RURAL DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE

RURAL YOUTH LEADERSHIP









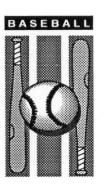




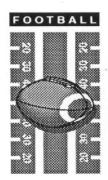
















RURAL YOUTH LEADERSHIP

by

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PREFACE

The Rural Development Institute began a program of studies in rural leadership in 1991 at the request of several rural constituencies. The breadth and nature of the studies have varied according to purpose, scope and available time and resources. First, we completed a review of the role of farm women in agricultural policy organizations. This project was sponsored by The J.W. McConnell Family Foundation. Second, in a related study on off-farm employment, involvement in rural organizations was a variable in determining life-style decisions.

Two on-going efforts directly address rural leadership. One, a review of the characteristics of elected officials in rural Manitoba, was sponsored by Manitoba Rural Development. A second study in progress describes the characteristics of volunteer community leaders in rural towns and villages. This project was funded by the Brandon University Research Committee.

The current study began as a review of the literature on youth in rural leadership sponsored by Manitoba Rural Development. Extension of the study to include a survey of high school leaders was sponsored by a special grant to small universities from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada. We see this as a beginning that will provide the baseline information needed to not only understand where we are in leadership, but also to design effective programs that address the perceived lack of leadership in some rural areas.

A number of people have assisted various aspects of these projects. Lynn Nesbitt, John McNairnay and Bob Grodzik of Manitoba Rural Development assisted in the aspects sponsored by that Department. Diane Ripley was responsible for production of the literature reviews involved. Bradley Milne assisted in the distribution, collation and entry of data from the survey, and Geoff Milne assisted in data analysis. All of these individuals served as Research Assistants at RDI. Joan Rollheiser, Administrative Assistant at RDI, prepared the manuscript for publication.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The project is divided into two parts. First, an extensive literature review was conducted to ascertain the state of knowledge concerning leadership and rural youth. Second, a survey was conducted to gain insight into the training, mobility and subsequent leadership activities of rural high school leaders in Manitoba.

Mailing lists, computer searches and telephone interviews were completed to locate and secure available information on youth and rural leadership. Fourteen computer searches were conducted but resulted in a small number of useful articles. Seventy-seven books, documents and journal articles were procured, but only 23 were specific enough to be used, and most are descriptive rather than empirical. A total of 54 sources constitute an annotated bibliography.

Sixteen program developers and researchers were contacted personally. No material is available specifically regarding age and gender as leadership variables. All those contacted state that this is an interesting topic that should be researched. Although many felt that there was material available, none could identify sources when asked for titles. The assumption of availability was incorrect. Leadership programs at both the university graduate level and the community level are applied with little or no empirical research base. Programs are established to serve the community and are based on the needs and requirements of a particular community. The community asks for programs that will allow it to obtain specific goals, and generally is not interested in the research behind programs.

A consensus is that youth are underrepresented in leadership positions in general and in formal leadership roles in particular. Women generally are underrepresented in leadership, but the larger the community the greater the female representation in informal groups. There is, however, no change in underrepresentation in formal groups. In total, leaders are selected (elected) because of traits, behaviours, situations, transactions and attributes, rather than age or gender.

Many reports state that programs are needed to train youth to develop their leadership skills, but none provide evidence as to why training is needed, or what differential characteristics youth bring to community leadership groups. A number of researchers indicated that most leadership training programs are based on the premise that those trained will benefit the community by teaching leadership skills. This premise, however, has not been tested. Concerns were raised about the ability to research the area of age and gender because there are so many moderating variables (i.e., situation, reason for the group's existence, career requirements, family's past history of service, social and economic status of the people in the group, etc.).

Problems may result from leadership programs (i.e., greater involvement may lead to family strain, and aggressive attitudes of participants can alienate peers and older leaders). Similarly, lack of time deters people from seeking office or becoming leaders. For example, local government is now so complex that if an individual is going to perform duties well, a great deal of time must be devoted to the leadership position. Overall, there is little empirical research that investigates rural leadership, although it is noted often that leadership is important to community life.

We randomly selected 30 rural high schools in an effort to identify, track and question students who were leaders during the last 15 years (1977-1992). From a list of 294 names, 112 surveys were returned (38 percent). Returns were received from 21 of the 30 high schools surveyed. Respondents are described by age, gender, original residence, migration and current residence, education, marital and family status, and occupation. Association analysis describes patterns between variables.

Three-quarters of the respondents now live in communities other than the one in which they attended high school. Most moved away shortly after graduation to attain further education, employment, or both. Most had positive high school leadership experiences, but high schools typically do not provide formal leadership

training. We identify the useful skills they did learn as well as the desired skills they did not learn. Skill acquisition came equally from a variety of sources with self-taught, parental and experiencial sources as important as teachers (schools). Associated leadership training in their communities was mentioned infrequently. Student leaders typically belong to a variety of organizations and occupy a variety of leadership positions, but leadership usually is of short duration (one year). Most student leaders are from families with histories of involvement in community organizations. Family histories of leadership are described in six categories with both men and women differentially active among categories.

Mobility is high among high school leaders as current residences vary greatly from "original" hometowns. Most movement is from smaller to larger communities, and one in five leaders has left the province since graduation. Those who have stayed in their original communities rank "family considerations" as the most important reasons for remaining, but many of those are the youngest respondents and may be involved in further schooling at the present time. Data indicate that most will leave following formal education.

High school leaders were divided equally in responses concerning their leadership training with half indicating it was adequate or excellent, and half rating it as inadequate or non-existent. A similar split occurred in assigning a lack of rural leadership to a lack of training or lack of youth retention in the communities.

High school leaders carry forward their skills and willingness to be involved in communities as 61 percent remained active as young adults (18-25 years). Community groups, youth groups and sports organizations were the most common activities. This pattern carried on into older age groups as well. Memberships, leaderships and lengths of tenure are preserved for major activity groups. In total, respondents listed 105 (known) current memberships, 1987 (known) former memberships and 416 total memberships. Average length of group involvement is 4.7 years. Fifty-one (known) leadership positions were held for an average 2.8 years. Community involvement, therefore, is influenced by family and career development activities. Many individual comments on high school leadership also are reported.

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INTRODUCTION

It has been noted that the difference between a moribund and viable community is one interested person with ideas and initiative. The leadership pattern of a community is a reflection of the commitment and involvement of its members. Despite this recognition, little effort has been made to investigate rural leadership patterns (Monu, 1982).

We had two major reasons for conducting research relating to leadership and rural youth. First, initial investigation suggested that the literature relating to youth and community leadership was either lacking or difficult to locate. An extensive literature review and a survey of scholars, public servants and others interested in rural youth were initiated to establish a base line of information for further study. Second, current and former high school leaders in Manitoba's rural towns and villages were located and sent a survey regarding leadership training in the school and community, leadership activities following graduation and related issues. This report, therefore, is divided into two major sections: 1) A Review of Rural Youth Leadership, and 2) A Survey of High School Leaders in Rural Manitoba. Both components are designed to assist not only in understanding the role of young people in rural leadership and rural development, but also in identifying training needs.

A REVIEW OF RURAL YOUTH LEADERSHIP

An extensive literature and authoritative review of rural youth leadership was conducted, and materials condensed into this report. The following specific questions were researched:

- To what extent is involvement of young people in leadership roles beneficial in rural communities? The literature was searched for evidence of necessity and/or practice of involving young people in community development.
- 2) What benefits do young people add to community leadership? Information was sought concerning the role of young people in community leadership.
- 3) What are the distinguishing characteristics of young leaders not found in older leaders? Gender, age, education, career and family characteristics were reviewed in order to identify potential training needs or population cohorts from which to recruit young leaders.
- 4) What issues must be addressed to increase the number of young people involved in leadership roles in rural areas? This included, but is not necessarily limited to, leadership training, community attitude and public education.

Method

Mailing lists were derived from the members of the Canadian University Network on Rural Development (CUNORD), the Agricultural and Rural Restructuring Group of Canada (ARRG), Rural Research Centres, leadership people in Extension Community Leadership Programs in the United States and individuals and organizations identified in return mail (Appendix A).

Computer searches were conducted by a number of organizations. Brandon University library staff searched CONOLE, DIALOG, ERIC, INTERNET and UTLAS data bases. The Rural Development Institute searched Brandon University, University of Saskatchewan, University of Manitoba and University of Winnipeg library data bases through BUCAT. The Rural Information Centre searched AGRICOLA, ERIC

and the USDA data bases. As well, Employment and Immigration Canada, Liaison (ICURR) and the Manitoba Rural Development Library conducted searches of their holdings (Appendix B).

Telephone interviews were conducted with 16 program developers and researchers in the fields of community development and community leadership in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Ontario and the United States. Two people are teaching graduate programs at the university level, and one was teaching an advanced leadership program through Ontario Agriculture Extension. There were a number of researchers representing the Kellogg Foundation, the Centre for Creative Leadership, the USDA and consultants (Appendix C).

Of the copy materials obtained, 77 were reviewed. Of these, 23 are of some value with regard to age and gender differences in leadership but are primarily descriptive in nature rather than empirical. The remaining 54 items were developed into an annotated bibliography for future reference (Appendix D).

Availability of Research Materials

A <u>National Impact Study of Leadership Development in Extension</u> (NISLDE) reports that the large body of research on leadership almost totally ignores leadership development. Nearly four out of ten staff members make no use of reference materials when planning or conducting leadership development work. One-third of the staff receives no research-based information in support of their leadership development work and of those who do, three-fifths did not find it very useful. This implies that more attention should be given to when and how Extension staff use research for leadership development (Michael et al., 1990).

The University of Arkansas has developed a number of bibliographies dealing with citizen participation, rural development and community development. Donald Voth, in reviewing both the bibliographies and personal conversations, stated that there are no long-term evaluation studies available of leadership programs. Specifically, there are no studies of differential age characteristics or gender differences in leaders. There may be a few studies in which these are recorded, but since there are no long-term studies, they become descriptive and irrelevant.

