been documented that over a half million high school youth receive some form of youth leadership programming (Conner & Strobel, 2007). With so many youth being exposed to some sort of youth leadership development it is important to question what type of programming are they receiving
and what theoretical background is being used to develop such programming.

According to Conner and Strobel, “practice seems to be outpacing research and theory” (Conner & Strobel, 2007, p. 276).

What scholars have suggested is that the youth leadership development field would not benefit from a linear model that goes by age (MacNeil, 2006). According to MacNeil (2006), the field would be better served by a broad model that incorporates contexts and experiences from the individuals learning. A suggested broad model of youth leadership development would include the following: involving specific types of learning models; is developmentally appropriate in delivery; intentional group process efforts in teaching and an appreciation for diversity among participants. Youth and adult partnerships are also considered key in youth leadership development. The opportunity to practice and apply knowledge gained is another key in youth leadership development. And lastly, recognizing motivation with participants can help youth leadership development practitioners make the program effective. An investment in the social capitol during the adolescent developmental stage is one of great worth, as it is an investment in adulthood (Turkay & Tirthali, 2010).

Just as leadership was defined a century ago, many youth and adults still identify with position or authority as leadership. It would prove most beneficial if practitioners understand the lack of youth leadership development theory and keep up to date with what youth leadership development theory is published. When studying leadership development theories and literature, adult theory is prevalent with limited studies involving youth leadership development (MacNeil, 2006; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). The adult leadership development literature focuses primarily on both the learning and
practice of leadership development (MacNeil, 2006). When looking at youth leadership development, the practice is often not mentioned (MacNeil, 2006). The research that is out there focuses on the youth learning leadership, not necessarily practicing and applying skills learned (MacNeil, 2006). Before a universal youth leadership development guiding foundation is developed, more rigorous youth leadership research is needed (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).

The limited youth leadership development research that is available suggests methods of youth leadership development that include how to teach and what to teach. Understanding the motivation youth need to learn, grow and develop leadership skills should be considered in part with methods of teaching youth leadership. The mastery of skills begins with learning. The process of learning that the 4-H youth development program uses is the experiential learning model (MacNeil, 2006). Experiential learning puts the focus on the context more than the content being taught (Kolb, 1984). The model uses a do, reflect, and apply method (Kolb, 1984). Participants do an activity, then they reflect upon the meaning of it and lastly questions are posed to think about how to apply what was learned from the activity in the future (Kolb, 1984). This learning model is only effective if the participant experiences the activity first-hand and is allowed the time to have guided reflection and application (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). If participants simply do an activity, then experiential learning does not take place (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). To be effective, the literature suggests that programs teaching leadership should accentuate the experiential learning model, thus offering authentic leadership opportunities to youth (Woyach, 1996).
Another example of a specific type of learning model when teaching youth leadership development is Heifetz’s three tools in leadership education (Heifetz, 1994). They are case-in-point learning; below the neck learning and reflective practice (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). The case-in-point learning tool allows students a more personal learning experience rather than the more traditional lecture-type teaching method (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). The students in the class are allowed to experience leadership firsthand, in the classroom during real time (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). Things are happening while they are learning such as detecting informal power in the group, marginalization of students and race and gender effect on class dynamics (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). Literally exploring the case-in-point at any given time during the class, students not only learn, but actually witness leadership concepts in action. The next leadership educational tool, according to Heifetz, is below the neck learning (1994). This type of learning encourages both emotion and knowledge when practicing leadership (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). Students are asked to exercise courage and tolerance during controlled exercises in the classroom for long periods of time, which can become uncomfortable (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). Reflection on the discomfort in a safe environment is done in the classroom and allows for youth to really understand that emotions and feelings play a role in leadership (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). The last tool in leadership education identified by Heifetz is reflective practice (1994). Similar to the reflection segment in the experiential learning model, reflection is important because it makes the experience deeply personal and gives the youth meaning to a situation (Klau, 2006). Using this educational tool, students are always given chances to reflect on their choices, ways in which they reacted and consequences
of these actions (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). In the end, students are given an educational opportunity that is an in-depth intimate experience because of the reflection component (Heifetz, 1994, Klau, 2006). As students go beyond traditional lecture-type learning and experience Heifetz’s suggested tools, the youth are allowed self-exploration, in terms of influence, reflection and practice (DesMaria, et al., 2000; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).

The literature also emphasizes the use of developmentally appropriate practices when teaching leadership to youth. Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives is a good guide to use when developing youth leadership programs (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). When using Bloom’s model, adolescents are thought to best comprehend leadership concepts by using a set of tiered stages which are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956; Forehand, 2005; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Youth leadership educators must have a strong knowledge of adolescent development to provide the correct educational strategy and understand that youth need to learn leadership differently than adults (Des Marais, et al., 2000; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Things such as the need to put distance between themselves and adult figures; the need for time to unearth their thoughts, beliefs and personality; the need to discover and increase leadership skills slowly over time; and acknowledging that adolescents have impulsiveness and they need to come into their own are all key for youth educators when developing and implementing a youth leadership program (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).

While using developmentally appropriate practices when teaching leadership is important, the context in which leadership is taught, especially to youth is equally
important. A national survey from Peter Hart Research Associates in 1998 found that many people prefer “top down leadership” that comes from peers who are normal citizens who may not hold a formal leadership position in the community (Des Marais, et al., 2000, p. 3). While looking at what youth prefer, a group process approach would prove beneficial. By using a group process approach, the attention shifts from characteristics of a leader and more to the functions of the process of leadership (MacNeil, 2006). In adult leadership development, a female framework suggests using group process when developing leadership, not a dictatorial approach (MacNeil, 2006).

While leading a group, one must be able to look at different ways to complete tasks; get everyone to work toward the same goal; let their actions lead the way and allow themselves to feel passion for the group members and the goal at hand (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). This belief from Kouzes and Posner centers on the group, never mentioning a set of characteristics one possesses or things that one person achieved.

It is also beneficial to youth leadership development practitioners, while using group process to allow time for reflection. Using this tool allows youth to gain awareness of power imbalances among participants and focus on what gets done, who accomplishes the tasks and why it happened that way (MacNeil, 2006). This method of reflection allows both the practitioner and the youth involved to understand the “what” and the “why” behind the leadership process. The youth leadership development field could benefit from using the functional feminist framework, as it could guide future research and give a different approach to teach leadership. This framework inspires an individual journey that empowers the group to a common goal (MacNeil, 2006). A functional feminist framework uses collaborative leadership, which is vital to a youth
educator’s approach to teaching (MacNeil, 2006). This approach looks at how a group can overcome struggles of power and disparities among group members (MacNeil, 2006). Collaborative leadership offers a great advantage to the process of how to learn leadership, as the approach allows for a variety of different leadership styles and teaches participants how to accept others (MacNeil, 2006).

While working with groups to teach leadership, the literature also emphasizes the significance of diversity as an element in leadership development (MacNeil, 2006). In a group, diversity is desired because it can lead to creating broader perspectives for members; making better decisions and have a more amalgamated vision for the future (MacNeil, 2006). Some research suggests addressing diversity while teaching leadership has a possible effect of raising awareness of inequality in the American society (MacNeil, 2006). While teaching youth leadership, educators should consider each individual in the group before selecting teaching content and leadership experiences to address the diversity among group members including gender, social economic status, learning styles, personality types to name a few (MacNeil, 2006; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Each adolescent is different not only by obvious things such as age, gender ethnicity, but also variables such as sexual orientation, life experiences, culture, and other factors (MacNeil, 2006). According to the literature, these variables of diversity among program participants must play a role in the teaching and practicing of leadership within the program (MacNeil, 2006). Recognizing diversity in leadership styles is very important to building communication skills among youth participants. The Youth Engaged in Leadership and Learning (YELL) program “validates and celebrates different styles of leadership, allowing youth time to discover and develop their strengths.
and recognizing and praising their strengths. Through its activities and structures, it promotes an understanding of leadership that highlights key dimensions in leadership” (Conner and Strobel, 2007, p. 295). One specific example from the YELL program that exemplifies the importance of diversity in teaching was working with two different girls in the same program with different skill sets acquired. “Despite the differences in their leadership styles, YELL validated and honored both girls as leaders. YELL could recognize that its effects on individual youth would not be uniform. Adults began to emphasize the different forms of leadership that the program valued. The adults talked explicitly in sessions with the youth about the role of quiet leaders” (Conner & Strobel, 2007, p. 291-202).

The presence of youth and adult partnerships is a critical element that must be present in youth development leadership (Des Marais, et al., 2000; MacNeil, 2006; Woyach, 1996). Adults must learn how to share leadership with youth and not use them as tokens in a program (MacNeil, 2006). If adults do not or cannot see youth as partners in leadership, it can create a huge impediment for the effectiveness of the program (MacNeil, 2006). When creating and encouraging partnerships, the literature says that it is imperative to understand the differences in a partnership and mentorship (Des Marais, et al., 2000). “In a mentoring relationship, the adult is seen as the individual with the power – the experiences, resources and skills to give to a young person. Mentoring implies a leader and a follower” (Des Marais, et al., 2000, p. 4). “Partnerships are different from mentoring. Partnerships often evolve from mentoring but offer a mutually beneficial relationship for young people and adults. The success of the relationship is dependent on both parties. Each person is valued because he or she
contributes unique experiences, resources, skills and perspectives, regardless of age. Most important, both parties have the potential to learn from each other. Partnerships in which young people and adults share learning and leadership allow them to become co-creators of community” (Des Marais, et al., 2000, p. 4). The attitude and beliefs of youth development agents impact the teaching of leadership to youth. It is important for adults working with youth to be supportive of incorporating youth voice and youth and adult partnerships throughout the teaching and learning process (Ryan and Deci, 2000). It is important for adults to not fix all of the individuals and the group’s mistakes throughout the leadership educational process (Des Marais, et al., 2000). When youth have to overcome a problem, they are then being challenged and that is a teachable moment (Des Marais, et al., 2000). The adult’s role then is to be their partner, guiding youth through the problem solving process and by coaching them if ever having to accept failure (Des Marais, et al., 2000).

While youth and adult partnerships are critical to program development, having trained adults working with the youth is also critical (Seevers & Dormody, 1994). If the wrong adults are working with the youth it can be problematic, both for the youth and the program (Seevers & Dormody, 1994). Adults play a role in making sure that youth are being offered opportunities to participate in the full leadership process, including the planning, developing, implementing and assessing leadership development experiences (Seevers & Dormody, 1994). If the adults who are playing that role don’t understand the concepts of appreciating and incorporating youth voice and youth and adult partnerships into a program, then positive youth development is compromised. Cowan and Smith (2010) provide some insight to a proper youth and adult partnership, where
adults are viewed as partners to the youth while they plan a leadership activity. The adults help youth identify what leadership positions are needed and the tasks that those positions are responsible for when planning a leadership event or activity (Cowan & Smith, 2010). The key word in that sentence is “help”, as the adults are careful not to tell youth what to do or takeover, rather guide them to think through each part of the process. Adults also are very purposeful in teaching leadership skills to the youth they are working with (Cowan & Smith, 2010). The youth appreciate the confidence the adults display in them, instilling in them the belief that they can lead (Cowan & Smith, 2010).

The mastery of leadership begins with the increase of knowledge about leadership and is enhanced with the application of leadership skills within one’s daily life. It would prove beneficial to take an in-depth look at youth leadership development programs, in particular 4-H, to see what things are being taught (Radharkrishna & Doamekpor, 2009). The research suggests that “it is crucial that youth are learning leadership, not learning about leadership” (MacNeil, 2006, p. 38). Level of impact on mastery of leadership is seemingly greater when youth not only are given a solid foundation in leadership education, as well as opportunities to practice what they have learned in real life situations (MacNeil, 2006). One way to look at learning leadership is through Ricketts and Rudd’s dimension of Leadership Knowledge and Information which tells educators to focus on what adolescents need to learn about leaders and leadership before they can develop a higher level of thinking and application of leadership models (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Next, Des Marais, et al. (2000) indicated certain elements which were necessary in the development of youth leadership. They
suggest allowing youth autonomy by giving them the power to make decisions and be accountable for results (Des Marais, et al., 2000). Also, a broad context for learning and service should be present in the program, which allows for the application of leadership skills learned in conducting a service project (Des Marais, et al., 2000). And lastly, youth should be recognize the importance of their experiences, knowledge and skills gained (Des Marais, et al., 2000). This model emphasizes utilizing youth voice in programming and allowing opportunities to practice service to others (Des Marais, et al., 2000). The recognition component acknowledges what the youth learn and how much they have grown throughout the program (Des Marais, et al., 2000).