Darrel Heasley (Penn State University) teaches a graduate leadership program and Douglas Pletch (Guelph University) is the curriculum coordinator for an advanced agricultural leadership program. Both teach leadership as an applied course rather than as a theoretical course. The courses teach students to develop a leadership program that can be used to teach skills. According to Heasley (personal conversation), this is the norm in teaching leadership at both the university level and through extension.

Janet Moen (University of North Dakota) has spent the last four years implementing a leadership development program in North Dakota. She conducted no research with reference to age or gender differences, nor will her study provide this information. Although her program was of a different focus, she encountered similar difficulties in finding empirical research on which to base her program. Since available information did not address her specific issues, her treatise became primary information without a theoretical basis (personal conversation).

The consultant firm of Rosenblum and Associates is in the completion stages of a major study of rural women and leadership. The study deals primarily with rural women who are older than envisioned and, therefore, not the kinds of leaders they had anticipated at the outset. The survey was a mailed questionnaire requesting information at the end of the leadership program. Merle Finkle, President of Apt Associates, the company doing the compilation of the data, looked at the age structure and stated that there is not much variation in the age category. Also, the focus and outcome of this survey was not what we were looking for in this project. The questions asked were evaluative (why did you join, what did you learn etc.). The only characteristic of significance in leadership activity in the Rosenblum survey was education.

Sheila Rosenblum (personal conversation) stated that most consultants do not conduct longitudinal studies, even though these give more reliable information and allow one to look at changes over time. This occurs because funding is insecure, financial backers want to see results as soon as possible, and many funding organizations are unaware of the greater quality of longitudinal research. Those involved in long-term projects are from universities and have their own research funds. In these instances, however, leadership must compete with other areas for funding.

The Head of Research at the Kellogg Foundation, a major financier of leadership programs in the United States, could not identify any programs in which age differentiation was evaluated. She had just returned from a symposium with a number of academic leadership researchers and there was no mention of age as a factor in leadership issues. The Kellogg Foundation is currently funding one long-term, follow-up study of a leadership program, but there will be no information collected on age or gender differences (Lorraine Matusick, personal conversation).

Betty Wells developed the Tomorrow's Leaders Today program at Iowa State University. She is not aware of any empirical research regarding age and gender in rural leadership. Iowa's program evaluations are submitted to financial backers but are descriptive rather than comparative and do not include gender- or age-specific information. The program encourages each small community to form a larger group (cluster) of people who presently are not leaders. The participants are selected by community leaders and choice is based on perceived qualities as future leaders rather than age. Clusters remain together for one year, working on small projects with financial and personnel support from Iowa State University. If a cluster remains together, it is not provided with follow-up support from Iowa State staff after one year. The emphasis of the program is to help each community cooperate as a group to find alternatives to common issues. The program is not designed to develop specific or differential leadership characteristics (Betty Wells, personal conversation).

Frank Framer (Centre for Creative Leadership) is a researcher in the field of leadership, and Scott McKearney (Rural Information Centre, USDA) is a researcher in rural issues and community development. Both stated that information concerning age characteristics of rural leaders would be scarce at best. They searched their holdings and found only related issues such as school-to-work transition or leadership transitions, and even these used age as a descriptor rather than as a variable. McKearney said that the related literature on school-to-work transition may be useful. Bob Howell (Washington State University) thought that the present questions may relate to a paradigm for leadership transition (personal conversations).

The Centre for Creative Leadership brought together a critical mass of leading theoreticians and practitioners from the behavioural sciences and related fields. It published *Measures of Leadership* from the papers available (Clark and Clark, 1990). The variables deemed important for leadership included education, length of services in groups, career background and ethnicity. Ethnicity and gender are used only to determine validity measures, and age is not considered at all (Clark and Clark, 1990).

The Manitoba Government (through Manitoba Agriculture) has sponsored an active practical politics program to expose members of the general public to municipal, provincial and federal politics. The program has been in place for 20 years but has shifted among a number of different people and offices. No research has been associated with this program either at the outset or as a follow-up (personal conversations with Alf Chorney and Ken Martins).

Saskatchewan Rural Development implemented the Saskatchewan Committee on Rural Area Development (SCRAD) program in 1979 to educate people in community development. SCRAD, however, did not concentrate on leadership per se. The program advises and informs groups about development of communities (personal conversation Terry Crowe). Harold Baker (University of Saskatchewan) coordinated the Saskatchewan Advanced Community Leadership Institute (SACLI) series of seminars with the assistance of SCRAD. Seven seminars were held over three years, each designed to focus on a specific goal. One goal

was leadership. The target audience was selected to represent a cross-section of age, gender, geography and occupation, but a review of the series did not include demographic information (Baker, 1992).

Age and Gender as Leadership Characteristics

On the whole, rural youth are underrepresented in leadership positions but seem to be better represented in informal leadership groups than in formal leadership structures. This can be accounted for partly by migration of youth from rural areas. Individuals who do not intend to stay in a community are not likely to invest the time and energy required to occupy leadership positions in that community (Monu, 1982).

It has been reported that only a small percentage of leaders are females, but the larger the community the greater the female representation in informal groups. There is, however, little change in the formal leadership composition in larger communities. More than half of the identified leaders of southwestern Manitoba are classified as informal leaders. Generally, community leaders are males who are more than 50 years of age, tend to be better educated and work in the business and professional communities. On average, they reside for long periods of time in their communities (Monu, 1982).

Since age and gender do not appear to be issues in choosing and electing leaders, questions arise about how or why leaders are chosen. In formal organizations, they are elected. In information groups, however, the person who steps forward and is willing to take charge often assumes leadership. Five observed patterns for leadership selection include the following.

- 1) Traits: Certain leader traits cause certain responses in followers. Some people, regardless of gender or age, possess certain traits.
- 2) Behaviours: Certain leader behaviours cause certain responses in the followers. In this instance, changes in followers may define changes in effective leadership.
- 3) Situations: Certain leader traits, behaviours and/or connections are needed in a specific situation. Different traits and behaviours, therefore, are appropriate or effective at different times.
- 4) Transaction: Followers get something in return for giving leadership to the individual.
- 5) Attribution: Followers have a perception of an effective leader and the individual meets those perceptions (Miller et al. 1992).

Age and gender may be subsidiary to these aspects of leaders. To the extent that age and gender may partially interact with these qualities, however, they may be fruitful variables for study. Many studies suggest a need for programs to train youth to develop leadership skills. They do not, however, say why such training is needed or what differential characteristics youth bring to a community (Beane, et al., 1981, Walker et al., 1991).

Moderating Variables and Unintended Effects

A number of people contacted are of the opinion that youth leadership is a valuable research topic to pursue. Paula Smith (Sample Survey and Data Bank Unit) stated that the fact that her office could not be of assistance "indicates that this is an important area to pursue." Likewise, Dennis MacDonald (Community Futures Program, EIC) finds this topic "a fascinating area to be investigated and one ripe for research." A number of researchers indicate that most programs are based on the premise that training will benefit the community by teaching leadership skills, even though this premise has never been tested. Many programs are based on

the needs and requirements of a specific group or community, a program is designed to teach only certain skills, and it is devised to facilitate this purpose regardless of what research may indicate (Terry Crowe, personal communication).

Frank Framer (Creative Centre for Leadership), Darrel Heasley (Penn State University) and Robert Howell (Washington State University) raised concerns about the ability of research to determine that age and gender are significant variables. There are many moderating variables that impact on a person's decision to take a leadership position. For example, the nature of the situation (specific needs to be addressed), the reasons for the group's existence, family commitments, career commitments, social status of the people in the group, financial status of the people in the group, a family's past history of participation, self-confidence in holding a leadership position and length of service with the group. With so many other factors involved, the question arises of how one determines if age or gender differences are significant.

A 1977 study reviewed changes in participants at the end of a five-year leadership development program (Howell and Wilkinson, 1977). Not only intended effects were recognized, but also unintended and negative effects. For example, involvement in public affairs can lead to strain and tension in the family. Also, strain and tension sometimes developed between the participant and his or her peers or older community leaders. Some participants developed more tact and less aggressive leadership styles while some apparently tried to move too fast or invited negative reaction.

When rural people were asked why they did not seek elected offices, lack of time and inadequate salary were mentioned most often. Local government has become so complex that if an individual is going to perform duties well, a lot of time must be devoted to the position. At the same time, a need for broad representation within the leadership of the community is paramount. It is only through representative government that policies and programmes can reflect the needs and wishes of residents (Monu, 1982). Lack of time also was the major constraint listed by farm women for not becoming more involved in agricultural decision-making organizations (Ranoa, 1993).

In total, there has been little empirical research done to investigate rural leadership. It has been noted, however, that a serious problem arises with rural-urban migration in that a loss of leadership is sustained by rural communities. If leadership is important to community life, there is a need to identify who the leaders are and the roles they play in social organizations (Mon, 1982).

A SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL LEADERS IN RURAL MANITOBA

The lack of comparative research on rural youth leadership training, practice, mobility and continuity necessitated an initial effort defining current conditions and trends. Our purpose is to gather baseline information on high school leadership training and practice, the mobility of those trained and the net effect of early-life experience on future activities.

Methods

Thirty rural secondary schools were selected randomly from a list of all high schools in agro-Manitoba except those in Winnipeg and Brandon. A request was sent to each school to provide a list of names and addresses for all student council elected leaders (presidents, vice-presidents, secretaries, treasurers) for the municipal election years of 1977, 1980, 1983, 1986, 1989 and 1992. These years correspond to times used in related studies concerning elected and volunteer leadership in rural communities. Twenty-one schools responded. When addresses were unknown, local family members, friends and townspeople were contacted directly in an attempt to locate the former leaders. Addresses were checked for accuracy by phoning the students or their homes and requesting their cooperation in the study.