The key to teaching leadership is for educators to remember that the educational process must be sustained and enriched as youth discover what motivates them to lead (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The educator also must realize that internal motivators can be disrupted by external factors that neither the educator nor the youth can control (Ryan & Deci, 2000). What can be controlled is the approach to self-discovery (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Learning, applying, discovering and self-determination are all cornerstones to youth leadership development that practitioners need to understand for effective programming is the area of motivation (Klau, 2006). Usually, youth choose who to serve, what to learn and how to lead by what motivates them (Des Marais, et al., 2000). By letting motivation determine action, many times that is when grass-roots collaborative leadership movements being (Des Marais, et al., 2000). According to Ricketts and Rudd's (2002) attitude, will and desire are important to a youth’s learning capacity.
A fundamental belief is that autonomy produces leadership, even if just leading ones’ self. Motivation can be used in teaching leadership to mold youth into capable, functioning members of their communities by focusing on strengthening and application of competence, empathy and independence (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In youth’s development, educators can utilize intrinsic motivation tendencies for mastery and exploration to push them to grow as leaders (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivations can be used to encourage youth participants to comply with the process and be engaged in learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci’s (2000) amotivation notion is an interesting concept to consider in youth leadership development.

Amotivation is an unwillingness of the person to take action (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It can result from the experience that one is participating in to not hold importance to them, they may not feel callable of doing the activity or they may not get any satisfaction out of completing the experience (Bandura, 1986; Ryan, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000; & Seligman, 1975). The amotivation concept could explain why youth don’t lead—they don’t understand/know about expectations or enough about leadership for the learning process or activity to hold any value. Also, the desired outcome may be to be in front of the group giving orders and the guidelines set yield different outcomes than what he/she desires out of the experience. With the awareness of self-determination theory principles, a youth leadership development practitioner can become aware of the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the audience of adolescents. Motivation allows for greater autonomy, competence and relatedness among participants.
If a youth has been participating in a program where educators have utilized self-determination theory within teaching methods, youth are likely to be more engaged in the process, have less behavioral problems, fit into peer groups, have lower drop-out rates and have an overall better learning experience (Connell & Welborn, 1991; Miserandino, 1996; Vallerand & Bissonnette; 1992, Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Hayamizu, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000; and Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997). Youth tend to practice external motivated behaviors because they have been exposed to examples in their education programs of how to behave (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This is why it is critical for educators to ensure that by using this model, youth feel safe and part of the group (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Educators should heed caution while adopting autonomy into their program, as autonomy does not mean independence, rather that the individual has the chance to make choices and has the ability to critically think about both the choices they make and consequences (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

**Program Models of Youth Leadership Development**

It has been found that both high school and college aged students who are involved in clubs, such as 4-H, have been exposed to leadership development education (Birkenholtz & Schumacher, 1994; Park & Dyer, 2005). More in-depth engagement, such as being a club officer or participating in service projects have shown to increase leadership skills among participants (Birkenholtz & Schumacher, 1994; Park & Dyer, 2005).

A sustained youth leadership development program exists within the 4-H youth development program. In the 4-H youth development program, teaching leadership skills is a priority in programming. From National 4-H Headquarters, the 4-H program
was summed up in one sentence. “4-H is a community of young people learning leadership, citizenship and life skills.” By no means does this definition of the 4-H youth development program shed light on the enormity of the program; however it does claim that 4-H youth participants are leaning leadership skills. The program uses the essential elements of 4-H identified by National 4-H that youth educators are encouraged to include in programming to provide successful learning opportunities (Calvert, 2005). Those four essential elements are belonging, independence, generosity and mastery. Youth in the program need to feel a sense of belonging before anything can be taught. If youth felt they belong to the group, are safe and have the support of a caring adult, one would surmise that the young person would feel comfortable enough to want to gain mastery in a subject (Calvert, 2005). Independence can be associated with leadership. For one to practice independence, they are practicing leadership by choosing to lead themselves through intrinsic motivation or lead others to gain independence for themselves. Generosity among teens in the program is found when they practice service to and for others. Lastly, by focusing on teaching leadership principles and then allowing youth to practice and apply these principles is an opportunity to gain mastery. In 4-H, the only nationally endorsed curriculum piece used to gain mastery in leadership are independent study project books. Other mastery tools are clubs in which youth hold offices and are exposed to leadership positions.

Another focus of the 4-H youth development program is teaching life skills for youth to be functioning adults in their communities. To be a functioning adult, one must know how to lead and their best leadership styles.
The 4-H program in each state differs. Each county program focuses on the needs of the community. Leadership development is primarily done through teen leadership clubs on the parish level and state level leadership boards. These programs differ in each county in the Southern Region. However, the basis is the same. Typically, young people in grades 7th-12th are invited to join a project club that focuses on leadership. The clubs are supported and sponsored by the 4-H agent(s) within the parish. Adult volunteers may also work with the club. The majority of clubs meet at least once a month. The club has an officer team that leads meetings. A variety of activities can be found being utilized in teen leader clubs and boards including service-learning projects, community service projects, field trips, club exchanges, rewards systems and trips. What is unknown is what leadership principles are taught and emphasized to the Jr. Leader club participants in each program. Something that has been looked at and a standard identified is a 4-H youth development agent’s set of competencies that make them a successful youth worker.

**Competencies of Effective Youth Leadership Program Educators**

McLaughlin, Irby, and Langman (1994) use the term “wizardy” to explain effective youth workers. The term “wizardry,” which, although it is not magic, is almost as difficult to describe because the thing youth workers possess to be effective is so highly personal (Huebner, 2003; McLaughlin, Irby, & Langman, 1994). The skill sets that youth development workers need to be effective are quite multifaceted and interconnected (Huebner, 2003).
among youth workers. There is a definite debate on the most successful ways youth workers should acquire and or strengthen the competencies they should possess (Astroth, Garza & Taylor, 2004; Hartje, Evans, Killian, & Brown, 2008).

It has been found that successful youth development professionals apply a multitude of theoretical principles to their work with youth (Huebner, 2003). The youth development worker is expected to be successful in many different roles in their profession (Walker, 2003). They must also have an understanding of what the expectations of the job are and what they are held accountable for from supervisors, youth involved in the program, the public and volunteers they work with (Walker, 2003).

One characteristic of an effective youth worker is that they are found to be present or in the moment. They are intentional in their work because they are aware of their surroundings and the potential of the importance of their work. Being in the presence means having the skills to be in the moment, appreciating what is going on, what the youth are experiencing and being able to recall the experience in details (Krueger, 2005). Being present in the situation is one of the most significant things a youth worker can do to have an impact on the youth they work with and the overall program (Fewster, 1990). Along with being in the moment, being intentional proves beneficial (Hartje, Evans, Killian, & Brown, 2008). When a youth worker has a focus and uses certain tools to teach and engage youth, their work becomes meaningful (Krueger, 2005). The key to a youth development program is for their workers to be engaged, which creates an atmosphere of safety and belonging for a variety of youth (Hartje, Evans, Killian, & Brown, 2008).
Awareness and flexibility are other characteristics of an effective youth worker. The intentionality goes beyond specific actions, to opportunities planned, choices that are made and responses they provide to youth participants that can prove most beneficial (Huebner, 2003). Workers should be prepared to deal with challenging work (Walker, 2003). A good approach to dealing with challenges is to be content with being flexible (Huebner, 2003). A youth development worker who consistently ensures equilibrium between planned and adaptable solutions proves successful (Huebner, 2003).

Partnerships are obligatory to the effectiveness of youth workers. When asked to rank skills that were important to their success, youth workers ranked partnerships and collaborations very high (Zeldin & Camino, 1999). Educators must be able to make contacts with adults in the community and parents that are involved with the youth that are participating in the program (Huebner, 2003). Many factors impact the overall environment that can become a safe, engaging place for youth (Kruger, 2005; Maier, 1987). Those factors include the ambiance of the space as well as aesthetics, adequate space to hold activities and acoustics (Kruger, 2005; Maier, 1987). All of these factors can either diminish or improve the overall effectiveness of the experience (Krueger, 2005). Youth workers need to be highly aware of these factors to help address any of the factors that can be fixed and ultimately improve the youth’s experiences (Krueger, 2005).

Effective youth workers understand and value the benefits of their work with youth. If an educator feels competent in their ability to teach youth about leadership, then they can offer a better program (Hartje, et al., 2008). The problem is that often
times there is conflict between what youth workers are held accountable for and the resources to reach those expectations for the organization they work for (Hartje, et al., 2008). This can be partly attributed to the fact that not all youth workers hired are the same; they all have different educational backgrounds, leadership perceptions, attitudes regarding development and overall life experiences (Hartje, et al., 2008). It is hard for an organization to develop trainings and fully prepare them to be competent youth workers (Hartje, et al., 2008).

Another characteristic of effective youth workers is their belief in the youth they serve. This can be done by giving youth leadership roles in the program and allowing them to make decisions (Huebner, 2003). Valuing the adolescent developmental period as a time of promise is crucial (Huebner, 2003). Identifying other programs that have failed youth is also important, as the youth worker can evaluate why the other programs were not successful (McLaughin, et al., 1994). If youth workers hold onto the importance of wanting to positively influence youth, they possess that fundamentally necessary component to be effective, trust that they can make a difference in the lives of the youth they serve (Huebner, 2003; Zeldin & Camino, 1999).

Lastly, effective youth workers seek professional development opportunities to learn and become better workers to serve youth. In the literature, many things have been identified to better professional development opportunities for youth worker effectiveness (Hartje, et al., 2008). They were for youth workers to be given time for staff development, be given clear job expectations and an opportunity to build knowledge through professional collaborations (Hartje, et al., 2008; Walker, 2003). In one study, youth workers wanted to increase knowledge and have an opportunity to
process how the new knowledge gained can be applied to their program (Walker, 2003). Youth workers identified their favored training method as one that triangulates research, practice and effort into an educational training model (Walker, 2003). It is important to mention seeking professional development as a characteristic of effective youth workers because it has been proven that those workers who have access to and attend professional development opportunities are more likely to continue working and are effective in their work (Walker, 2003).

The reach of an effective youth worker could never be fully measured. However, the research tells us that we can measure the effectiveness on a program from the youth worker (Perkins & Borden, 2003). Programs that have proven to be successful are reliant on numerous factors including foundation of the program, participant involvement, youth and adult partnerships and program context (Perkins & Borden, 2003). All of these things are influenced by the youth worker. Understanding the role, learning more about the role and performing promising practices in the role allow for effective youth workers.

The field of youth development is led by youth workers. The success or failure of a youth program relies heavily on the youth worker(s) leading it. Identifying competencies allows the field to identify core areas that youth workers must possess skills and knowledge in. Competencies can be defined as any “skills, knowledge, abilities and characteristics” that allow one to be successful in a job (Barcelona, et al., 2011, p. 127). When looking at youth development workers, competencies must align with the desired outcomes of positive youth development (Astroth et al., 2004). Core competencies can provide the following results to a program, such as establishing a
foundation for high-performing youth workers, positively impacts the goals of the organization and gives credibility in the ability of workers to influence youth (Astroth et al., 2004).

Competencies help the field identify key things that should be included in the program including program delivery, customer service, building relationships, and understanding the systems the worker maneuvers in (Barcelona, et al., 2011). It has been determined that most youth development workers tend to bring about the same beliefs and characteristics to their work (Huebner, 2003). Identifying these same beliefs and characteristics allows for the field to learn and strive to either identify these within themselves or practice strengthening these that they may lack. Within youth development, these competencies are usually things that are identified that go beyond a traditional set of jobs skills (Huebner, 2003). Those youth workers who are identified as competent in their jobs, are found to “study, practice and develop the knowledge and skills that allow them to be in their experiences with youth in the most effective and responsive way” (Krueger, 2005, p. 22). Essentially, when competencies are identified, are respected by the field of youth development and are encouraged to be used or formed, they strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth development program.

There are several ways competencies can be used in a program. Staff development plans can be used with new employees and during evaluation periods for current staff (Astroth, et al., 2004). By using competencies in a staff plan, the supervisor can identify areas where additional training needs to occur for a youth worker (Astroth, et al., 2004). Areas of weakness can be used to determine professional
development topics as well. Also, competencies can be used in a mentoring plan as well, with mentors of new youth workers utilizing core competencies as teachable material during mentoring sessions (Astroth, et al., 2004). Most importantly, by using competencies in a statewide program, everyone is working to achieve the same goals through their work (Astroth, et al., 2004). Statewide trainings and coursework can be tailored around specific areas (Astroth, et al., 2004). It is evident that core competencies are needed for success. In 2004, National 4-H released their findings when they studied competencies of a youth worker (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004).

According to Barcelona et al., over the past decade, there have been several attempts in research to ascertain key core competencies of youth workers (2011). “In 2004, the most current and comprehensive research and knowledge representing the field of 4-H youth development was compiled, including the competencies that are essential to conducting 4-H youth development programs” (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). The study resulted in the formation of the 4-H Professional Research, Knowledge and Competence Model (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). This model focuses on areas of most importance when working with young people. They are youth development; youth program development; volunteerism; equity, access and opportunity; partnerships and organizational systems (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004).

The first core competency according to the 4-H PRKC model is youth development. Youth Development refers to the youth worker having a true understanding of how youth learn and grow (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). A youth worker must be able to comprehend and relate the principles of youth development to the development of youth programs and in their program practice (Stone & Rennekamp,
This core competency puts an emphasis on youth workers utilizing youth development theory and topics into their program, as well as including the essential elements of 4-H and life skill development (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). In order to be effective, the youth worker must be able to apply both adolescent and youth development principles into the program and be able to implement youth development foundations so that youth will have a quality and safe learning experience (Barcelona, et al., 2011; Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Youth workers need a strong background in youth development theory and an understanding of how youth learn and grow (Huebner, 2003). A youth worker should possess and be willing to increase awareness of educational theories such as cooperative learning and group methods (Huebner, 2003). The National Collaboration for Youth also identified demonstrating the attributes and qualities of a positive role model and interacting with and relating to youth in ways that support asset building are also key competencies of a youth worker (Barcelona, et al., 2011).

In order to be effective as leadership educators, confidence in ones’ ability to lead must be present (Zeldin & Camino, 1999). “If you are to help develop the leadership potential of youth, you must first look at your own development as a leader” (van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 120). One must self-reflect and understand how they view leadership before moving on to teach youth (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Although this may seem like a momentous task, the first step is to reflect on one’s personal reasons and enticements for wanting to work with youth (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Leadership can be viewed as an art form, whereas through practice, it is learned and improved (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). Some people have more natural
tendencies to lead than others, however, educators should hold on tightly to the concept that leadership is teachable (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). The greatest impediment to one’s leadership development is the lack of confidence in their skills and abilities (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). As a youth leadership educator, by questioning personal leadership and recognizing personal values and beliefs, a sense of empowerment takes over and commonalities within the group start to emerge, bringing a feeling of empowerment that can lead to action (Posner & Kouzes, 1997).

Another area of competence identified by the 4-H PRKC model is Youth Program Development. Program development is the culmination of knowledge regarding youth development theory, educational theory and program development theory (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). This competency field explains what intelligence, abilities and talents youth development workers need in order to develop high quality programs (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). The youth worker should be able to design programs by identifying needs of the youth they are working with (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Evaluation is an exceptionally important component in youth development programs. Utilizing an evaluation in programs validates the need and impact for it to continue (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Designing a quality youth development program does not happen by accident. According to this youth worker competency, it is deliberate and focused on intentional goals and includes choosing what is best for the youth participating in the program to get positive results (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004).

Youth workers should be able to modify, lead and assess experiences offered, which will provide age appropriate and relevant programs to their youth audiences (Barcelona, et al., 2011). Youth workers who have the ability to produce safe learning
environments for youth and give them a role in the program are found to be successful under the youth development program competency (Huebner, 2003). Also, youth workers must be able to practice risk management and be able to remove risk from a situation (Barcelona, et al., 2011). Youth program development is essentially a cornerstone of youth development, because without a youth worker who truly understands and values the appropriate youth development practices, a quality and relevant program would not be provided to participants.

Offering intentional opportunities that teach leadership principles are necessary in a youth leadership development program. Youth must feel ownership of their learning in a youth-driven development model where they are active participants and engaged learners (Larson, Walker, & Pearce, 2005). The goal of a youth-driven developmental model of teaching is confidence building and encouraging youth leadership development (Larson, et al., 2005). An effective teaching approach is for youth to develop leadership working in groups, for example using a cooperative-learning approach (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). This approach is one of the most productive methods to youth leadership development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). When learning about youth leadership in a group, youth have the opportunity to practice using leadership skills in a safe place under the supervision of a youth worker (van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

An opportunity to practice leadership is another teaching cornerstone of a youth leadership development program. Ultimately the best way to learn leadership is through practice that is free of authoritative power (Astroth, 1996). It was found that effective youth workers give youth meaningful leadership experiential learning opportunities,
such as overseeing meetings, writing agendas, planning activities for club members, writing newspaper articles and developing and giving presentations to community members (Camino & Zeldin, 2002). Being able to make decisions, discuss choices and evaluate results also allow youth to practice leadership and thus develop their skill sets (Larson, et al., 2005).

The next competency identified by the 4-H PRKC model is volunteerism. A vital competency of a youth worker is their ability to sustain a volunteer program (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). A youth worker must be able to create their own volunteer attitude, choose and engage volunteers and learn about adult volunteer development theory and adult learning styles (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Recruiting and training adult volunteers is critical to a 4-H youth development program’s success (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Research has shown the significant non-parent adults play in youth organizations. In a 1999 study, it was found that 65% of 4-H youth respondents had adults involved with their 4-H program that made them feel valuable both to the program and as an individual (Perkins & Butterfield, 1999). Also, 64% of 4-H youth respondents felt that the adult volunteers in 4-H listened to them (Perkins & Butterfield, 1999). This is important to the field as we select volunteers to work with youth leadership development programs that those volunteers selected understand the importance of allowing youth to talk and build confidence in them that they are valuable to the program.

Training volunteers is a key competency that falls under the Volunteerism area of the 4-H PRKC. Studies show that volunteers who use an autonomy approach to leading 4-H groups are more effective than those who tend to use a controlling
approach (Astroth, 1996). Successful youth workers are found to use a partnership approach and are flexible in their programming, allowing for both mistakes and fun with both leaders and members of 4-H groups. (Astroth, 1996). Adults are critical to an effective youth development program. Recruiting, selecting and training those adults are important to a youth workers program’s success.

It is crucial that a youth worker offers the program to all youth while ensuring that all youth can succeed while participating (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). It is the job of the youth worker to ensure equality, access and opportunity by opening the program to all in a diverse youth audience, as well as ensure that all material is age appropriate, incorporates different learning styles and offers modifications to those youth who may be in need (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). According to the National Collaboration for Youth, youth workers need to respect and honor cultural and human diversity (Barcelona, et al., 2011). This can be done by understanding the cultures of those who the youth worker is serving. Also, becoming involved in the community allows the youth worker to learn the youth they are working with. Giving youth opportunities to be involved and empower them are vital skills identified by the National Collaboration for Youth (Barcelona, et al., 2011).

A youth worker must be able to establish partnerships within communities to unite young people and adults for stronger communities (Jones & Perkins, 2005; Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Youth workers must be able to build youth and adult partnerships. However, under the 4-H partnership competency, youth workers should have the knowledge and understand the practical application of building community partnerships as well (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). By investing time building partnerships, the
community’s social capital increases greatly (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Not only are youth workers encouraged to build partnerships, but also empower youth to act, establish relationships with community partners and be engaged in community development (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). The research has identified areas of skills that are necessary for youth development workers, which are the talent to build and sustain youth and adult partnerships and youth and adult leadership development (Camino & Zeldin, 2002; Huebner, 2003). Those youth workers found to be successful built and sustained partnerships that benefit both the youth involved and the families of those youth (Huebner, 2003). Success can be measured by how many relationships are created, nurtured and continued within the program (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). These relationships not only positively impact the youth, but also serve as resources to the overall program and to the youth worker (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004).

Creating partnerships is a 4-H competency that complements youth leadership development education. Adults have the potential to greatly and positively impact a youth’s life (McNeil, 2010; Perkins & Borden, 2003). In order to be a partner and help youth learn leadership, adults must submit to the adolescents’ world (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Sometimes adults view youth as needing to be saved, not as potential partners. A common difficulty for youth educators developing leadership in youth is to provide the correct amount to assistance and supervision to youth, while not interfering with their individual growth (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). “As facilitators of leadership development, adults work with adolescents to help them understand themselves, communicate more effectively; improve interpersonal skills; make decisions; manage their time; work with groups and participate in community, school and family activities”
(van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 177). It is crucial for both youth and adults to address things that matter to them both (Camino & Zeldin, 2002). The overall community also plays a role in youth leadership development by serving as partners and resources to a youth worker and the youth participants (Walker, 2003). When youth performed a task in the presence of an adult stranger that did not pay attention to them and did not offer a response to them regarding their work, the youth did not experience a high level of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The current environment in many United States organizations does not allow for youth and adults partnerships to be easily created and accepted (Barcelona, et al., 2011). Effective youth leadership development must offer the opportunity for youth and adults to build relationships that both parties are engaged in (Jones & Perkins, 2005; Perkins & Borden, 2003). These relationships can be built if the youth worker is intentional in developing opportunities of meaningful engagement (Perkins & Borden, 2003). The effective youth worker does not only offer these opportunities, but provides encouragement and assistance to youth during this time of development (Huebner, 2003). Sometimes the youth worker may also have to monitor other things such as group process, environment and development of specific projects to ensure success (Huebner, 2003). Research shows that youth who have adults who are supportive of allowing youth to grow and develop compared to adults who are more of a controlling authoritative style of partner are found to be intrinsically motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Youth workers who provide purposeful learning opportunities are allowing youth to develop leadership in a much more meaningful way that just reading about it or being thrown into a leadership role (Zeldin & Camino, 1999). As youth workers serve in a
non-parental role, they have the capability to envision leadership opportunities for youth in a different light because they believe in them (McNeil, 2010). The youth workers role is to challenge the youth developing leadership and convince them they have control over their lives and their actions can affect their family, school and community (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Youth workers also can provide experiences for youth to work with younger children in their communities, while practicing leadership in those roles (Camino & Zeldin, 2002). An opportunity to practice mentoring younger youth is important in youth leadership development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Also, an emphasis on being both a leader and a follower within a group is an important skill to teach in a program (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). A tricky time for a youth worker may occur when the worker is presented with questions from the youth (Huebner, 2003). The youth worker must think about what to share and when to share answers to questions, experiences and give advice (Huebner, 2003). It is also critical to allow youth to think for themselves and not tell them what to do during leadership development (Huebner, 2003).

There are challenges to establishing partnerships within communities. Youth workers are requested to identify these challenges and overcome them. The youth worker has to willingly give their time to build partnerships (Huebner, 2003). When developing partnerships with youth, youth workers are challenged to develop trust with skeptical youth; gain support from youth and reach out to resistant youth (Huebner, 2003). Realizing these challenges will allow youth workers to develop a plan for recruitment of youth partners in the program.
The last competency identified by the 4-H PRKC model is for the youth worker to develop an organizational system that has maximum impact for the peoples’ needs it serves (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). By possessing skills in this competency, youth workers help build a sustainable program to be enjoyed by youth for many years (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). Skills that fall under this competency domain of organizational systems include: suitable communication, impactful policies, identifying potential resources and a risk management plan to continue to have a positive youth development program that holds public value (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). The training of youth workers must be viewed as helpful from the participants in order to increase competency (Krueger, 2005). In a study by Krueger (2005), there was a correlation between “self-reporting competencies and specialized trainings,” it was found “that youth workers who received training and rated it as “helpful” also rated their overall competency higher than those who received training but rated the training as “not helpful” (p. 38).

The field cannot simply hope to hire effective youth workers. There are certain attitudes, beliefs and skills one must possess. Passion is also a factor that determines the youth workers success. And lastly, training is a necessity to educate and empower youth workers to maintain a successful youth development program (Astroth, et al., 2004; Huebner, 2003). When youth workers refine and practice these competencies, they are usually identified as effective. However solely checking off competencies from a list does not make a youth worker effective. Sometimes it’s intangible attributes that contribute to effectiveness. It is also how youth workers utilize, learn and practice the competencies within their work contributes to effectiveness. There is not one distinct
trait or a list of characteristics that identify effectiveness. It is a culmination of things that makes one great. It is the willingness to find what you are good at and then strengthen the areas of weaknesses.

The primary roles for youth workers in the field of youth leadership development are to understand leadership concepts and be trained to teach youth leadership to adolescents (Barcelona, et al., 2011). The role youth workers play in youth leadership development is quite significant because youth mainly learn leadership from the adults that they know (Rishel, Sales, & Koeske, 2005; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). In regards to public value, youth leadership is a concern for many American adults (Scales, 2003). As discussed previously, youth workers must possess certain skills and attitudes to be effective. Some of these are taught and some are simply present within the adult. The first step in youth leadership development is for the youth worker to explore their personal leadership development journey (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). There is a role that youth worker’s beliefs, values, encouragement and empowerment play in teaching youth leadership development. Looking beyond the research and theories of youth leadership development worker competencies, leadership development can be looked at as simply an emotion one possesses (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). Leadership compels its participants to feel passion, for the cause at hand, even if that cause is teaching it to others (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). It takes optimism and valor to use leadership skills (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). “Successful youth workers share a strong appreciation for the unique skills and interests young people bring to the table, as well as a strong belief in their own ability to make a difference” (Huebner, 2003, p. 370). Youth workers believe that they have the ability to be the change
(Huebner, 2003). They have the same belief about the youth they work with (Huebner, 2003). Passions that are fueled by helping youth realize their full potential (Huebner, 2003).