Of a total of 294 surveys that were mailed, 112 usable responses were returned for an overall response rate of 38 percent. The sample included 101 males (34 percent) and 193 females (66 percent). Student leaders from the following schools are represented in the returns:

Wawanesa School (Wawanesa)

Lac du Bonnet Senior (Lac du Bonnet)

Reston Collegiate (Reston)

Major Pratt School (Russell) Pinawa Secondary School (Pinawa)

Ashern Central School (Ashern)

Arborg Collegiate (Arborg)

Ethelbert School (Ethelbert)

Birtle Collegiate (Birtle)

Steinbach Regional Secondary (Steinbach)

Elkhorn School (Elkhorn)

Rossburn Collegiate (Rossburn)

Shoal Lake School (Shoal Lake) Waskada School (Waskada)

Dauphin Regional Secondary (Dauphin)

W.C. Miller Collegiate (Altona)

Roseau Valley School (Dominion City)

Glenboro School (Glenboro) Virden Collegiate (Virden)

Souris School (Souris)

Whitemouth School (Whitemouth)

Returned surveys were reviewed for completeness, data were collated and computerized, and analyses were completed using Stats Pak Gold software.

Characteristics of Respondents

The 112 high school leaders who responded to our survey are distributed evenly throughout four age categories (Table 1). Gender balance, however, did not occur as 82 (73 percent) of respondents are female and 30 (27 percent) are males. Sixty-seven (60 percent) of the respondents lived in towns and villages and 45 (40 percent) lived on farms. Somewhat more than half are not married, and only 26 percent have children.

All but 8 of the leaders have finished high school with nearly half of them completing some university (22 percent) or attaining degrees (23 percent), and another quarter completing some college (7 percent) or attaining a diploma or certificate (20 percent). Another 7 percent have pursued graduate studies. School leaders, therefore, traditionally pursue and complete post-secondary educations. Since many respondents are still students (n=31), these percentages likely will increase in the post-secondary categories. For example, 6 of the 8 respondents who have not finished high school currently are in grade 12, and 17 (55 percent) are attending university.

Association analysis indicates interesting patterns between gender and education. Female high school leaders finish college and university educations far more frequently than do male leaders, but males who do complete university more frequently attend graduate school. The association between gender and education is significant (X^2 =16.8, 7df, p=0.02).

Although a variety of occupations is listed, professional jobs (31 percent) and students (28 percent) account for more than half of all responses. Approximately 10 percent of respondents are in the management/administration, sales and services, and homemaker categories. Only two persons are entrepreneurs and only one is a farmer (Table 1).

Table 1. Characteristics of selected current and recent high school leaders in Manitoba

Category	No.	%	Category	No.	%
Age			Education		
15-20 yrs.	27	24	Graduate studies	8	7
21-25 yrs.	29	26	Complete university	26	23
26-30 yrs.	33	30	Some university	25	22
35-35 yrs.	23	21	Complete college	22	20
			Some college	8	7
Gender			Complete high school	14	13
Female	82	73	Less than high school	8	7
Male	30	27			
Residence			Occupation		
Farm	45	40	Professional	34	31
Town/Village	67	60	Student	31	28
			Sales and services	13	12
Marital status			Management/administration	9	8
Single	62	55	Homemaker	9	8
Married	50	45	Clerical	3	3
			Trades	3	3
Number children			Unemployed	3	3
0	82	74	Entrepreneur	2	2
1	15	14	Agriculture	1	1
2	11	10	Other	4	3
3	3	2			

Association analyses could not be completed for all current occupations by gender owing to too many categories with low numbers of cases. When categories with low numbers in an "other" category are collapsed, however, clear patterns emerge in the association. Major gender variation is evident in the professional category where 29 females (35 percent of all females) and only 3 males (10 percent of all males) are included. For example, nine females and no males were teaching, and five females and no males were in health care professions. Women also are disproportionately represented in "service" occupations. Conversely, males are represented disproportionately in "sales" and "managerial and administration" occupations. The association derived from collapsed categories is significant ($X^2=25.1$, 8df, p<0.01).

Student Leadership

Eighty-four (76 percent) of 111 respondents were living in a community other than the one in which they lived when attending high school (Table 2). Half of those whose current age was 15-20 years had already moved away, and more than 80 percent of those 21 years or older had moved away. Analysis reveals a significant association between age and place of residence (X^2 =11.03, 3df, p=0.012).

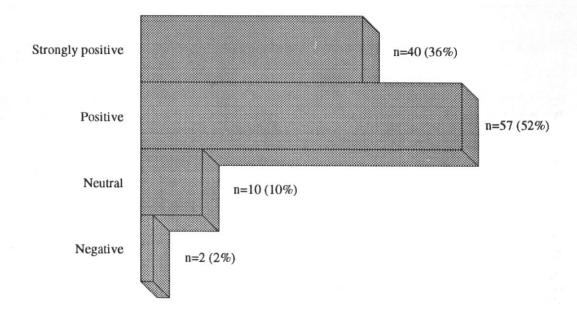
Table 2. The association between age and place of residence in former high school leaders in rural Manitoba

	Living in l	Living in hometown		hometown	Total		
Current age	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
15-20 yrs.	13	48	14	52	27	24	
21-25 yrs.	5	17	24	83	29	26	
26-30 yrs.	5	16	27	84	32	29	
31-35 yrs.	4	17	19	83	23	21	
Total	27	24	84	76	111	100	

Although 88 percent of 110 respondents rate their high school leadership experience as positive or strongly positive, most indicate a "positive" response rather than the highest rating (Figure 1). No one had a strongly negative experience, but 11 former leaders indicated neutral reactions (10 percent) and 2 listed negative responses (2 percent).

Figure 1

Ratings of School Leadership Experience
by High School Leaders in Rural
Manitoba



Leadership Training While in High School

High schools typically do not provide formal leadership training for students. Only 18 (16 percent) of 111 respondents had participated in any organized leadership development programs. Participation was indicated by some former leaders in the following programs: Manitoba Student Leadership Conference (n=4), Manitoba Association of Student Councils (n=2), school fundraising programs (n=2), Peer helpers program (n=2), KIN development camps, and one each in drama programs, public speaking, teens talking, school leadership workshops and cooperatives.

Former school leaders also were asked to list the skills that they were taught that were most useful and to indicate skills that they needed but did not learn. Twenty-one responses were provided for useful skills learned. General leadership skills (n=6), group communication or networking (n=4), organizational skills (n=3) and cooperation and collaboration (n=3) were mentioned most frequently. Effective listening, delegation of tasks, public speaking, financial planning and accepting responsibility were each listed once. Six skills were listed in the needed but not taught category: time management (n=3), networking (n=2), public speaking (n=2), motivation (n=2), and cooperation and delegation of tasks (one each).

Ninety-four (84 percent) of the school leaders indicated that they did not receive leadership training in their home community while they were student leaders. Of the 18 (16 percent) who did, 4-H programs (n=5), sports programs (n=4) and Scouts (n=2) were mentioned most frequently. Each of nine other programs or organizations was listed by one student: Federal Business Development, Manitoba Youth Parliament, Coop Credit Union Leadership Conference, YMCA/YWCA, CareerStart, Toastmasters, community churches, Racism Conference and community leadership conferences. It appears, therefore, that a variety of opportunities is available, but few students attend.

The 18 students who did indicate community training also listed the skills that they learned that were most useful and the skills that they felt they needed most that were not learned (Table 3). The most important skills learned are organization, networking with others, public speaking and team work. Only five responses were received for desired skills not learned. Delegation of responsibility, general leadership, supervisory skills and team work were indicated.

Table 3. Leadership skills learned, and those needed but not taught by community groups accessed by high school leaders

Category	Number
Most useful skills learned	
Organization	6
Networking	6
Public speaking	4
Team work	4
Tolerance/cooperation	2
Desired skills not learned	
Delegation	2
General leadership	1
Supervisory skills	1
Team work	1

High school leaders were asked to identify the sources of assistance that they received in developing leadership skills (Table 4). Self-teaching was mentioned by the highest number of respondents (62 percent), but parents and teachers also assisted more than half of the student leaders. On-the-job experience, however, also was mentioned by nearly half of the respondents. Help from others in the community was not common. Overall, no one source dominates the leadership guidance received by high school students.

Table 4. Sources of assistance in learning leadership skills listed by high school leaders in rural Manitoba

	Y	es	No		
Source of training	No.	%	No.	%	
Self-taught	67	62	42	38	
Parents	61	56	48	44	
Teachers	57	52	52	48	
Experience	50	46	59	54	
Community members	35	32	74	68	

Only a few respondents listed other sources of leadership training. Five mentioned other students as helpful, two mentioned 4-H, and two others attended leadership conferences. Political activity, military training, student councils, outside courses and sports were mentioned once each. In total, only 18 (16 percent) of 111 respondents indicated that any "organized leadership programs" were included in their experiences. It appears, therefore, that the acquisition of leadership skills is not well-organized, and that students, perhaps opportunistically, pick up what skills they can from wherever they can during their tenure as leaders.

Organizations, Leadership Roles and Length of Tenure

High school leaders were asked to list the school organizations they belong(ed) to and their role within each organization. The 108 usable surveys listed 252 responses (Table 5). Student councils are by far the most frequently mentioned organization. This, of course, relates directly to the selection of those to be surveyed from council positions. The fact that 154 positions are listed by 108 respondents indicates that about half of the leaders held more than one council position while in high school. Although 16 other school organizations are listed, only 4 others received 10 or more responses: yearbook committees, graduation committees, junior high councils and sports teams. Five other activities (not listed) were each mentioned by one respondent. A few respondents listed more than four activities, but total numbers beyond fourth listings were negligible.

More variation is evident among responses to leadership positions held in the various school organizations (Table 5). The four principal offices of president, vice president, secretary and treasurer are among the top six responses with "member" and class representative also common. Combined, these six positions account for 214 (83 percent) of the total responses. Chair/head, coordinator/organizer, editor and team captain frequently are mentioned. Most students, therefore, attain leadership experience by being traditional officers in school organizations.