4-H has individual county level youth leadership development programs, which are organized by youth workers. By looking at the leadership beliefs and attitudes among those youth workers, the Southern Regional 4-H program can become better by creating a self-assessment tool for workers from the research proposed. It has been suggested that most youth development workers tend to bring similar beliefs and attitudes to their work (Huebner, 2003). Identifying commonalities in youth worker’s leadership beliefs and attitudes allows for the field to begin a professional development plan that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth leadership development program. These commonalities can help to develop an indicator of competency in youth workers. This indicator can assist in identifying beliefs and attitudes that they need more training in and help them develop a professional development plan that will strengthen those beliefs and attitudes that they may lack. In order to provide youth educators who work with youth leadership development clubs effective professional development opportunities, the following things need to be assessed, including describing youth worker’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership and youth leadership development training opportunities offered from the state level.
CHAPTER 3.
METHODOLOGY

The overall purpose of the study is to describe southern region 4-H educator’s training experiences and attitudes, demographics, and leadership beliefs and attitudes. The results of this study can help identify similar beliefs and attitudes of youth workers and allow for the field to identify some youth worker commonalities that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth leadership development program. The data collected may inform existing 4-H youth leadership development programs and existing training opportunities.

Critical Terms Defined

Leadership: Leadership is an interpersonal process, developed over time, through a duel process of learning and practicing both “ability” leadership through “knowledge, skills and talents” with “authority” leadership “voice, influence and decision-making power” that not only makes the individual better, but guides and inspires the people, groups and “community” they interact with (MacNeil, 2006).

Youth Leadership Development: An approach to youth leadership development from Libby et al. (2006) “emphasizes the developmental areas of leading and connecting and includes training in skills such as self-advocacy and conflict resolution; exposure to personal leadership and youth development activities, including community service; and opportunities that allow youth to exercise leadership” (p. 18).

Design Used

The design of this survey was a descriptive study using five objectives. The researcher wanted to describe youth educators using demographic information, youth educators’ youth leadership trainings and attitudes regarding the trainings, adults’
leadership beliefs and attitudes, determine differences in leadership belief and attitude mean score when looking at age and gender, and lastly determining if a relationship exists between leadership beliefs and attitudes and demographic variables.

**Population and Sample**

The target population for this study was youth educators of the Southern Region who have a 4-H youth development work assignment. The accessible population was educators whose emails were available from the each individual state’s list serve. The researcher relied on each state’s 4-H specialist/director to send the survey out on her behalf. Because of the sensitivity of sharing list serves, the researcher did not obtain the total number of individuals that received the survey. This study was a one hundred percent sample of all those youth educators who had usable email addresses from Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, Tennessee and Virginia’s state 4-H list serves.

**Ethical Considerations and Study Approval**

An application for exemption from institutional oversight was applied for and accepted on February 14, 2013. The study was granted IRB # E8137 (see Appendix B).

**Instrumentation**

After a thorough investigation of existing instruments, none surfaced as wholly representative of what the researcher wanted to study. Therefore, an instrument was created with three sections: Youth Educator Demographics; Youth Educator Training and Professional Development; and Leadership Beliefs and Attitudes. Two sections were developed through a literature review of what was important to a positive youth
development program, the leadership attitudes and beliefs scale by Richard Wielkiewicz (2000), and professional opinions of those with expertise in evaluation and 4-H youth development. An additional survey section solicited respondent’s demographics. The content was validated by an expert panel review of one youth development agent, one youth development specialist, and three evaluation specialists.

The instrument included a variety of questions like multiple answers/choice, open-ended, ranking, likert scale, and demographic questions. The first section of the questionnaire was developed from a literature review that sought to describe youth educator’s leadership attitudes and beliefs. This section contained likert-type scale items. The response choices, “Strongly Disagree”, “Disagree”, “Agree” and “Strongly Agree” were provided. There were twenty seven statements in the scale. The scale was created using personal leadership and group process statements that were found from a literature review that included looking at youth worker’s competencies.

The personal leadership statements represented elements of personal leadership. “If you are to help develop the leadership potential of youth, you must first look at your own development as a leader” (van Linden & Fertman, 1998, p. 120). McLaughlin, et al. (1994) use the term “wizardry” to explain effective youth workers. The term “wizardry,” which, although it is not magic, is almost as difficult to describe because the thing youth workers possess to be effective is so highly personal (Huebner, 2003; McLaughlin, et al., 1994). The skill sets that youth development workers need to be effective are quite multifaceted and interconnected (Huebner, 2003). Sometimes it’s intangible attributes that contribute to effectiveness. It is also how youth workers utilize, learn and practice the competencies within their work contributes to effectiveness.
There is not one distinct trait or a list of characteristics that identify effectiveness. It is a culmination of things that makes one great. It is the willingness to find what you are good at and then strengthen the areas of weaknesses. In order to ensure the reliability of the instrument, a Cronbach Alpha measurement was used. The measurement concludes the average internal consistency of the instrument (Santos, 1999). When determining reliability, a Cronbach Alpha coefficient should be close to 1.0 to determine a larger internal consistency (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). A .8 Cronbach’s Alpha measurement was a practical objective the researcher looked for in the analysis to determine reliability of the instrument variables (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Cronbach’s Alpha for the twenty seven item Leadership Beliefs and Attitude scale was .822.

Personal leadership also includes evaluating oneself and knowing areas of weakness to work on. The training of youth workers must be viewed as helpful from the participants in order to increase competency (Krueger, 2005). In a study by Krueger (2005), there was a correlation between “self-reporting competencies and specialized trainings,” it was found “that youth workers who received training and rated it as "helpful" also rated their overall competency higher than those who received training but rated the training as "not helpful"(p. 38). And lastly, training is a necessity to educate and empower youth workers to maintain a successful youth development program (Astroth, et al., 2004; Huebner, 2003). In order to be effective as leadership educators, confidence in ones’ ability to lead must be present (Zeldin & Camino, 1999). Some people have more natural tendencies to lead than others, however, educators should hold on tightly to the concept that leadership is teachable (Posner & Kouzes, 1997).
The group leadership questions elements of group process and leading a group. A youth worker must be able to establish partnerships within communities to unite young people and adults for stronger communities (Stone & Rennekamp, 2004). A youth worker should possess and be willing to increase awareness of educational theories such as cooperative learning and group methods (Huebner, 2003). Also, an emphasis on being both a leader and a follower within a group is an important skill to teach in a program (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). An effective teaching approach is for youth to develop leadership working in groups, for example using a cooperative-learning approach (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). This approach is one of the most productive methods to youth leadership development (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). When learning about youth leadership in a group, youth have the opportunity to practice using leadership skills in a safe place under the supervision of a youth worker (van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Some people have more natural tendencies to lead than others, however, educators should hold on tightly to the concept that leadership is teachable (Posner & Kouzes, 1997).

The second section of the questionnaire described youth educator’s previous training and attitudes regarding youth leadership development training. During the literature review, the researcher found evidence that youth educators who have access to and attend professional development opportunities were more likely to continue working and were effective in their work (Walker, 2003).

Through this section, the researcher gauged how much professional development trainings had been attended and if youth educators in the field were willing to participate in such trainings by looking at the attitudes of youth educators. This
section contained a variety of questions including multiple answers/choices, likert-type scale, ranking and open-ended.

The last section of the survey was a descriptive section where the demographics of the youth educators were collected. There were eight items that described youth educators in the southern region in terms of age, gender, race, state of residency, county/parish area they work in, highest level of education, degree field, years as a youth educator and leadership positions held in an external community organization. The last section contained demographic questions in the following formats: multiple choice and open-ended questions (See Appendix A).

Data Collection

The survey was administered via the online survey system Surveymonkey©. The researcher chose this method because of efficiency and availability (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). The advantage of an online survey system was that the completion time compared to mail or telephone survey was much quicker (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). Also, online surveys could be administered more quickly and with less expense than either mail or telephone survey methods (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). There were a few key components of how to offer email surveys that ensured higher response rates (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

For surveys that are emailed to be successful, the researcher needed to send a personalized letter inviting respondents to take part in the survey (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). This method was used when sending an emailed survey request as well (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). Another component of a successful survey was to offer a mixed method survey format (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). To ensure all participants
had access to the survey, a hard copy that could be mailed to the participant or a telephone survey method was offered (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). By allowing participants to choose their survey preference it had the potential to increase the response rate among survey participants (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998).

Lastly, to ensure high response rates, the data quality of the survey needed to be the same as of other survey methods (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). The researcher relied on the readers’ understanding of the words that were typed and sent through the online survey tool (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). It could be reasoned that the nonresponse level had the potential to be low if the survey questions and answers were easy to understand and laid out neatly (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). Response to open-ended questions could likely be higher because respondents were more likely to type than write or say their answers, because this may be their preferred method of communication (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998).

In a study by Schaefer and Dillman (1998) the advantages of email surveys were that return rates were higher, there was a lower nonresponse rate and the questions were answered with more completeness.

According to Dillman (1978) there were certain practices to follow to ensure high response rate from survey participants. Those methods included a variety of communications sent to respondents of survey (Dillman, 1978). The following process was used to administer survey:

1. Approximately a month prior to the survey launch a short email was sent to all 13 southern regional directors from Dr. Paul Coreil. Dr. Coreil sent the request out on behalf of the researcher because he represented the Louisiana Cooperative Extension
Service, which was the home of the researcher. The email requested that the states participate in the survey and instructed the directors and administrators to contact Dr. Coreil if they were interested in their state participating. A copy of the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development instrument was sent with the email (see Appendix C).

2. After seven states indicated their interest in participating in the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development survey, the researcher contacted the state 4-H program leaders regarding distributing the survey to 4-H agents in their states. Upon deliberation, the researcher decided that the best method to distribute the survey was for the state 4-H specialists/directors to send out on her behalf. This was done primarily because of the sensitivity most states had with sharing their list serves with outside sources. The specialists/directors offered to send the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development survey on behalf of the researcher. The only exception was Louisiana, in which the researcher sent the survey out on her own because the list serve as readily accessible. A brief reminder email was sent to all Louisiana participants from the Director of Louisiana Cooperative Extension Dr. Paul Coreil. The reminder invited participants to complete the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development Questionnaire. The reminder was sent to all LSU AgCenter employees with 4-H youth responsibilities. The LSU AgCenter employee’s email addresses were obtained from the LSU AgCenter email database for “4-H Agents”.

3. The Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development survey was sent out through the state’s 4-H program leaders (excluding Louisiana) with a standard paragraph explaining the goals and objectives of the research and a link for respondents to access the survey. Some state 4-H program leaders added their own message of support for
participation in the survey. Participants were instructed to contact the researcher with any questions or concerns regarding the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development survey (see Appendix D). In Louisiana, a week following the Director’s brief reminder, the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development questionnaire was sent to all LSU AgCenter employees who have a 4-H youth responsibility. With the questionnaire was a cover letter inviting youth educator’s to participate in the questionnaire. The cover letter also told the participants the reason for the study. One week after the initial questionnaire email was sent; the researcher sent a brief email reminder to all non-respondents of the survey encouraging them to complete the questionnaire with a URL link to the survey for convenience.

**Data Analysis**

The data in this study was statistically analyzed as explained below.

**Objective 1**

The purpose of objective one was to describe the youth educators who work with the youth leadership development programs in the southern region using the following demographic characteristics: age, gender, race/ethnicity, state of residence, location of office, highest level of education, years of service as a youth educator, 4-H percentage, and leadership roles held in outside organizations. The variables gender, race, state of residence, location of office, and leadership roles were nominal in nature and were summarized using frequencies and percentages. The variables highest level of education and percentage of 4-H appointment were ordinal in nature. Lastly, the variables age and years of service were continuous interval data and were measured using mean and standard deviation.
Objective 2

The purpose of objective two was to describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training using the following items:

- Types of youth leadership development training received while employed by cooperative extension
- Number of hours of youth leadership development training received
- Importance of youth leadership development training
- Receiving youth leadership development training from the state 4-H office
- Sufficiency of training offered by the state 4-H office
- Potential topics that are requested to be covered
- Potential delivery modes requested from the state 4-H office covering youth leadership development

The variables that were nominal in nature were the types of youth leadership development training received, did they receive youth leadership development from the state office, and potential delivery modes requested from the state 4-H office and were described by using frequencies and percentages. There were three variables that were ordinal in nature which included the importance of youth leadership development training, sufficiency of training offered by the state 4-H office and number of hours of youth leadership development training received. These variables were ordinal in nature and were measured using frequencies and percentages.
Objective 3

The purpose of objective three was to describe youth educator’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership using a total of twenty seven items. The items were developed using research from the literature review of this thesis. The mean and standard deviation for each item was calculated. The items were ranked using a nonparametric procedure. A bi-varient analysis was used to calculate a leadership belief and attitude score.

Objective 4

The purpose of objective four was to determine if differences existed between the mean score for leadership beliefs and attitudes and selected demographics: age and gender. An independent t-test was used to determine if there were any significant differences between the mean scores and the variables age and gender. Also the grand mean and overall standard deviation for the entire scale was also determined.

Objective 5

The purpose of objective five was to determine if a relationship existed between leadership beliefs and attitudes and office location, years of service, education level, and percentage of 4-H appointment. A Kendall’s Tau test was used to determine if relationships existed between the beliefs and attitudes and variable.
CHAPTER 4.
RESULTS

Objective One

The purpose of objective 1 was to describe youth educators in the Southern Region of the United States on the following demographic variables: age, gender, race, state of residence, office location, highest level of education completed, years of employment as a youth educator, percentage of 4-H assignment, and leadership positions in external civic organizations. The nominal variables were gender, race, state of residence, office location, and leadership positions in civic organizations. The ordinal variables were highest level of education, and percentage of 4-H assignment. Age and years of employment as a youth educator were collected as continuous interval variables. Variables identified as nominal and ordinal were summarized using frequency and percentage. Interval variables were summarized using mean and standard deviation.

The mean age of southern region youth educators was $M = 39.46$ ($SD = 11.770$). Southern Region 4-H youth educators ranged in age from 20 to 64 as of January 1, 2012. The majority of the respondents were female ($n = 147; 78.2\%$). There were 41 male survey respondents (21.8\%).

The sample was predominantly white ($n = 178; 94.7\%$), with a small percentage, 2.7\% selecting black or African American as their race ($n = 5$). There was one respondent who selected “mixed race(s)” as their race (.5\%) and one respondent who selected “other” (.5\%). Three respondents (1.6\%) chose “I prefer not to answer” as their response.
These data were collected from seven states located in the southern region of the United States. The largest number of responses came from respondents living in Louisiana (n = 77, 29.8%). Office locations of southern region youth educators were equally split between rural and urban areas. There were slightly more educators working in farm, rural or towns under 10,000 (n = 98; 52.2%) than educators’ in towns and cities over 10,000 (n = 90; 47.8%).

More than half of southern region youth educators had earned a master’s degree (n = 112; 59.6%). The next most frequently reported level of education was a college degree (n = 65; 34.6%). Very few respondents had less than a college degree (n = 10; 5.3%). In the responses, three people (1.6 %) indicated that they had some college after high school, but did not receive a college degree. They were included in the high school diploma category. There were three respondents who had hours beyond a bachelor’s degree (1.6%). They were included in the college degree category because they had completed a bachelor’s degree. There were also two respondents who had a specialization, which is hours beyond a master’s degree (1.1 %). They were included in the master’s degree category because they had completed a master’s degree.

The mean years of employment of southern region youth educators was 9.58 years (SD = 9.415). The minimum years of employment reported were 0 (representing those with less than 12 months of service) and the maximum was 40 years. A large percentage of respondents had less than ten years of experience (n = 116; 62.4%). It should be noted that the smallest number of responses came from youth educator’s with 30 or more years of experience (n = 8; 4.3%). In the Southern Region, some youth educators have multiple job assignments within their county. The majority of the
respondents had an appointment 76% or higher ($n = 156; 83.9$%). 4.3% of respondents had 25% or lower 4-H assignment ($n = 8$).

When asked to report membership in external civic organizations and leadership roles held, the majority of respondents reported belonging to an external organization (organizational, civic, volunteer, church or community group) ($n = 172; 92.5$%). The responses showed that more respondents held a leadership role in the organization than not. Almost three quarters of respondents (69.0%) indicated that they did hold a leadership position in an external organization ($n = 130$), whereas only 22.6 % indicated that they did not hold a leadership position in an external organization ($n = 42$). A small percentage (7.5%) did not belong to an external organization ($n = 14$). A summation of all of the demographic data can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. A summation of all of the demographic data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 and above</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>78.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. (continued) A summation of all of the demographic data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td>n(^a)</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or African American</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Race(s)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Prefer Not To Answer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State</strong></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Office Location</strong></td>
<td>n(^a)</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm, Rural or Town Under 10,000</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Towns and Cities 10,000 and Over</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. (continued) A summation of all of the demographic data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education Level Completed</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Diploma</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates or Technical Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Degree</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of Service</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-9 years</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-19 years</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29 years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 or more years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of 4-H assignment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25% or lower</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26%-50%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51%-75%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76% or higher</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. (continued) A summation of all of the demographic data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership Positions Held</strong></td>
<td>n^d</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>69.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not belong to an organization</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^a A total of 70 did not respond to this question in the survey.
^b The mean age of Southern Region youth educators was \( M = 39.46 \) (\( SD = 11.770 \)). Southern Region youth educators ranged in age from 20 to 64 as of January 1, 2012.
^c The mean years of employment of southern region youth educators was 9.58 years as an educator (\( SD = 9.415 \)). The minimum years of employment reported were 0 (representing those with less than 12 months of service) and the maximum was 40 years.
^d A total of 72 did not respond to this question in the survey.

Objective Two

The purpose of objective two was to describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training. When asked about the different types of youth leadership development training(s) respondents had attended while they were employed by Cooperative Extension, workshop training formats were reported most frequently (\( n = 144; 76.6\% \)). District/area/regional trainings (\( n = 128; 68.1\% \)); informal discussion training format (\( n = 125; 66.5\% \)); and daylong conference (\( n = 123; 65.4\% \)) were also frequently selected types of training attended. The responses that were chosen the least by respondents were study tours (\( n = 9; 4.8\% \)), online module training formats (\( n = 34, 18.1\% \)), and learning community/community of practice (\( n = 40, 21.3\% \)). It was also interesting that four
respondents reported not attending any type of youth leadership development training (2.1%). Results can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Types of youth leadership development training attended by youth educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of youth leadership development training attended</th>
<th>n&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workshop</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>76.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District/Area/Regional Training</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>68.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal Discussion</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>66.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day Long Conference</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Day Conference</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Directed Learning (Books, Web Searches, Thinking)</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webinar</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camp</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area/Regional/State Specialist</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Class</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Community/Community of Practice</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teleconference Meeting</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Module</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Tour</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> A total of 70 did not respond to this question in the survey.
Youth educators were asked to give the number of hours of formal youth leadership development training that they received during the 2011-2012 year. As shown in Table 3, 59 respondents received between 1-5 hours of formal youth leadership development training (31.2%). The next largest group reported receiving 6-10 hours of training ($n = 48; 25.4$%), with 16 or more hours of formal youth leadership development training reported by the third largest group ($n = 41, 21.7$%). Twenty one respondents reported receiving no formal leadership development training in 2011-2012 (11.1%). Lastly, 20 people reported receiving 11-15 hours of formal youth leadership development training (10.6%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Hours</th>
<th>$n^a$</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 or more hours</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 hours</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 hours</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 hours</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ A total of 69 did not respond to this question in the survey.

Youth leadership educators were asked how important youth leadership development training was to them ($M = 3.22; SD = 1.199$). The results are shown in Table 4. The greatest percentage of respondents (77.3%) stated that youth leadership development training was somewhat important ($n = 24; 12.7$%) or very important ($n = 122; 64.6$%). The smallest percentage of respondents (22.7%) stated that youth leadership development training was somewhat unimportant ($n = 5; 2.6$%) or very
unimportant \( (n = 38; 20.1\%) \). The responses ranged from 1 = very unimportant to 4 = very important.

Table 4. Importance of youth leadership development training to youth educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Importance</th>
<th>( n^a )</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Unimportant</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat Unimportant</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat Important</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Youth leadership educators were asked how important youth leadership development training was to them \( (M = 3.22; SD = 1.199) \). The responses ranged from 1 = very unimportant to 4 = very important.

\(^{a}\) A total of 69 did not respond to this question in the survey.

In Table 5, most respondents indicated that they received training from the state 4-H youth development \( (n = 148; 78.3\%) \). A smaller percentage of respondents \( (21.7\%) \) reported that they did not receive training from the state 4-H department on youth leadership development \( (n = 41) \).

Table 5. Receiving youth leadership development training from the state 4-H department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receive Training?</th>
<th>( n^a )</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did not receive training</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received training</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) A total of 69 did not respond to this question in the survey.

Youth educators were asked about their feelings toward youth leadership development training that they received from the state 4-H department. The answers ranged from very insufficient to very sufficient with a mean of 2.99 \( (SD = .765) \). Of the
148 respondents, 56.1% (n = 83) stated that they felt the training they received was somewhat sufficient and 23.6% stated it was very sufficient (n = 35). A smaller number of respondents (n = 23) stated that the youth leadership development training that they have received from the state 4-H office was somewhat insufficient (15.5%) and 7 stated that it was very insufficient (4.7%). A summary of results can be found in Table 6.

Table 6. Feelings toward youth leadership development training from the state 4-H department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sufficiency Level</th>
<th>n&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Insufficient</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat Insufficient</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat Sufficient</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Sufficient</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The answers ranged from very insufficient to very sufficient with a mean of 2.99 (SD = .765).

<sup>a</sup>A total of 110 did not respond to this question in the survey.

Respondents were asked to identify their preferred youth leadership development training modes that the state 4-H department could offer. Results can be found in Table 7. The mode with the most responses was a workshop training mode (n = 134; 70.0%). Other frequently selected training modes were day long training (n = 102; 54.0%) and webinars (n = 92; 48.7%). The training mode that received the least amount of responses was a study tour mode (n = 21; 11.1%). One respondent selected “none” as a training mode preference (.5%).
Table 7. Youth leadership development training types that respondents prefer to be offered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Training Preferred to be Offered</th>
<th>( n^a )</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workshop</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day Long Training</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webinar</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Education</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Modules</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Directed Learning</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Day Training</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Community/Community of Practice</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Class</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Tour</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) A total of 69 did not respond to this question in the survey.

**Objective Three**

The primary purpose of objective three was to describe the youth educator’s leadership beliefs and attitudes. Individual respondents’ scores were created taking the average of all twenty seven items. Respondents’ individual scores ranged from 1.59 to 3.59.

In Table 8 below, the mean, standard deviation, and range of scores are reported for each item. The highest mean reported was 3.43 (\(SD = .570\)), which was item 9 that read “a leader must be able to make decisions”. The lowest mean reported in the table was 2.23 (\(SD = .636\)), which was item 2 that read “in order to lead a group, one must be
knowledgeable about leadership theories”. The grand mean was 3.06 ($n = 258; SD = .256$).

Table 8. Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of Scores for Adult Perceptions and Beliefs Leadership Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A leader must be able to make decisions. (#9)</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership processes involve the participation of the group members. (#12)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A leader must utilize other group members' opinions when making a decision for the group. (#11)</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to motivate group members. (#23)</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership should encourage innovation. (#16)</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.544</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders have to have the ability to build partnerships among group members. (#18)</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A leader must be able to influence others in a positive way. (#25)</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring a shared vision is one of the main tasks of a leader. (#15)</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders understand group dynamics. (#10)</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A leader must guide group members. (#14)</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8. (continued) Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of Scores for Adult Perceptions and Beliefs Leadership Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most important members of a group are its leaders. (#5)</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to make individuals better. (#13)</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership is a skill that can be taught. (#26)</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A leader must provide a voice within the community for the group they represent. (#7)</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders provide group members opportunities for autonomy. (#19)</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to dictate the work of the group. (#17)</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders are self-confident. (#24)</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership positions are usually for those at the top of an organization. (#6)</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders help group members understand leadership. (#21)</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentional planning is one of the main tasks of a leader. (#20)</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders must understand their own need for self-determination. (#27)</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8. (continued) Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of Scores for Adult Perceptions and Beliefs Leadership Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is important that a single leader emerges in a group. (#4)</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A leader of a group requires a certain set of skills that they are born with. (#1)</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One must use their power of influence as a leader to get tasks accomplished. (#8)</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>.683</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders should be required to receive training before leading a group. (#22)</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One must possess special talents that enable them to lead. (#3)</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to lead a group, one must be knowledgeable about leadership theories. (#2)</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objective Four**

The purpose of objective four was to determine if differences existed between the mean score for leadership beliefs and attitudes and selected demographics: age and gender. The Independent t-test was used to compare leadership beliefs and attitudes on the variable of gender. A total of 147 female respondents ($M = 3.07; SD = .225$) and 41 male respondents ($M = 3.01; SD = .319$) responded to the Leadership Belief and Attitude (LBA) survey. Since the samples were disproportionate, variances for the
means of males and females were tested for equality and were deemed equal \((F = .577; p = .448)\). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare leadership beliefs and attitudes. When looking at the gender variable, analysis revealed there was no statistically significant difference \((t = 1.243_{186}; p = .215)\).

The Independent t-test was used to also compare leadership beliefs and attitudes on the variable of age. A total of 100 respondents indicated they were under 40 years of age \((M = 3.06; SD = .245)\) and 88 respondents indicated they were over 40 years of age \((M = 3.05; SD = .254)\) on the LBA survey. Since variances were significantly different for these groups \((F = 3.89; p = .05)\), the independent-samples t-test was computed without the assumption of equal variances to compare leadership beliefs and attitudes. When looking at the variable of age, analysis revealed a no significant difference between leadership beliefs and attitudes \((t = 1.124_{181.12}; p = .901)\).