One year is the usual tenure of leadership as nearly three-quarters of the respondents held office in any one organization for only one year (Table 5). Twenty percent of the respondents held an office for two years, but only 7 percent held any office for more than 2 years. Leadership experience, therefore, appears to be limited to those in grades 11 and 12.

Table 5. School organizations, positions held and length of tenure listed by high school leaders in rural Manitoba

		No. times listed in first four choices						
Organization/position/tenure	1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice	Total			
Organization								
High school student council	95	42	12	5	154			
Year book	5	6	8	1	20			
Grad committee	1	7	6	4	18			
Junior high student council	5	6	2	1	14			
Sport teams	0	4	4	2	10			
Recreation council	1	1	3	2	7			
Drama club	0	2	2	3	7			
Peer counselling	0	1	2	1	4			
Awards committee	1	1	0	0	2			
Reach for the Top	0	0	2	0	2			
School newspaper	0	2	0	0	2			
Social committee	0	2	0	0	2			
Photography club	0	1	1	0	2			
Travel club	0	1	0	1	2			
TADD/SADD	0	0	2	0	2			
School Bible study	0	1	1	0	2			
Environment club	0	0	1	1	2			
Total	108	77	46	21	252			
Positions held in organizations								
President	26	13	7	7	53			
Treasurer	25	12	5	0	42			
Member	3	13	16	9	41			
Vice-president	18	8	2	1	29			
Class representative	17	11	1	0	29			
Secretary	13	4	1	2	20			
Chair/head	3	6	5	2	16			
Editor	3	5	2	0	10			
Captain	0	2	5	1	8			
Coordinator/organizer	0	4	3	0	7			
Other	0	1	0	1	2			
Total	110	79	47	23	257			
Length of tenure in leadership p	ositions							
1 yr.	86	54	28	14	182			
2 yrs.	17	17	10	5	49			
3 yrs.	4		4	1	14			
4+ yrs.	0	5 3	1	1	5			
Total	107	79	43	21	250			

Family Leadership History

Eighty-five (76 percent) high school leaders indicated that one or more members of their families had served in some leadership capacity in their community. Conversely, 27 individuals (24 percent) came from families with no leadership involvement.

Six categories of community leadership were recognized (Table 6). Thirty-nine high school leaders came from homes where one or more resident held or currently does hold an elected office. Fathers most frequently are elected leaders. Gender distribution, however, is nearly equal in the community volunteer leadership category. Community leadership was most frequently listed of all categories.

Table 6. Leadership histories of families of high school leaders in rural Manitoba

	Leadership category													
	Elec	ted	Comn	nunity	Agric	ultural	Won	nen's	You	uth	Spo	rts	Tota	al
Family involved	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Father	20	51	19	26	15	71	0	0	4	10	27	55	85	34
Mother and father	8	21	22	30	0	0	0	0	7	18	6	12	43	17
Mother	4	10	18	25	0	0	30	94	14	36	6	12	72	29
Sibling(s)	2	5	0	0	2	10	1	3	6	15	5	10	16	6
Mother, father & siblin	gs 2	5	8	11	1	5	0	0	2	5	2.	4	15	6
Mother and sibling(s)	2	5	2	3	0	0	1	3	3	8	0	0	8	3
Father and sibling(s)	1	3	3	4	3	15	0	0	3	8	3	6	13	5
Total	39	100	72	100	21	100	32	100	39	100	49	100	252	100

Among the four specific leadership categories, sports involvement is most common with fathers most active, but youth groups also provide common leadership opportunities, and women most frequently fill leadership roles. Women's groups logically are dominated by women leaders. Similarly, agricultural organizations are most frequently controlled by men.

In total, the 85 high school leaders indicated 252 leadership roles for their family members, or 3 positions per family. Although varying significantly between genders among categories, the overall balance is very evenly distributed between rural men and rural women in the families of high school leaders (Table 6).

Location and Mobility of High School Leaders

The 111 high school leaders who responded to our survey indicated that they originally called 41 different communities "home" in rural Manitoba (Figure 2). Owing to consolidation over the years, students from many small communities attend high school in nearby larger towns and villages. Original hometowns are distributed throughout agro-Manitoba.

Current places of residence differ greatly from original hometowns. High school leaders not only have migrated to 52 different centres, but also live across Canada and internationally. Eighty-eight (79 percent) respondents live in 32 different communities in Manitoba. The 23 (21 percent) who live out-of-province are located in 18 different communities. Manitoba high school leaders have moved to Alberta (n=9), Sas-katchewan (n=6), Ontario (n=5), Quebec, British Columbia, the Northwest Territories and Australia (1 each).

Figure 2

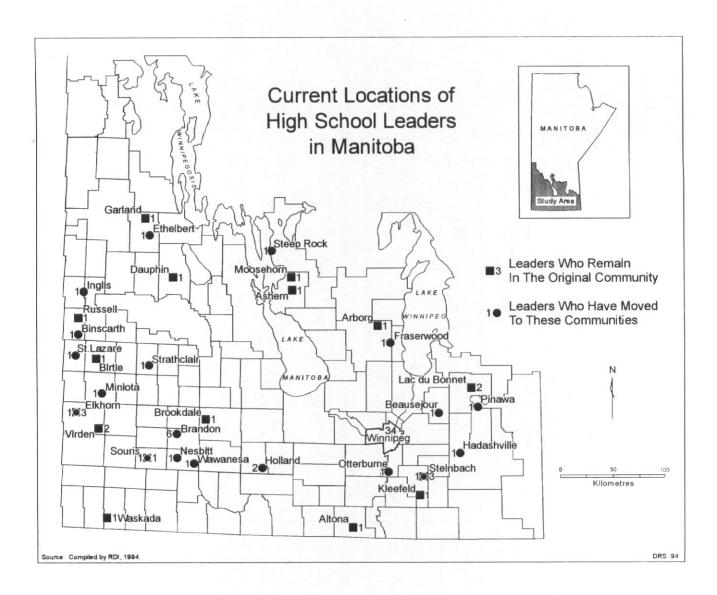
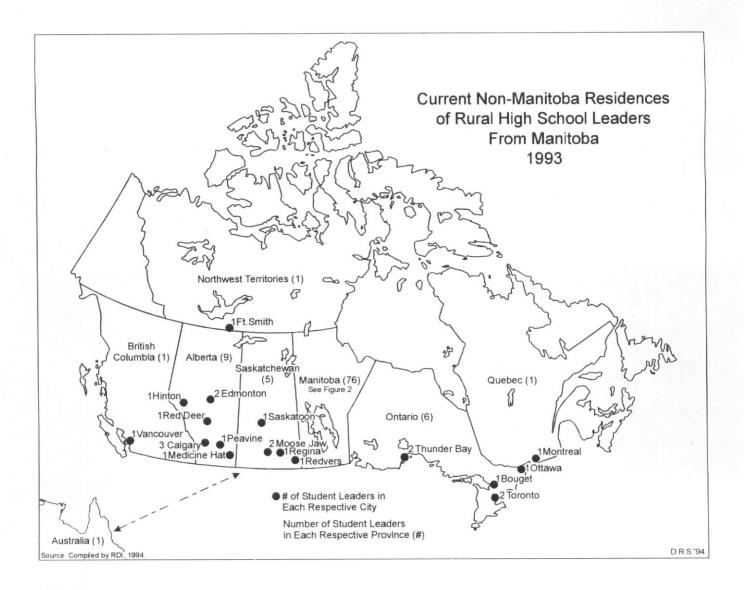


Figure 3



The functional classification of communities employed in central place analysis (Rounds and Shamanski, 1993) was used to assess the impact of migration within rural Manitoba. Six functional levels were recognized in 1991 and were defined by comparative numbers of businesses and services available, population and related characteristics: 1) primary wholesale-retail centres, 2) secondary wholesale-retail centres, 3) complete shopping centres, 4) partial shopping centres, 5) full convenience centres, and 6) minimum convenience centres. Original selection of schools purposely omitted Manitoba's two major cities, Winnipeg and Brandon, which also are the province's only wholesale-retail centres.

Fifty-three (48 percent) of the 111 respondents listed complete and partial shopping centres as original "hometowns" (Table 7). Forty-two (38 percent) are from the smaller, partial shopping centres. The remaining 58 student leaders (52 percent) are from small convenience centres located throughout rural Manitoba.

Current places of residence listed by respondents reveal a very different distribution of high school leaders as nearly half of the 88 respondents who still live in Manitoba now reside in either Winnipeg (39 percent) or Brandon (8 percent). Only 18 of the original 53 leaders living in shopping centres still live in Manitoba's larger rural communities. Similarly, only 19 of the 58 leaders from the smaller convenience centres still reside in smaller communities (Table 7). There is, therefore, clear evidence that rural Manitoba's young leaders are leaving rural areas. Similarly, 17 of the 22 respondents who live elsewhere in Canada live in major wholesale-retail centres in other provinces. In total, therefore, 58 of the 111 (52 percent) high school leaders who originally lived in shopping and convenience centres now live in major cities. These numbers will increase as the youngest respondents, who still are in school, likely will follow the pattern and leave home when their educations are complete. Mobility was not associated with individual leadership positions held in student councils.