**Objective Five**

The purpose of objective five was to determine if a relationship existed between leadership beliefs and attitudes and office location, years of service, education level, and percentage of 4-H appointment. The data were examined using Kendall’s Tau test which indicated that office location was not related to leadership attitudes and beliefs of survey respondents \((r = .029; p = .631)\). The correlation between education level and leadership beliefs and attitudes was also examined using Kendall’s Tau test. The level of education was not related to survey respondent’s leadership attitudes and beliefs \((r = -.053; p = .373)\) nor were years of service as a youth educator significantly related to leadership beliefs and attitudes \((r = -.019; p = .746)\). Interestingly enough, the
percentage of 4-H youth development assignment was significantly related to leadership beliefs and attitudes ($r = .120; p = .047$).
CHAPTER 5.
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Purpose of Study

The overall goals of the study were to describe southern region 4-H educator’s demographics, training experiences and attitudes as well as their leadership beliefs and attitudes. The results of this study could help identify similar beliefs and attitudes of youth workers that can strengthen the overall quality and success of a youth leadership development program. The data collected may inform existing as well as further 4-H youth leadership development programs and youth worker training opportunities.

Procedures

Objectives. The following objectives were used to conduct this research:

1 - To describe the educators who work with the youth leadership development programs in the southern 4-H region using the following demographics:

• Age
• Gender
• Race/Ethnicity
• State of residence
• County/Parish office location
• Highest level of education
• Years as a youth educator
• Percentage of 4-H assignment
• Leadership positions held in an external organization

2 - To describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training using the following topics:
Types of youth leadership development training received while employed by cooperative extension

- Number of hours of youth leadership development training received
- Perceived importance of youth leadership development training
- Youth leadership development training received from the state 4-H office
- Sufficiency of training offered by the state 4-H office
- Potential topics requested to be covered
- Potential youth leadership development training delivery modes requested from the state 4-H office

3 - To describe youth educator’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership.

4 - To determine if differences existed between the mean score for leadership beliefs and attitudes and selected demographics:

- Age
- Gender

5 - To determine if a relationship existed between leadership beliefs and attitudes and:

- Office Location
- Education Level
- Years of Service
- Percentage of 4-H appointment

**Population and Sample.** The target population for this study was youth educators of the Southern Region of the United States who have a 4-H youth
development work assignment. The accessible population was educators whose emails were available from each individual state’s list serve.

**Instrumentation.** After a thorough investigation of existing instruments, none surfaced as wholly representative of what the researcher wanted to study. Therefore, an instrument was created with three sections: Youth Educator Demographics; Youth Educator Training and Professional Development; and Leadership Beliefs and Attitudes. The content was validated by an expert panel review. The instrument included a variety of questions like multiple answers/choice, open-ended, ranking, likert-type scale, and collected demographics.

**Data Collection.** The survey was administered via the online survey system Surveymonkey©. The researcher chose this method because of efficiency and availability (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

**Data Analysis.** The purpose of objective one was to describe the youth educators who work with the youth leadership development programs in the southern region. The variables gender, race, state of residence, location of office, and leadership roles were nominal in nature and were summarized using frequencies and percentages. The variable highest level of education and percentage of 4-H appointment were ordinal in nature. Lastly, the variables age and years of service were continuous interval data and were measured using mean and standard deviation.

The purpose of objective two was to describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training. The variables that were nominal in nature were the types of youth leadership development training received, did they receive youth leadership development from the state office,
and potential delivery modes requested from the state 4-H office and were described by using frequencies and percentages. There were three variables that were ordinal in nature which included the importance of youth leadership development training, sufficiency of training offered by the state 4-H office and number of hours of youth leadership development training received. These variables were ordinal in nature and were measured using frequencies and percentages.

The purpose of objective three was to describe youth educator’s beliefs and attitudes of leadership using a total of twenty seven items. The items were developed using research from the literature review of this thesis.

**Summary of Major Findings**

The results of this study are presented by objective.

**Objective One**

The purpose of objective one was to describe the educators who work with the youth leadership development programs in the southern region of the United States. The mean age of Southern Region youth educators was \( M = 39.46 \) (\( SD = 11.770 \)). Southern Region youth educators ranged in age from 20 to 64 as of January 1, 2012.

The majority of the respondents were female (\( n = 147; 78.2\% \)). There were 41 male survey respondents (21.8%). The sample was predominantly white (\( n=178; 94.7\% \)), with a small percentage, 2.7% selecting black or African American as their race (\( n=5 \)). There was one respondent who selected “mixed race(s)’ as their race (.5%) and one respondent who selected “other” (.5%). Three respondents (1.6%) chose “I prefer not to answer” as their response.
This data was collected from seven states located in the southern region of the United States. The largest number of responses came from respondents living in Louisiana ($n = 77, 29.8\%$). Office locations of southern region youth educators were equally split between rural and urban areas. There were slightly more educators working in farm, rural or towns under 10,000 ($n = 98; 52.2\%$) than educators’ in towns and cities over 10,000 ($n = 90; 47.8\%$).

More than half of southern region youth educators had earned a master’s degree ($n = 112; 59.6\%$). The next most frequently reported level of education was a college degree ($n = 65; 34.6\%$). Very few respondents had less than a college degree ($n = 10; 5.3\%$). In the responses, three people (1.6 \%) indicated that they had some college after high school, but did not receive a college degree. They were included in the high school diploma category. There were three respondents who had hours beyond a bachelor’s degree (1.6\%). They were included in the college degree category because they had completed a bachelor’s degree. There were also two respondents who had a specialization, which is hours beyond a master’s degree (1.1 \%). They were included in the master’s degree category because they had completed a master’s degree.

The mean years of employment of southern region youth educators was 9.58 years as an educator ($SD = 9.415$). The minimum years of employment reported were 0 (representing those with less than 12 months of service) and the maximum was 40 years. A large percentage of respondents had less than ten years of experience ($n = 116; 62.4\%$). It should be noted that the smallest number of responses came from youth educators with 30 or more years of experience ($n = 8; 4.3\%$).
In the Southern Region, some youth educators had multiple job assignments within their county. The majority of the respondents had an appointment 76% or higher \((n = 156; 83.9\%)\). The least amount of respondents (4.3\%) reported having 25% or lower 4-H assignment \((n = 8)\).

When asked to report membership in external civic organizations and leadership roles held, the majority of respondents reported belonging to an external organization (organizational, civic, volunteer, church or community group) \((n=172; 92.5\%)\). The responses showed that more respondents held a leadership role in the organization than not. Almost three quarters of respondents (69.0\%) indicating that they did hold a leadership position in an external organization \((n = 130)\). Only 22.6 \% responded that they did not hold a leadership position in an external organization \((n = 42)\). A small percentage of youth educators (7.5\%) did not belong to an external organization \((n=14)\).

**Objective Two**

The purpose of objective two was to describe youth educator’s leadership training experiences and attitudes about youth leadership development training. When asked about the different types of youth leadership development training(s) respondents had attended while they were employed by Cooperative Extension, workshop training formats were reported most frequently \((n = 144; 76.6\%)\). District/area/regional trainings \((n = 128; 68.1\%)\); informal discussion training format \((n = 125; 66.5\%)\); and daylong conference \((n = 123; 65.4\%)\) were also frequently selected types of training. The response that was chosen the least by respondents was study tours \((n = 9; 4.8\%)\); online module training formats \((n = 34, 18.1\%)\); and learning community/community of practice \((n = 40, 21.3\%)\). It is also notable that four
respondents reported not attending any type of youth leadership development training (2.1%).

Youth educators were asked to give the number of hours of formal youth leadership development training that they received during the 2011-2012 year. There were 59 respondents who received between 1-5 hours of formal youth leadership development training (31.2%). Twenty people reported receiving 11-15 hours of formal youth leadership development training (10.6%).

Youth leadership educators were asked how important youth leadership development training was to them ($M = 3.22; SD = 1.199$). The greater percentage of respondents (77.3%) stated that youth leadership development training was somewhat important ($n = 24; 12.7\%$) or very important ($n = 122; 64.6\%$). The smaller percentage of respondents (22.7%) stated that youth leadership development training was somewhat unimportant ($n = 5; 2.6\%$) or very unimportant ($n = 38; 20.1\%$). The responses ranged from 1 = very unimportant to 4 = very important.

Most respondents indicated that they received training from the state 4-H youth development ($n = 148; 78.3\%$). A smaller percentage of respondents (21.7%) reported that they did not receive training from the state 4-H department on youth leadership development ($n = 41$).

Youth educators were asked about their feelings toward youth leadership development training received from the state 4-H department. The answers ranged from very insufficient to very sufficient with a mean of 2.99 ($SD = .765$). Of the 148 respondents, 56.1% ($n = 83$) stated that they felt the training they received was somewhat sufficient and 23.6% stated it was very sufficient ($n = 35$). A smaller number
of respondents ($n = 23$) stated that the youth leadership development training that they
had received from the state 4-H office was somewhat insufficient (15.5%) and 7 stated
that it was very insufficient (4.7%).

Respondents were asked to identify their preferred youth leadership
development training modes that the state 4-H department could offer. The mode with
the most responses was a workshop training mode ($n = 134; 70.0$%). Other frequently
selected training modes were day long training ($n = 102; 54.0$%) and webinar modes ($n$
$= 92; 48.7$%). The training mode that received the fewest responses was a study tour
mode ($n = 21; 11.1$%). One respondent selected “none” as a training mode option
(.5%), which may indicate that the respondent is not interested in attending training.

**Objective Three**

The primary purpose of objective three was to describe the youth educator’s
leadership beliefs and attitudes. Individual respondents’ scores were created taking the
average of all twenty seven items. Respondents” individual scores ranged from 1.59 to
3.59.

The mean, standard deviation, and range of scores are reported for each item.
The highest mean reported was 3.43 ($SD = .570$), which was item 9 that read “a leader
must be able to make decisions”. The lowest mean reported in the table was 2.23
($SD = .256$), which was item 2 that read “in order to lead a group, one must be
knowledgeable about leadership theories”. The grand mean was 3.06 ($n = 258; SD =$
$.256$).
Objective Four

The purpose of objective four was to determine if differences existed between the mean score for leadership beliefs and attitudes and selected demographics: age and gender. A total of 147 female respondents ($M = 3.07; SD = .225$) and 41 male respondents ($M = 3.01; SD = .319$) responded to the Leadership Belief and Attitude (LBA) survey. Since the samples were disproportionate, variances for the means of males and females were tested for equality and were deemed equal ($F = .577; p = .448$). When looking at the gender variable, analysis revealed there was no statistically significant difference ($t=1.243_{186}; p=.215$).

A total of 100 respondents indicated they were under 40 years of age ($M = 3.06; SD = .245$) and 88 respondents indicated they were over 40 years of age ($M = 3.05; SD = .254$) on the LBA survey. Since variances were significantly different for these groups ($F = 3.89; p = .05$), the independent-samples t-test was computed without the assumption of equal variances to compare leadership beliefs and attitudes. When looking at the variable of age, analysis revealed a no significant difference between leadership beliefs and attitudes ($t = .124_{181.12}; p = .901$).

Objective Five

The purpose of objective five was to determine if a relationship existed between leadership beliefs and attitudes and office location, years of service, education level, and percentage of 4-H appointment. The office location was not related to leadership attitudes and beliefs of survey respondents ($r = .029; p = .631$). The level of education was not related to survey respondent’s leadership attitudes and beliefs ($r = -.053; p = .373$) nor were years of service as a youth educator significantly related
to leadership beliefs and attitudes ($r = -.019; p = .746$). The percentage of 4-H youth
development assignment was significantly related to leadership beliefs and attitudes ($r = .120; p = .047$).

**Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations**

Based on the results of the survey, the researcher has drawn the following conclusions and recommendations:

**Conclusion One**

It would appear that leadership theory is perceived as not important to southern region youth educators because the lowest scoring item on the scale was the following statement: "In order to lead a group, one must be knowledgeable about leadership theories".

The primary roles for youth workers in the field of youth leadership development are to understand leadership concepts and be trained to teach youth leadership to adolescents (Barcelona, et al., 2011). The 4-H youth development program is a research-based program. It has been found that youth workers who want to increase their knowledge and participate in opportunities to process how the new knowledge gained can be applied to their program are found to be effective youth workers (Walker, 2003). A youth worker’s personal leadership beliefs and attitudes have the potential to impact their work as a manager of a youth leadership program. Successful youth development professionals apply a multitude of theoretical principles to their work with youth (Huebner, 2003). If a youth worker disagrees with the belief that a group leader must be knowledgeable about leadership theories, it would appear that leadership
theory is not important to them. Personal leadership beliefs can influence the motivation to increase the knowledge base of a professional.