Table 7. Original and current classification of places of residence of high school leaders in Manitoba

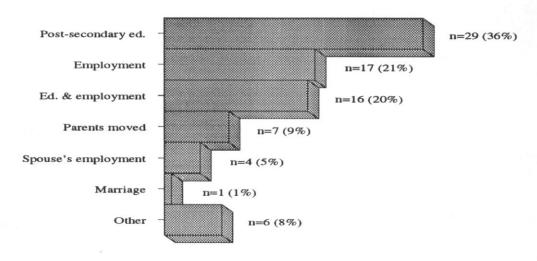
Comm	unity classification ¹	Origina	l "home"	Present re	Change		
Level	Name	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	Primary wholesale-retail	0	0	34	39	34	+
2	Secondary wholesale-retail	0	0	7	8	7	+
3	Complete shopping centres	11	10	5	6	-6	-54
4	Partial shopping centres	42	38	13	15	-29	-69
5	Full convenience centres	26	23	12	14	-14	-54
6	Minimum convenience centres	32	29	17	19	-15	-47

See Rounds and Shamanski (1993) for detailed definitions. Winnipeg is Manitoba's only primary wholesale-retail centre, and Brandon is the only secondary wholesale-retail centre.

Former school leaders generally leave their home towns soon after graduation from high school. Accordingly, 80 respondents (71 percent) responded no, and 32 (29 percent) responded yes when asked if they had lived in their present community for their entire life. Two major reasons were given for leaving home communities (Figure 4). Pursuing post-secondary education was the most common reason to leave followed by better employment opportunities elsewhere. Further, a number of people ranked these two reasons as equal, resulting in more than three-quarters of all responses being attributed to education and employment. A variety of other reasons was listed by a few respondents.

Figure 4

Reasons Why Former High School Leaders
Left their Hometowns



Apparently, high school leaders do not leave their hometowns because they do not like the community. Forty-nine (64 percent) of those who had left said that they would consider returning. Of those 49 respondents, 39 (80 percent) said that community involvement would be a major consideration in the decision to return.

The 32 former leaders who still reside in their home community were asked to rank six factors as to importance for staying. Twenty-seven high school leaders responded. A ranking of 1.0 signifies very important and a rank of 5.0 signifies not at all important. Because most of those still living at home were 15-20 years of age, it is logical that family considerations ranked as most important (Table 8). The physical environment ranks second in importance. Friendly neighbours and economic factors rank about equally in third and fourth positions among mean rankings. Both community involvement and recreation opportunities received low rating among reasons for still living in home communities.

Table 8. Rankings of importance of factors contributing to decision to remain in their hometown by high school leaders in Manitoba

	Mean	No. responses by ranked important					
Factors	score	1	2	3	4	5	6
Family considerations	1.81	14	9	2	0	1	1
Physical environment	3.04	4	8	4	6	4	1
Economic factors	3.62	6	5	1	3	3	8
Friendly neighbours	3.65	2	4	7	4	6	3
Community involvement	4.27	1	1	6	5	8	5
Recreation opportunities	4.54	0	0	6	8	4	8

Family considerations are clearly the most important reasons to remain in home communities as 23/27 respondents gave first and second most important ratings to the factor. The mean values for physical environment, economic factors and friendly neighbours, however, are derived from individual ratings dispersed across the range of greatest to least importance. There is, therefore, considerable variation among former high school leaders as to the importance of various factors in their decision to remain in their home town. Community involvement received only one first and one second most important responses. This may signify that high school leadership does not necessary translate to community involvement, especially in early adult years.

High School Leaders' Opinions of Leadership Training

Although several other questions relate indirectly to school leaders' training, two questions were designed specifically to assess how they perceive their high school backgrounds. First, respondents were asked to indicate one of four statements concerning leadership training in their hometowns (Table 9). One-third indicated that leadership training did not occur, and an additional third said it was not adequate. The remaining third felt that they received adequate training, but only 8 percent of all respondents felt that training was excellent. In the views of current and former high school leaders, therefore, leadership training was lacking in most areas.

Table 9. Rating of leadership training by high school leaders in rural Manitoba

Statement	No. responses	Percent	
Training does not occur	37	34	
Training is not adequate	36	33	
Training is adequate	28	25	
Training is excellent	9	8	
Totals	110	100	

Second, student leaders were asked to respond to a statement that the problem of a lack of rural leadership relates more to young people moving away than to a lack of leadership training. Responses were evenly distributed between those who strongly agree (9 percent) or agree (25 percent), those who are neutral (28 percent), and those who strongly disagree (9 percent) or disagree (29 percent) (Table 10).

Table 10. Responses to the statement that "the problem of a lack of leadership relates more to young people moving away than to a lack of leadership training in school"

Response	No. responses	Percent	
Strongly agree	10	9	
Agree	27	24	
Neutral	31	28	
Disagree	32	29	
Strongly disagree	10	9	
Total	110	100	

Association analysis was applied to the responses in Table 9 and Table 10. Those who stated that training does not occur or is not adequate disagreed with the statement that migration was the major problem in rural leadership. Conversely, those who felt that leadership training is adequate or excellent tended to agree that migration was a problem. The significant association ($X^2=25.1$, 12df, p=0.014) between the two variables strongly suggests that both present training and youth retention are problems, and that these must be addressed in a coordinated manner in order to improve leadership in rural communities.

Community Involvement of Former High School Leaders

Among 112 respondents, 63 (56 percent) currently belong to one or more community organizations, and 32 (53 percent) of these have taken a leadership position. Only five of those who do not belong to a community group stated that they had no desire to join. In total, approximately 95 percent of former high school leaders either already do participate in their communities or wish to do so in the future.

Similarly, half of those currently holding memberships in organizations have assumed a leadership role, and 22 (79 percent) of 28 respondents who currently are not in leadership roles said that they would be willing to assume such roles in the future. In addition, 32 of 35 who do not currently belong to an organization said that they would be willing to accept leadership positions in the future.

Involvement Immediately after High School

High school leaders remain involved in a variety of activities as young adults (ages 18-25 yrs.). Sixty-eight (61 percent) listed membership in 123 organizations (Table 11). They also listed 102 leadership positions or 1.5 positions per active person. Conversely, 44 (39 percent) high school leaders did not remain active in community roles as young adults. Many of these spent those years in post-secondary education.

Table 11. Organization memberships and leaderships held by former high school leaders when they were young adults (ages 18-25 yrs.)

Type of organization	Memberships (n=68)			Leadership (n=57)		
	No. responses	% responses	% respondents	No. responses	% responses	% respondents
Community service groups	33	27	29	12	12	
Youth groups	25^{1}	20	22	29	29	
Sports groups	25	20	22	18	18	
Business/labour groups	12	10	11	5	5	
Church groups	11	9	10	11	11	
Student groups	7	6	6	19	19	
Environmental groups	4	3	4	2	2	
Political groups	4	3	4	2	2	
Agricultural groups	2	1	2	42	4	
Totals	123	100	100	102	100	

⁴⁻H is the major youth group: students can remain members of 4-H until their 20th birthday. Leadership positions can outnumber memberships if one person held several positions.

Community service groups involve the most memberships, but youth groups and sports groups are common. Leadership positions are most common in youth groups, student groups and sports organizations. The major youth group is 4-H which allows membership until age 20. The high number of leadership positions in youth groups reflects the senior members of 4-H.

Total Involvement in Community Organizations by Former High School Leaders

A series of questions was asked to obtain information on the histories of community activity of former high school leaders (ages 18+ years). A prepared list of common rural organizations was provided, but many other groups were listed by respondents. Current and former membership, years of service and tenure as leaders were ascertained for major organizations but often were not indicated by respondents for "other" organizations listed.

Community involvement of former high school leaders is divided into five major categories: 1) community groups, 2) agricultural groups, 3) women's or family groups, 4) youth groups, and 5) sports groups (Table 12). Among these, sports groups, community groups and youth groups dominate activities. Among sports organizations, curling clubs are most frequent in both current and former membership categories with skating and hockey as important additional activities. Winter activities, therefore, are most common with baseball and golf as the only summer activities that were listed by more than two respondents. In total, 38 current activities and 61 specified former activities combine with "other activities" to provide 162 listed sports groups. The average length of known active and former memberships is 5.0 years. Eight respondents had served a sports organization in a leadership capacity. Average length of leadership is 2.8 years for known cases (Table 12).

Community groups are the second most commonly mentioned set of organizations. Current and former membership is most common in church, professional groups and community halls. In contrast to sports groups, current members outnumber former members among community groups. The average length of membership for known cases is 4.4 years. Fifteen respondents have served an average of 2.3 years in a leadership capacity in community groups.

Youth groups also provide opportunities for involvement to former high school leaders. Various organizations for children (e.g., Scouts, Guides, etc.) apparently draw attention from adults soon after high school as only about 5 percent of respondents currently are involved, but many have been involved in the past. The same is true for 4-H where only 3 people are now involved, but 44 others have been involved in the past. Overall, current membership is far below former membership in youth groups. The weighted average tenure for known cases is 4.8 years. Youth groups offer many opportunities for leadership experience as not only the highest number of leaders occur in this category, but also they serve as leaders for the longest average time (Table 12). Involvement in agricultural and women's or family groups is minimal among former high school leaders.

In total, respondents listed 105 known current memberships, 187 known former memberships and 416 total organizational memberships. The weighted average length of membership is 4.7 years. Known current and former leaderships involve 51 positions, the average tenure of which is 2.8 years. Known leadership positions constitute 17 percent of known group memberships.

Table 12. Organizational memberships held since graduation by former high school leaders in rural Manitoba

Community groups Church 13 25 38 4.2 1 1.0 Professional 18 2 20 5.9 6 2.8 Halls 8 2 10 6.6 5 2.8 Environmental 6 1 7 1.0 2 1.0 Wildlife 5 2 7 4.3 Chambers of Commerce 4 0 4 5.3 Chambers of Commerce 4 0 4 5.3 Chambers of Commerce 4 0 3 3 1.7 1 1.0 Rural Crime Watch 1 2 3 3 3.5 Chers (one each) unk unk 21 unk unk unk Total/average 60 39 120 4.4 15 2.3 Agricultural groups Keystone Agr. Producers 1 0 1 Manitoba Coops 1 3 4 3.0 Manitoba Coops 1 3 4 3.0 Women's/Family groups YWCA 0 2 2 Women's/Family groups YWCA 0 2 2 7.0 1 2.0 Women's/Family groups YWCA 0 2 2 7.0 1 2.0 Other (one each) unk unk 5 Total/average 1 3 44 47 5.6 21 3.7 Guides/Brownies 1 24 25 3.6 4 1.3 Cubs/Scouts 0 9 9 3.3 2 1.3 Church groups unk unk 10 unk unk unk Rural Youth 0 4 4 1.5 Church groups unk unk 10 unk unk unk Rural Youth 0 4 4 1.5 Church groups unk unk 10 unk unk unk Rural Youth 0 4 4 1.5 Church groups unk unk 15 unk unk Rural Youth 0 4 4 1.5 Church groups unk unk 15 unk unk unk Total/average 4 81 110 4.8 17 3.2 1 Sports groups Curling clubs 23 26 49 4.4 5 2.2 Sports groups Curling clubs 5 22 27 7.5 6 3 2.3 Hockey clubs 6 8 14 7.8 Volleyball clubs unk		Membership				Leadership	
Church 13 25 38 4.2 1 1.0 Professional 18 2 2 20 5.9 6 2.8 Environmental 18 2 2 20 5.9 6 2.8 Environmental 6 1 7 7 1.0 2 1.0 2 1.0 Wildlife 5 2.8 Environmental 6 1 7 7 1.0 2 1.0 2 1.0 Chambers of Commerce 4 0 4 5.3 Chambers of Commerce 4 0 4 5.3 School 0 3 3 3 1.7 1 1 1.0 Chers (one each) unk unk unk 21 unk unk unk unk Cotters (one each) unk unk 21 unk unk unk unk 21 unk U	Organization	Current	Former	Total	Ave. yrs.	No.	Ave. yrs.
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Women's/Family groups YWCA		unk	unk	10		unk	unk
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Weighted average for known cases

Comments from High School Leaders

Current and former high school leaders were encouraged to comment on rural leadership training and experience. Sixty-four (57 percent) of the respondents did write comments. Responses were divided into seven categories for convenience of discussion: 1) informal (experiential) leadership training, 2) rural leaders, 3) family role in leadership development, 4) positive aspects of high school programs, 5) negative aspects of high school programs, 6) impacts of funding and overload on high school leadership, and 7) comments on community leadership development.

Seven comments were received on informal leadership training. Generally, responses reflected either a lack of formal training or greater importance of informal training, or both. Most former students felt that experience was the best teacher and that opportunities varied widely from sports to student council. One response stated that "I am not sure whether leadership can be learned through anything but personal experience. Leadership ... has nothing to do with arrogance, pride or simply being the loudest. It has everything to do with fairness, wisdom and seeking advice." Some responses suggested that if formal leadership training were available, it would attract more people and augment experiential learning.

The four statements relating to rural leaders suggest that both the number and quality of leaders are deficient. Two respondents felt that there simply aren't enough people with skills to step forward, and one expressed dismay with those who had skills but refused to get involved. The fact that a small group of people assumes multiple leadership roles in rural towns was recognized.

The importance of family support, both in getting involved and in providing skills, was recognized by six respondents. In one instance, a farm family background that was non-supportive was indicated as a major challenge by the student. Conversely, family support was heralded in the statement "No matter what happens in school, being 'community oriented' has to come from parents teaching children. It is hard to understand people who have no desire to be involved." More than one comment suggested multiple generation involvement as evident in their home community. The role model aspect of parents was obviously important in the skill development of these respondents.

Many written comments (14) referred to positive aspects of high school leadership experience. Six separate individuals specifically mentioned learning how to work with others as the most important interpersonal skill learned. Developing self-confidence and self-esteem allowed high school leaders to make the rural-urban transition, accept responsibility, develop careers and work through challenges. One comment put a different perspective on rural opportunities: "I don't feel that the opportunities for school leadership experience in a rural community are lacking -- they may even be greater in abundance than in cities due to a higher level of community awareness and involvement."

Conversely, 12 negative comments were received concerning high school leadership experiences. Most responses related to two areas. First, that too many skills were missed. Second, a clear problem was articulated with how student leaders are selected/elected. Many respondents, although leaders themselves, felt that opportunities are limited and that many people with leadership potential are passed by owing to peer "cliques" or adult selection processes. Several former leaders said that they were left to fend for themselves throughout the leadership experience. The experience, therefore, does not necessarily prepare students for future leadership roles.

Conflicting responses were evident regarding school budget restrictions. Two respondents wrote lengthy comments about extra-curricular activities and excursions being the first items which are cut. Virtually all leadership experience and comparative learning occur in these activities. Very little leadership experience occurs in the classroom. Conversely, one respondent said that budget cuts are a reality, and non-essential programs must be cut first. This person suggested that the community should recognize the problem and

provide leadership training and experience within the community but outside of the school. In this way, the student would not only have the experience, but also integrate more directly into the community.

This latter point leads directly to the series of comments that received the highest number of responses (18): community and leadership development. Comments vary significantly from strongly positive to extremely negative. The nature, history and size of community influence responses. Many high school leaders leave because they become thoroughly disgusted with the apathy or negativeness of residents. Comments like "bad attitude," "nothing to do," "no opportunity and no attempt to change things," and "lack of commitment and unity" are common. Only a few communities were recognized as supportive and progressive. A lack of organization in leadership training, especially between schools and the community, appeared to occur in most towns and villages. A strong need was indicated for community opportunities to augment limited school opportunities.

One final point must be made. High school leaders from rural communities single out 4-H as the only major non-school organization that provides leadership opportunities to youth. Some are clearly upset by cut-backs in funding to 4-H which, in combination with reduction in extra-curricular activities in school, may remove virtually all leadership training and experience from rural towns.

PERSPECTIVES ON YOUTH LEADERSHIP

Our information clearly shows that most young leaders ultimately leave smaller rural communities and reside in larger towns or major urban areas. The major reasons for moving are either or both to attain post-secondary education and gain employment. Long and Hansen (1980) state that the brightest young people were most likely to leave rural areas. Age-specific migration between 1960 and 1980 in the United States clearly implicated economic factors as the most important reasons for moving (Murdock et al. 1984). In addition, Segfrit (1986) suggests that rural youth do not necessarily remain even in progressive, growing communities that do offer employment. In this study, seeking new adventures was as important in out-migration as was employment opportunity.

The fact that community involvement was relatively unimportant to high school leaders as a reason for remaining in rural towns also is supported by the literature. Long and Hansen (1980) found that community participation is a secondary factor in mobility, and Murdock et al. (1984) report that public service was not an important mobility factor "at any age." Fernandez and Dillman (1979) report that age affects the importance community identity and satisfaction play in choice of residence. This likely corresponds to the fact that retirees move more often due to non-economic factors (Long and Hansen, 1980) and to the metro-return to rural America (Sofranko and Williams, 1980).

Respondents to our study indicated that leadership training seldom was available in rural communities. The literature often refers to the need for involving young people in community leadership, but generic programs are not offered and the importance of community training is controversial. Clark (1989) makes the strongest case for the value of youth volunteer community service programs and lists the following six elements as essential in any program:

- 1) The service must be valuable and worthwhile to both students and the community.
- 2) The service must provide opportunity for students to be responsible.
- 3) The service must include tasks that increase a student's critical thinking.
- 4) The service must provide opportunities to make meaningful decisions.
- 5) The service must, if possible, provide the opportunity for adults and students to work together.
- 6) The service must provide systematic reflection on the experiences.

In addition to these elements, Cook (1976) states that interdependence is the key to leadership training in rural areas, and that the democratic process is essential in all actions. Jones (1974) reports on one program designed to encourage student participation in local communities, but no follow-up analysis was available.

Newmann and Rutter (1983), however, report negative results in student involvement in volunteer community service. According to their major review, community service modestly increased a student's sense of social responsibility and sense of personal competence, but it failed to result in benefits related to school responsibility, political efficacy, future affiliation and future political activity. In a key statement, the author concludes that the developmental opportunities offered in regular school classes may have more impact on social development than do specific opportunities within communities.

Unfortunately, little information is available on formal high school leadership programs that provide effective training in the classroom. Earlier warnings that community training is not effective are repeated in later articles, and the importance of school training that nurtures the public good and teaches the process of negotiation are encouraged (Newman, 1989; Rutter and Newmann, 1989). Holloway (1982) echoes the shortage of opportunities afforded to youth and suggests the need for a specific strategy to improve the situation. Virtually no one, however, specifies what is important or what works. In spite of the fact that youth will impact the future, most studies concentrate on existing leaders rather than future leaders (Hyman, 1972). Stoghill (1948) provides some insight into what might comprise the basis of youth training programs. He suggests that leaders acquire status through active participation and demonstration of the capacity to carry cooperative tasks to completion. This can be done only in groups with a number of members involved.

Our high school leaders echo many of the above suggestions. First, they indicate that leadership training is weak or non-existent in Manitoba rural high schools. Second, they seldom have access to leadership training in the community. Third, what training they do receive in school is informal. Fourth, many leaders state that the number of opportunities afforded high school students is minimal, and that many more students would benefit from leadership experience. In total, however, the question of youth retention is as significant as leadership training. The two processes are related, requiring a whole new approach to community revitalization through youth involvement.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A	Mailing Lists
Appendix B	Computer Searches and Bibliographies
Appendix C	Personal Communications
Appendix D	Annotated Bibliography

APPENDIX A

Mailing List for Rural Leadership Information

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APPENDIX B

Computer Searches and Bibliographies

- AGRICOLA Rural Leadership Jan. 1979-Dec. 1990 Quick Bibliography Series QB 91-117 contains 186 citations of which 2 were reviewed (National Agricultural Library).
 - <u>Rural Education Jan. 1979-Sept. 1991</u> Quick Bibliography Series QB 92-15 contains 140 citations of which none was appropriate.
- BUCAT

 Brandon University library computer system, not only finds information from Brandon University but also accesses the University of Saskatchewan, the University of Manitoba and the University of Winnipeg library catalogues. Some information, but little of use: 33 titles received.
- CANOLE No data base to use.
 Consists of training, scientific/technical information, engineering, Borel Institute, physics, bio-chemical, geographical and water-related data bases.
- ERIC Data base generally concerned with reports, journals and presented papers in educational fields: 8 useful citations (USDA).