As extension professionals, the lack of value for leadership theories impacts the choices made when selecting teaching tools and curriculum. With the availability of educational tools through technology, the danger lies in choosing a teaching tool or curriculum for convenience rather than ensuring that the materials are research based. If a youth educator does not believe in the importance of being knowledgeable about leadership theory, it presents a barrier when teaching youth leadership development. (Walker, 2003). There is also a potential problem as youth workers may not take the time to participate in youth leadership professional development opportunities.

Lastly, this conclusion challenged the researcher to think about how youth educator’s view themselves within their county/parish youth leadership development program. The results could suggest that youth educators do not see themselves as leaders of a program. In order to be effective as leadership educators, confidence in ones’ ability to lead must be present (Zeldin & Camino, 1999). A knowledge base of leadership theories helps one be effective and may give them confidence in their role. A recommendation would be to word the statement differently to see if the results are similar. The statement could read, “A youth educator must be knowledgeable about leadership theories”. This statement asks the respondent in terms of being a youth worker and not their personal leadership beliefs and attitudes.
Conclusion Two

The development of youth-adult partnerships could potentially be positively or negatively impacted because the highest scoring item from southern region youth educators surveyed was the statement “A leader must be able to make decisions”.

A youth adult partnership is a youth development competency that can be connected to this conclusion. Potentially, youth adult partnerships can be impacted if one has this leadership belief of the importance of possessing the ability to make decisions. There are two potential impacts this leadership belief can have on individual county/parish youth adult partnerships.

If youth educators’ believe that leaders need to make decisions, that belief can be utilized in programming in a positive way. The attitudes and beliefs of youth development agents impact the teaching of leadership to youth. It is important for adults working with youth to be supportive of incorporating youth voice and youth and adult partnerships throughout the teaching and learning process (Ryan and Deci, 2000). By holding the belief that leaders make decisions, youth educators would have an easier time allowing a true youth adult partnership to develop because they understand that decisions have to be shared and supported by both youth and adults in the program. This belief can also influence the youth worker to take on a role as a partner and encourage and teach youth how to make decisions. This may become a topic area of great focus for a youth worker who strongly agrees with this statement. Intentional training can be incorporated where youth leaders learn to make decisions and learn the importance of making a fair decision.
This belief could also have a negative impact on a youth leadership development program if the youth worker sees themselves as the sole leader of the program. In this instance, a youth worker may be making all of the decisions for the group. While making all decisions would help fill the need to make decisions for the youth worker, it can have detrimental effects on the youth leadership development program. If adults do not or cannot see youth as partners in leadership, it can create a huge impediment for the effectiveness of the program (MacNeil, 2006). The youth may not develop a sense of ownership in the group because they are not having a say in the decision making process (Cater, Machtmes, & Fox, 2008). Also, group enrollment could potentially go down if youth are not able to use their voice. Lastly, youth may not be receiving training in the decision making leadership skill because the youth worker is not allowing them to make decisions. Being able to make decisions, discuss choices and evaluate results also allow youth to practice leadership and thus develop their skill sets (Larson, et al., 2005). The best way for youth to learn any leadership skill is to learn and then practice what they learned through application.

It is recommended that youth workers self-reflect on the role they have in their youth leadership development program. Also, youth worker trainings could incorporate ways to build a youth adult partnership that is ideal for optimal youth leadership development. This would include educating youth workers on the importance of allowing youth to make decisions with the adults in the group.

**Conclusion Three**

Southern region youth educators mainly attended face to face trainings and prefer this type of training opportunity.
The consensus from these results is that in the southern region, youth leadership development training is being delivered through workshops, district/area/regional trainings, informal discussions, and day long trainings. When developing youth leadership development trainings, it is important to offer effective professional development opportunities. In the literature, many things have been identified to improve professional development opportunities for youth worker effectiveness (Hartje, et al., 2003). Suggestions include for youth workers to be given time for staff development, be given clear job expectations, and have an opportunity to build knowledge through professional collaborations (Hartje, et al., 2003; Walker, 2003).

In one study, youth workers wanted to increase knowledge and have an opportunity to process how the new knowledge gained can be applied to their program (Walker, 2003). Youth workers identified their favored training method as one that triangulates research, practice and effort into an educational training model (Walker, 2003). It is important to mention seeking professional development as a characteristic of effective youth workers because it has been proven that those workers who have access to and attend professional development opportunities are more likely to continue working and are effective in their work (Walker, 2003). Despite what delivery mode is being used to train youth educators, the focus should be on these things to make the trainings effective.

Informal discussions were a highly ranked training mode. This result could benefit from further review, as it would be interesting to discover who youth educators are having discussions with. In Louisiana there is a mentoring program. If the youth educator is having informal discussions with their mentors, the mentors should be given
specific talking points from the state 4-H department so that there is consistency in what is being communicated among agents. That is not to suggest that informal discussions should not occur where youth educators and mentors discuss county/parish specific information. It is suggested that there be some type of framework to guide informal discussions within the mentoring process to encourage consistency. A framework can also ensure youth development principals are being used to make decisions.

**Conclusion Four**

Southern region youth educators hold rather similar views about leadership, regardless of age, gender, office location, level of education and years of service.

It has been previously determined that most youth development workers tend to bring similar beliefs and attitudes to their work (Huebner, 2003). The results from the Brumbaugh Youth Leadership Development Questionnaire show no difference in an individual’s leadership belief and attitude score and the six selected variables. What does that mean for youth educators? Essentially youth educators are very much the same in terms of the six variables examined and their leadership beliefs and attitudes. The results suggest that county/parish staffing plans be reviewed. The findings indicate that there is not a margin of difference between current youth educators when looking at the six specific variables. Lastly, the results could help with the organization of youth leadership development trainings for educators. The similarities between respondents of the survey should be taken into consideration, as a universal training could be developed and most likely meet attendees needs.

The lack of differences in leadership beliefs and attitudes scores suggests that county/parish staffing be explored. It appears that individuals with the same attitudes
and beliefs are hired throughout the southern region. According to van Linden & Fertman, the first step in youth leadership programming is for the youth worker to explore their personal leadership development beliefs (1998). If the majority of southern region youth workers have the same beliefs and attitudes regarding personal leadership, part of their development should be to explore their personal leadership attitudes and beliefs and be challenged to learn differing leadership theory.

When educators are challenged to explore leadership beliefs and attitudes outside of their preferences, they may be able to understand leadership further. As a youth leadership educator, by questioning personal leadership and recognizing personal values and beliefs, a sense of empowerment takes over and commonalities within the group start to emerge, bringing a feeling of empowerment that can lead to action (Posner & Kouzes, 1997). More informed educators can provide much more effective youth leadership development programs. It has been found that successful youth development professionals apply a multitude of theoretical principles to their work with youth (Huebner, 2003).

Also, there appears to be a lack of diversity among youth workers in the southern region. Among the respondents, 78.2% were females (n=147) and 94.7% selected white as their race (n=178). The concern can be raised that the lack of diversity may stall leadership development within the organization. In a group, diversity is desired because it can lead to creating broader perspectives for members; making better decisions and have a more amalgamated vision for the future (MacNeil, 2006). A recommendation would be given that previous and current research suggests that youth workers hold similar beliefs, that diversity should be a focus in training development.
Conclusion Five

The percentage of 4-H youth development assignment has a relationship with an individual’s leadership beliefs and attitudes.

Effective youth workers understand and value the benefits of their work with youth. The higher 4-H percentage appointment, the higher number of training opportunities that educators have had in youth development and in particular youth leadership development. The research tells us that the more training in youth development one has, the more effective they can be.

The key to teaching leadership is for educators to remember that the educational process must be sustained and enriched as youth discover what motivates them to lead (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, the research tells us that we can measure the effectiveness on a program from the youth worker (Perkins & Borden, 2003). If an educator feels competent in their ability to teach youth about leadership, then they can offer a better program (Hartje, et al., 2008).

Lastly, effective youth workers seek professional development opportunities to learn and become better workers to serve youth. It is important to mention seeking professional development as a characteristic of effective youth workers because it has been proven that those workers who have access to and attend professional development opportunities are more likely to continue working and are effective in their work (Walker, 2003).

A recommendation would be to hire youth workers with a 76% or higher percentage of 4-H youth development assignment. Also, in future research the
recommendation would be to further explore this conclusion with a bigger pool of respondents to guide further practice.

Leadership is an interpersonal process, developed over time, through a duel process of learning and practicing both “ability” leadership through “knowledge, skills and talents” with “authority” leadership “voice, influence and decision-making power” that not only makes the individual better, but guides and inspires the people, groups and “community” they interact with (MacNeil, 2006). The overall purpose of this study was to describe southern region 4-H youth educator’s training experiences and attitudes, demographics, and leadership beliefs and attitudes. The data collected can be helpful in developing future youth leadership development training if the leadership beliefs and attitudes are examined. The field of youth leadership development is one that should be continued to study. Recommendations for future research would be to look at what outputs are teen youth leadership programs engaging in, what topics are being included in youth leadership development trainings, and lastly, identifying and establishing competencies of an effective teen leadership program.
REFERENCES


Stone, B., & Rennekamp, R. (2004). *New foundations for the 4-h youth development profession: 4-h professional research, knowledge and competencies study, 2004*. Washington, DC: National 4-H Headquarters, CSREES, USDA.


**APPENDIX A**

**BRUMBAUGH ADULT PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Welcome to the Brumbaugh Adult Perceptions of Youth Leadership Survey. Thank you for participating in my survey. Your participation in this survey is voluntary and your time and cooperation is greatly appreciated. Your responses will be kept confidential. The survey has four parts and will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Any questions with an asterisk (*) requires an answer in order to progress through this survey. The purpose of this study is to collect data from youth educators in the Southern region who work with youth leadership development programs. This study will look at the educators' beliefs and attitudes about leadership as well as the outputs of county/parish youth leadership development programs. Your answers to this study will help develop new youth leadership professional development opportunities for youth educators. If you have any questions about the survey, please contact Laura Brumbaugh at <a href="mailto:lbrumbaugh@agocenter.lsu.edu">lbrumbaugh@agocenter.lsu.edu</a> or 337-332-2181.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section 1: Leadership Beliefs and Attitudes Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

**1. Directions:** Respond to each of the following statements based on your beliefs about leadership. Click on bubble that corresponds to what you think.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A leader of a group requires a certain set of skills that they are born with.</td>
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<tr>
<td>In order to lead a group, one must be knowledgeable about leadership theories.</td>
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<td>One must possess special talents that enable them to lead.</td>
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<tr>
<td>It is important that a single leader emerges in a group.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The most important members of a group are its leaders.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership positions are usually for those at the top of an organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A leader must provide a voice within the community for the group they represent.</td>
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<tr>
<td>One must use their power of influence as a leader to get tasks accomplished.</td>
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<td>A leader must be able to make decisions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leaders understand group dynamics.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A leader must utilize other group members' opinions when making a decision for the group.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership processes involve the participation of the group members.</td>
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<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to make individuals better.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A leader must guide group members.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inspiring a shared vision is one of the main tasks of a leader.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Option 1</th>
<th>Option 2</th>
<th>Option 3</th>
<th>Option 4</th>
<th>Option 5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership should encourage innovation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to dictate the work of the group.</td>
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<td>Leaders have to have the ability to build partnerships among group members.</td>
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<td>Leaders provide group members opportunities for autonomy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intentional planning is one of the main tasks of a leader.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leaders help group members understand leadership.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leaders should be required to receive training before leading a group.</td>
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<tr>
<td>One of the main tasks of a leader is to motivate group members.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leaders are self-confident.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A leader must be able to influence others in a positive way.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership is a skill that can be taught.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leaders understand their own need for self-determination.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Section 2 Outputs of Jr. Leader Clubs

**2. Do you have a youth leadership development club in your parish/county?**

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No
Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

3. What activities did your youth leadership development club participate in during the 2011-2012 year? (Select all that apply.)

☐ Monthly Club Meeting(s)
☐ Service-Learning Project(s)
☐ Community Service Project(s)
☐ Social(s)
☐ Committee(s)
☐ Retreat(s)
☐ Tour(s)/Field Trip(s)
☐ Workshop(s)
☐ Day Long Conference(s)
☐ Multi-Day Conference(s)
☐ Camp(s)
☐ County/Parish Wide Educational Event(s)
☐ Fundraiser(s)
☐ Self-Directed Learning Opportunities (Project Books, Web Searches, Thinking)
☐ Awards Trip(s)
☐ Awards Ceremony
☐ None
☐ Other (please specify)
**4. What types of leadership roles were offered to your youth leadership development club participants during the 2011-2012 year? (Select all that apply.)**

- Club Officer
- Committee Member
- Committee Chairperson
- Youth serving as mentor(s)
- Youth serving as a camp counselor
- Camp Participant
- Camp Planner (local, parish, regional or state level)
- Workshop Planner (local, parish, regional or state level)
- National Conference Participant
- 4-H Club Congress Participant
- State Council/Board Member
- Round Up/4-H University Participant
- Regional Leadership Board Member
- County/Parish Advisory Committee Member
- Visit local elected officials (local, parish and/or state)
- State Capitol Visit
- None
- Other, please specify
*5. What types of marketing and/or social media did your youth leadership development club use during the 2011-2012 year? (Select all that apply.)