- Psychological abstracts, sociological abstracts: 13 titles received

Employment and Immigration Canada: 5 citations sent, none relevant.

DIALOG

- INTERNET Interuniversity libraries. Look for universities with rural studies and/or community development institutes. Saskatchewan and Manitoba are available and searched on BUCAT. Guelph is not listed on INTERNET.
- Literature search obtained 3 citations; also placed an S.O.S. in the October, 1992 Liaison magazine. Received one call not relevant to the literature review.

Manitoba Rural Development Library: received 6 citations; one was of use.

- SPARC <u>Annotated Bibliography of selected resources</u>. Community Initiatives publications. Contains 60 citations of which none was appropriate.
- Does not have the flexibility to find subject information as must have name of author or title. Designed as a catalogue data base to find information using catalogue information; author, title, publisher: 24 titles received.
- VANCE Bibliographies <u>Leadership</u>: A selected guide to periodicals, 1972-1982. Public Administration Series Bibliography contains approximately 295 citations of which 14 were appropriate and reviewed.

APPENDIX C

Personal Communications With Leadership Specialists

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APPENDIX D

Annotated Bibliography

compiled by

Diane Ripley, Research Assistant, The Rural Development Institute

Adamchak, Donald J. (1987). "Further evidence on economic and noneconomic reasons for turnaround migration." Rural Sociology, 52 (1):108-118.

Studies the motivation for migration to nonmetropolitan counties. Reasons for migrating for rural people were more likely to be influenced by employment considerations. Quality of life and environmental (non-economic) reasons greatly influenced the urban group. There were significant differences between employment and environmental factors for the 18-59 age group.

Baltes, Paul B. and Goulet, L.R. (1971). "Exploration of developmental variables by manipulation and simulation of age differences in behaviour." <u>Human Development</u>, 14:149-170.

It is argued that developmental research should be oriented towards the explication of age changes by the manipulation of variables hypothesized to be associated with age. These strategies focus attention on the inherently descriptive nature of research designs which involve the use of age as an independent variable further clarifying the role of chronological age in developmental theories. It also highlights the potential importance of variables whose effects are manifested over time but not directly apparent when conventional cross-sectional or longitudinal methods of data collection are used. Does not focus on leadership itself.

Bass, Bernard M. (1960). <u>Leadership, psychology and organizations behaviour</u>, Harper and Brothers, New York.

Looks at characteristics of young school age children (less than 16 years). He found some consistency between early leadership tendencies and adult leadership potential. He did not find differential characteristics between groups and he did not look at any other age-specific groups. Transference of leadership is dependent on similarity of the situation to already experienced situations. Experience is suggested as the major requirement in the transfer of leadership.

Baton, David A. (1989). "Organization challenges of the 1990's: Leadership, service, culture and morale." Optimum, 20 (4):75-78.

Focuses on development of existing leadership, providing excellent service, changing the culture and assessing the impact of changes on employee morale. These are as important as developing marketing, financial and other strategies. He delineated six characteristics of leaders or managers that distinguish them from routine managers. Age and gender were not among the characteristics.

Beane, James, Turner, Joan, Jones, David and Lipka, Richard (1981). "Long-term effects of community service programs." <u>Curriculum Inquiry</u>, 11 (2):143-155.

The effectiveness of community service projects would likely be demonstrated after students left school and had opportunities to participate in community affairs as adults. Comprehensive evaluation requires long-term as well as short-term study. This study attempted to examine the attitudes and experiences of adults who had participated in a particular community service project during the years 1945 to 1949 and to compare these to attitudes and experiences of same-year graduates who had not participated in such a program. More of the former participants of the program were in leadership roles, but there is no way to determine if the program itself was the fundamental variable because there is no way to control for the extraneous variables of living.

Bennis, Warren (1989). Why leaders can't lead. Jossey-Bass Publishers. San Francisco, California.

This book is an analysis of the problems facing anyone who tries to take charge of an organization, of whatever kind, and effect change. It is concerned with all those who are elected, promoted or appointed to leadership in any kind of organization. It lists eight prime leadership skills and a number of characteristics; however, neither gender nor age is listed among them.

Bryman, Alan (1986). Leadership in organizations. Routledge and Kegan Paul. London, England.

Looks at various theories, approaches and findings relevant to the study of leadership in organizations, the vast bulk of which has been preoccupied with the issue of leader effectiveness. Age and gender are not covered as separate variables and, therefore, are not seen as relevant in this book.

Burns, James MacGregor (1972). Leadership. Harper & Row Publishers. New York, New York.

Distinguishes between leadership and followership. Leadership is seen as part of the dynamics of conflict and power, and a link to collective purpose. Burns looks at general theories of leadership and types of leaders, and defines the general characteristics of leaders. He does not discuss the variables of age or gender.

Chavis, David M. and Wandersman, Abraham (1990). "Sense of community in the urban environment: a catalyst for participation and community development." <u>American Journal of Community Psychology</u>, 18 (1):55-81.

Participation in local action is important for community development but is not a sufficient goal. Participation does not insure the alleviation of problems facing the community. In order for local action to be effective, participants must have or develop the skills necessary to address community needs. Leaders must be skilled at running and directing the organization. Age and gender are not used as variables.

Christenson, James A. (1989). "Themes of community development." In Christenson, James A. and Robinson, Jerry W. Jr. (editors), <u>Community Development in Perspective</u>, Iowa State University Press. Ames, Iowa. Pp. 26-47.

A review of a number of journal articles and a few books to identify some common themes and to point out some of the evolving issues facing professionals working in the area of community development in the 1990's. This chapter presents a content analysis of <u>Journal of Community Development</u>, including articles on citizen participation for the years 1970 to 1987. Leadership articles are looked at but none concerns age and gender.

Christenson, James A. and Robinson, Jerry W. (editors). <u>Community development in perspective</u>. Iowa State University Press. Ames, Iowa.

Looks at a number of issues in community development, including local organizations and leadership in community development, but age and gender are not issues covered.

Clark, Kenneth E. and Clark, Miriam B. (1990). <u>Measures of leadership</u>. Centre for Creative Leadership. Greensboro, North Carolina.

The Centre for Creative Leadership, with others, brought together a critical mass of leading theoreticians and practitioners in the behavioral science and related fields. From the papers and people assembled came a collection of best-practice ideas and arguments. In relation to young leaders, there was a review of transference of leadership and individual backgrounds. These looked at such variables as education, length of service, career background and racial/ethnic groups. They looked at gender/ethnicity only to determine validity measures and did not look at age differentials at all.

Clark, Todd (1989). "Youth community service." Social Education, 53:367.

Not all service has equal effect on student volunteers. Six elements enhance the value of service programs: 1) Service performed must be valuable and worthwhile for the community and for the students; 2) Service must provide opportunities for young people to be depended upon; one must count on the student; 3) Service must include tasks that challenge and strengthen students' critical thinking; 4) Service must provide students with the opportunity to make decisions; 5) The most effective community service projects involve adults and students working together; 6) Good community service must provide systematic reflection on the experience. Age and gender are not issues in this article.

Community leadership development: present and future. (1987). Publication #50. A report by the National Extension Task Force for Community Leadership, for the Community Resource Development/Public Affairs Subcommittee of the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy. Northeast Regional Centre for Rural Development. University Park, Pennsylvania.

Makes recommendations for strengthening educational programming in community leadership in the Cooperative Extension System. Emphasis is on networking present programs, supporting program leaders for community leadership and

supporting basic applied leadership in communities. Six articles are included, but none discusses youth, younger leaders or any age or gender divisions.

Cook, James B. (1976). <u>Identification of leadership and pictures of the power structure</u>. Paper prepared for the National Rural Development Leaders School. Lake Harmoney, Pennsylvania.

Models are presented describing a monolithic power structure, a pluralist power structure and variations of these. In rural communities, edict management is out and interdependence is the key. A variety of people with many different abilities, experiences, interests and styles is used so that a system can be developed that includes all the necessary competencies. The democratic process is the best way to put together all that is needed to give good direction to development. Age and gender are not factors considered.

Fernandez, Richard R. and Dillman, Don A. (1979). "The influence of community attachment on geographic mobility." <u>Rural Sociology</u>, 44 (2):345-360.

The effects of community attachment on geographic mobility are examined. Contingency analysis shows that both community identification and satisfaction are associated with mobility. When controls on age are made, the retarding effect of both variables on mobility remains although not as strongly and with important exceptions.

Garkovich, Lorraine E. (1989). "Local organizations and leadership in community development." In Christenson, James A. and Robinson, Jerry W. Jr. (editors), <u>Community Development in Perspective</u>, Iowa State University Press. Ames, Iowa. Pp. 196-218.

This chapter focuses on the role of local organizations and leadership in the community development process. Development of the community refers to a focus on fostering interactional ties among residents so as to promote a cohesive and integrated community. Development in the community focuses primarily on economic, and to a lesser extent, political and social structures and processes that contribute to the enhancement of community well-being.

Goudy, Willis J. (1977). "Evaluations of local attributes and community satisfaction in small towns." <u>Rural Sociology</u>, 42 (3):371-382.

Perceptions of social dimensions such as the distribution of power, citizen participation, and commitment to the community are hypothesized to be more efficient predictors of community satisfaction than are perceptions of service adequacy. Social dimensions assume greater importance than previous studies acknowledge, suggesting that residents find most satisfying those communities in which they think they have strong primary group relationships, in which local people participate and take pride in civic affairs, in which decision making is shared, in which residents are heterogeneous, and in which people are committed to the community and its upkeep. Most of the effects of personal characteristics and local social ties are mediated by evaluations of attributes operating at the local level. However, knowing the local residents and being near friends together with length of residence in the community, organizational memberships and perceived leadership

status suggest attachment is capturing a different aspect of satisfaction than previously measured.