- Facebook
- Flickr
- Twitter
- Pinterest
- YouTube
- MySpace
- Instagram
- Newsletter
- Newspaper Article
- Video
- PSA on Radio (Public Service Announcement)
- PSA on Television (Public Service Announcement)
- Texting
- Email
- None

Other, please specify

*6. Choose the statement that best describes your youth leadership development program environment.

- Adults and youth work together in making program decisions.
- Adults provide guidance to youth while making program decisions and adults retain the right to make the final decisions.
- Adults are primarily not involved in the program decision making processes.
- Adults assist youth when necessary in making program decisions, yet youth make the majority of decisions.
- Adults make most of the decisions in the youth leadership development program.

*7. Does your youth leadership development program use a leadership curriculum?

- Yes
- No
8. What curriculum is/are used in your youth development program? (Please list name of curriculum(s) below.)

9. What type of youth leadership development training have you received/attended while employed by cooperative extension? (Select all that apply.)

- Day Long Conference
- Multi-Day Conference
- Workshop
- Webinar
- Teleconference Meeting
- District/Area/Regional Training
- Camp
- Meeting
- Informal Discussion
- Mentoring
- Study Tour
- Online Module
- Graduate Class
- Area/Regional/State Specialist
- Self Directed Learning (Books, Web Search, Thinking)
- Learning Community/Community of Practice
- None
- Other, please specify

---

Page 7
**10. How many hours of formal youth leadership development training have you received during the 2011-2012 year.**

- 1-5 hours
- 6-10 hours
- 11-15 hours
- 16 or more hours
- None

**11. As a youth educator, how comfortable are you with performing the following youth leadership development program components?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Very Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Somewhat Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Somewhat Comfortable</th>
<th>Very Comfortable</th>
<th>Do not do this</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>Serving as a role model</td>
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<td>Leading a meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working with youth on a project</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guiding a Service-Learning project</td>
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<tr>
<td>Building youth and adult partnerships</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recruiting volunteers to work with youth leadership development program</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging youth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowering youth</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**12. Do you feel youth leadership development training is important?**

- Very Unimportant
- Somewhat Unimportant
- Somewhat Important
- Very Important

**13. Do you receive youth leadership development training from the state 4-H department?**

- Yes
- No
Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

14. Do you feel you receive sufficient youth leadership development training from the state 4-H department?
   - Very Insufficient
   - Somewhat Insufficient
   - Somewhat Sufficient
   - Very Sufficient

15. If you do not receive youth leadership training from the state 4-H department, what topics/areas would you like to be covered during trainings?

16. What youth leadership development training delivery mode(s) would you like the state 4-H department offer to youth educators? Select all that apply.
   - Day Long Training
   - Multi-Day Training
   - Workshop
   - Webinar
   - Distance Education
   - Online Modules
   - Self-Directed Learning
   - Study Tour
   - Conference
   - Learning Community/Community of Practice
   - Graduate Class
   - None
   - Other (please specify)

Section 4 - Youth Educator Demographics

17. Demographics: Give your age as of January 1, 2012

18. Demographics: Indicate your gender
   - Male
   - Female
Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

19. Demographics: Indicate your race/ethnicity.
- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian
- Black or African American
- Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- White
- Hispanic or Latino
- Other
- Mixed Race(s)
- I prefer not to answer

20. Demographics: In what state or U.S. territory do you live?

21. Demographics: Choose the area in which your county/parish office is located.
- Farm or Rural Area
- Town under 10,000
- Town and City 10,000 to 50,000
- Suburb or City over 50,000
- City over 50,000

22. Demographics: Choose the highest level of education you have completed as of January 1, 2012.
- High School Diploma
- Associates / Technical Degree
- College Degree
- Masters Degree
- Doctoral Degree
- Other, please specify

23. Demographics: Please indicate what field the degree you obtained was in. Include any concentrations/specializations received.
24. Demographics: How many years have you been employed as a youth educator with the cooperative extension as of January 1, 2012

25. Demographics: What percentage of your cooperative extension assignment is 4-H?

26. Demographics: Do you hold a leadership position in an organizational, civic, volunteer, church or community group(s)?

- Yes
- No
- I do not belong to any organizational, civic, volunteer, church or community group(s)
APPENDIX B
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) FOR PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL LETTER

Application for Exemption from Institutional Oversight

Unless qualified or meeting the specific criteria for exemption from Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight, all LSU research projects using human subjects, or subjects derived from humans, directly or indirectly, with or without their consent, must be approved or exempted in advance by the LSU IRB. This form helps the PI determine if a project may be exempted, and is used to request an exemption.

Applicant, please fill out the application in its entirety and include the completed application as well as parts A-F, listed below, when submitting to the IRB. Once the application is completed, please submit two copies of the completed application to the IRB Office or to a member of the Human Subjects Screening Committee. Members of this committee can be found at http://research.lsu.edu/CompliancePolicies/Procedures/InstitutionalReviewBoard%20Guidelines/Item2037.html

A Complete Application Includes All of the Following:
1A. Two copies of this completed form and two copies of parts B thru F.
1B. A brief project description (adequate to evaluate risks to subjects and to explain your responses to Parts 1 & 2)
1C. Copies of all instruments to be used.
1D. If this proposal is part of a grant proposal, include a copy of the proposal and all recruitment materials.
1E. The consent form that you will use in the study (see part 3 for more information.)
1F. Certificate of Completion of Human Subjects Protection Training for all personnel involved in the project, including students who are involved with testing or handling data, unless already on file with the IRB. Training link: [http://php.bit.lsu.edu/content.php/20577O5]

1) Principal Investigator: Laura Marie Brumbough
   Dept: IHE
   Ph: 337-332-2181
   E-mail: lbrumbough@egcenter.lsu.edu

2) Co-Investigators: please include department, rank, phone and e-mail for each:
   Dr. Krisina Mackins, Associate Professor
   School of Human Resource Education and Workforce Development
   225 578-7844

3) Project Title:
   Adult Perceptions of Youth Leadership Development

4) Proposal? (yes or no): No
   If Yes, LSU Proposal Number
   Also, if YES, either
   ● This application completely matches the scope of work to the grant
   or
   ● More IRB Applications will be filed later

5) Subject pool (e.g., Psychology students)
   4-H Youth Development County Extension Agents in Southern Region
   *Circle any "vulnerable populations" to be used: (children <18), the mentally impaired, pregnant women, the ages, older). Projects with incarcerated persons cannot be exempted.

6) PI Signature: [Signature]
   Date: [11/5/2013 (no per signatures)]

** I certify my responses are accurate and complete. If the project scope or design is later changes, I will resubmit for review. I will obtain written approval from the Authorized Representative of all non-LSU Institutions in which the study is conducted. I also understand that it is my responsibility to maintain copies of all consent forms at LSU for three years after completion of the study. If I leave LSU before that time the consent forms should be preserved in the Departmental Office.

Screening Committee Action: Exempted ✓ Not Exempted - Category/Paragraph 2

Signed Consent Waived: Yes No

Reviewer: Mathews
   Signature: [Signature]
   Date: 1/11/13

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Brumbaugh Adult Perception of Youth Leadership Questionnaire

Welcome to the Brumbaugh Adult Perceptions of Youth Leadership Survey.
Thank you for participating in my survey. Your participation in this survey is voluntary and your time and cooperation is greatly appreciated.
Your responses will be kept confidential.
The survey has four parts and will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Any questions with an asterisk (*) requires an answer in order to progress through this survey.
The purpose of this study is to collect data from youth educators in the Southern region who work with youth leadership development programs. This study will look at the educator's beliefs and attitudes about leadership as well as the outputs of county/parish youth leadership development programs. Your answers to this study will help develop new youth leadership professional development opportunities for youth educators.
If you have any questions about the survey, please contact Laura Brumbaugh at lbrumbaugh@agcenter.lsu.edu or 337-335-2181.

Study Exempted By:
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman
Institutional Review Board
Louisiana State University
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
225-675-8682 | www.lsu.edu/irb
Exemption Expires: 2/07/2016
APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE PRE-NOTICE TO STATE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION DIRECTORS

TO: Southern Extension Directors
    Southern Extension Administrators

RE: 4-H Research Project

One of our parish 4-H youth development agents (Ms. Laura Brumbaugh) is currently a graduate student working on her MS thesis in the Department of Human Resource Education at Louisiana State University. In this study, she is exploring adult perceptions of youth leadership development. As many of you know, youth leadership development plays a major role in the success of youth who participate in the 4-H youth development program. 4-H educator's beliefs and attitudes of leadership assessed, the variety of leadership programming outputs of teen leadership clubs inventoried, and comparing educator's leadership thinking to the number of outputs within the program to see if there is a correlation between outputs and leadership thinking is the overall goals of the study.

To complete her MS thesis research, Ms. Brumbaugh (Laura) is asking for your assistance. She would like to distribute a short survey to 4-H youth development agents and paraprofessionals in Southern Region Extension Service systems. This study (IRB # E8137) was approved by the IRB on February 14, 2013. The primary purpose of this research is to describe the leadership attitudes and beliefs of Louisiana county youth educators. Laura is looking at three main areas including: adult leadership perception, outputs of youth leadership development programs and attitudes and perceptions of youth leadership development professional development. The results of this study could help answer the question, does educator's leadership beliefs and attitudes impact the number of outputs in a leadership development program? The data collected will provide the beginning for the development of youth leadership professional development tools to be used statewide.

I believe this research will be valuable to the 4-H youth development profession and Laura would be grateful for your assistance in helping her complete this project. Laura would like your help to identify 4-H agents and paraprofessionals from your state to participate in the study. She would also like your assistance in communicating the importance of this study to your Extension agents and paraprofessionals by sending out correspondence about the project and a web link to the online survey to selected personnel.

If you can assist Laura complete this research project, please email me at your earliest convenience. We know everyone is very busy but this assistance will help produce valuable data that can be shared with 4-H program leaders once the study is complete. We sincerely appreciate your support and assistance. You can also contact Laura directly at lbrumbaugh@agcenter.lsu.edu.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Paul D. Coreil
Vice Chancellor and Director
Visit the LCES FaceBook page become a fan.
Join the LCES FaceBook Discussion Board.

PDC/jmw
APPENDIX D
QUESTIONNAIRE FIRST EMAIL

Dear Extension Professional:

You have been selected to participate in a study on Extension youth agent’s perceptions of youth leadership development. Participation in this study is completely voluntary.

The results of this study will be published, but they will not be associated with you or your parish Extension program in any way. Your identity will remain confidential. By your clicking the link below to access the online questionnaire, you are giving your consent to participate in this research study.

This questionnaire should take about 15-20 minutes to complete. Please complete by February 26, 2013.

Simply click this link to complete the survey.
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/GDM9KLJ

For any general questions regarding the study, please contact me, Laura M Brumbaugh, via email at lbrumbaugh@agcenter.lsu.edu. You may also contact my advisor, Dr. Krisanna Machtmes, at Machtme@lsu.edu or 225-578-7844.

If you have questions about subject’s rights or concerns, you may contact Robert C. Matthews, LSU Institutional Review Board, at 225-578-8692, irb@lsu.edu or www.lsu.edu/irb. This study (IRB # E8137) was approved by IRB on February 14, 2013.

Thank you for your time and help in completing this research!

Sincerely,

Laura M Brumbaugh
Graduate Student
lbrumbaugh@agcenter.lsu.edu
VITA

Laura Marie Brumbaugh is the daughter of Steven Brumbaugh and Terri Brumbaugh of Louisiana. She was born in Baton Rouge, LA. She graduated from Denham Springs High School in 2001, as an honor graduate. Laura earned her Bachelor of Science degree in Family, Child, and Consumer Science with a concentration in Human Services from Louisiana State University in December 2005.

In August 2006, Laura was hired by the LSU AgCenter as a 4-H youth development agent in Natchitoches parish. She has proudly served the youth of Natchitoches, Ascension, and St. Martin parishes. Laura currently serves as the 4-H youth development agent in St. Martin Parish. She was promoted to Associate Extension agent in July 2012.

Laura is a member of St. Joseph Catholic Church in French Settlement, LA. She is also a member of the National Association of Extension 4-H Agents (NAE4-HA) and the Louisiana Association of Extension 4-H Agents (LAE4-HA). Laura currently serves as faculty advisor of Sigma Alpha sorority, Zeta Chapter at LSU.

Laura has been recognized by her peers as a 2008 LAE4-HA Achievement in Service award winner. She was also a co-recipient of the 2008 NAE4-HA Excellence in Teamwork Power of Youth Leadership Award for her work with the Louisiana 4-H Citizenship youth board. In 2011, she was a co-recipient of the Jim Duncan Program of Distinction Award for Teen Programming. Laura has also received the 2009 Cecil McCrory memorial scholarship and numerous LAE4-HA communicator awards for her 4-H work on the parish level.