Holloway, Wilfred B. (1982). "Developing competence." Society, 19 (6):40-47.

American society offers youth few outlets for experimenting with various adult roles. They are denied the opportunity to participate in almost every aspect of society. This article addresses the questions of what hinders the implementation of a youth-participation strategy, and conversely, what facilitates implementation of such a strategy.

Howell, Robert E. and Cook, Annabel Kirschner (1978). A consideration of the impacts of two intensive rural leadership development programs on male and female participants. Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society. San Francisco, California.

This is a comparative impact study of two rural leadership development programs on male and female participants in Montana and Pennsylvania. Both male and female participants evidenced high participation in voluntary associations. Differences did occur in some detailed analysis. Men of all age groups but one increased in expressive groups while women did not. There were differences by gender in the type of organizations they participated in. Men showed the greatest increase in economic organizations while women increased in activity in public service and government organizations.

Howell, Robert E. and Wilkinson, Kenneth P. (1977). <u>Changing patterns of participation: a preliminary evaluation of the Pennsylvania Public Affairs Leadership Program</u>. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society. Madison, Wisconsin.

This paper reports on an effort to determine preliminary results of an intensive public affairs leadership program designed to improve the skills of selected potential rural leaders. Two control groups and one comparison group were evaluated. The greatest effects were perceived in areas directly related to program objectives (i.e., increases in public affairs interest, feelings of confidence and analytical skills). Negative effects also were noted (i.e., increased tension in the family due to decreased time; strain and tension between participants and peers and/or older community leaders sometimes developed). Age and gender were not used as variables.

Hyman, Herbert H. (1972). "Dimensions of socio-psychological change in the negro population." In Campbell, Angus and Converse, Philip E. (editors). The Human Meaning of Social Change, Russell Sage Foundation. New York. Pp. 339-390.

States that "in the long run, the young are bound to exert great influence and thus deserve special study. By the same canon, those who now are influential are recommended to the student of social change as strategic subjects for special study. Their own beliefs, attitudes, actions, political goals and tactics - and the ones they urge upon others - should be measured periodically." But exactly who and how they should be studied are the questions.

Jones, Ruth S. (1974). "Changing student attitudes: the impact of community participation." <u>Social Science Quarterly</u>, 55 (2):439-450.

Documentation includes low citizen participation, citizen political interest, knowledge, and efficacy, with efforts to determine cause(s) and to improve and increase participatory behaviours on the part of citizens. This reports on the effectiveness of one formal program specifically designed to encourage student participation in the local community. No long-term evaluation is available.

Karmell, Barbara (1978). "Leadership: A challenge to traditional research methods and assumptions." Academy of Management Review, 3:475-482.

Traditional methods and assumptions used in leadership research are inadequate to advance understanding of the leadership concept. This article identified two specific problems and offers constructive solutions contingent on the analysis of the research purpose. Three propositions are formulated and suggested as guidelines for reduction of definitional confusion and clarification of leadership construct(s). There are no age or gender comparisons.

Kasarda, John D. and Janowitz, Morris (1974). "Community attachment in mass society." <u>American Sociological Review</u>, 39:328-339.

Looks at a model of community attachment developed by W.I. Thomas and used by Park and Burgess who view the local community as a complex system of friendships, kinship and association networks into which new generations and new residents are assimilated. The community passes through a life cycle. There is consistent support for this approach. Age and gender were not used as variables.

Kets de Vries, Manfred F.R. (1989). Prisoners of leadership. John Wiley and Sons. Toronto, Ontario.

Pays attention not only to the surface structure of a leader's behaviour but also to its deep structure, that is to look at the psychological forces that go to make up the leader's personality. The relationship between leader and follower and the forces at the intrapsychic, interpersonal, group and organizational levels are all major components. Age and gender are not seen as defining characteristics.

Ladewig, Howard and McCann, Glenn C. (1980). "Community satisfaction: theory and measurement." Rural Sociology, 45 (1):110-131.

The voluntary organizations usually found in middle-class areas, whose purposes are to look after the collective interests and the commonwealth of the area, are not present in low-income areas. Further, those local organizations that can be found (churches and social clubs) tend to be concerned with their own particular affairs and not with the neighbourhood, community or public interest in general. Age and gender are not issues.

Long, Larry H. and Hansen, Kristin (1980). "American on wheels." Society, 17 (3):77-83.

Young people with a high level of education were found to be positively associated with the likelihood of citing job-related reasons as the main reason for moving, especially to urban communities. Retirees, on the other hand, are more likely to move due to secondary factors (non-economic). Even more numerous may be individuals who draw retirement benefits at an early age. They typically are not well identified in surveys, but their number is growing, and they show a preference for southern and nonmetropolitan destinations. Although community participation is a secondary factor, this study does not look at it specifically. No references or bibliography and no age or gender differences are reported.

Lowery, Sheldon G. (1980). <u>Committees ... a key to group leadership</u>. Publication #18, NCRS - 5, Leadership Series #1, North Central Regional Extension Publication. Ames, Iowa.

While it is generally recognized that a committee is a social group, it is seldom recognized that the mere appointment of people to a committee and the designation of a committee chair will not insure the development of a productive group. Meaningful group relationships evolve with time. The report addresses the question "What are the essential elements for effective group functioning?" Age and gender were not variables reviewed.

McLean, Edward L. and Colclough, Glenna S. (1978). <u>Power and decision making in a rural county: a longitudinal analysis</u>. Cooperative State Research Service. Washington, D.C. and South Carolina Agricultural Experimental Station. Clemson, South Carolina.

Power structure research was conducted in 1971 and 1977, listing 49 power actors in 1971 and 45 in 1977. During the six-year period, new power actors emerged; the lists contained only 15 common names. Physicians, dentists, clergy, school administrators and industrial executives were on the 1971 list but not on the 1977 one. The merchant/realtor/developer category was most numerous in 1977. Influences of the Junior Chamber of Commerce, service clubs, fraternal orders and religious groups nearly vanished by 1977. Influences from and participation in quasi-governmental commissions, councils, and public service agencies increased.

Miller, Michael and Crader, Kelly W. (1979). "Rural-urban differences in two dimension community satisfaction." Rural Sociology, 44 (3):489-504.

Community satisfaction is related to community participation. Using interview data from five counties, the authors identified the dimensions of community satisfaction (economic and interpersonal) through the use of factor analysis. Differences on interpersonal satisfaction levels were not pronounced.

Murdock, Steve H., Parpia, Banoo, Hwang, Sean-Shong, and Hamm, Rita (1984). "The relative effects of economic and noneconomic factors on age-specific migration, 1960-1980." Rural Sociology, 49 (2):309-318.

The article looks at the effects of economic factors and three sets of non-economic factors, one being public service, on 1960-70 and 1970-80 age-specific net migration rates. The economic factors were clearly the most powerful. Over the

time span, the socioeconomic factor increased in importance, but public service was not a major factor at any time or age.

National Extension Task Force for Community Leadership (1986). <u>Community Leadership development: implications for Extension</u>. Northeast Regional Centre for Rural Development. University Park, Pennsylvania.

Summarizes both recent national efforts that could be useful in developing and conducting community leadership programs and current leadership theory and literature. Summarizes the results of the national survey of extension staff involved in community leadership and includes summary information from four national projects dealing with leadership programs. Provides an overview of the literature on leadership, summarizes the major leadership research traditions and considers the implications of each tradition in relationship to community leadership development programs. It does not look at age differences, gender differences or differential characteristics of leadership.

Nelson, Edwin C. (1990). "No town has to die!: promoting leadership by involving youth in the community." Small Towns. Small Towns Institute.

The length and the quality of a town's life depends on the residents' attitudes as well as their enthusiasm and determination. This paper suggests that the future can be shaped by residents' attitudes and their leadership. Every community, of any size, has its share of creative individuals, especially among young people who possess leadership characteristics. They need to be encouraged so that they can emerge and be allowed to shape a community's positive image of its future. This is especially true when citizens involve their youth in the pursuit of action plans. Descriptive rather than research, no empirical data, no bibliography or references, no recommendations, no age categories and no gender differences given.

Newmann, Fred (1989). "Reflective civic participation." Social Education, 53:357-360.

Suggests that, unless they are placed in settings and roles that require them to deliberate about the nature of public good and participate in the processes of influence and negotiation to achieve it, people will fail to reap the personal benefits of citizenship and civic culture will languish. Looks only at present high school students.

Newmann, Fred and Rutter, Robert A. (1983). <u>The effects of high school community service programs on students' social development: Final report</u>. Wisconsin Centre for Educational Research. Madison, Wisconsin.

Secondary school systems should encourage students' participation in voluntary community service. This study tested whether such programs positively affect the development of students by comparing volunteer and non-volunteer groups. Findings suggest that, while it modestly increased students' sense of social responsibility and sense of personal competence, community service fails to bring special benefits in sense of school responsibility, political efficacy, future affiliation and future political affiliation. The conclusion is that developmental opportunities offered in regular school classes may presently have more impact on social

development than specific opportunities within community programs. Not a longitudinal study.

Parker, Carrie G. and others (1976). <u>A bibliography of rural development: Listings by topic</u>. Rural Development Services, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology. Washington, D.C.

Parker, Walter C. (1989). "Participatory citizenship: civics in the strong sense." <u>Social Education</u>, 53:353-354.

Looks at problems associated with teaching civics in the school system: 1) opening up for study issues that matter deeply to people and on which people disagree; 2) organizing of schools to manage students as well as to educate, therefore the use of subordinate learning diminishes serious civic education; and 3) developing of evaluative criteria for civic education - which experiences are better, which public controversies are most profitably discussed.

Petrullo, Luigi and Bass, Bernard M. (1961). <u>Leadership and interpersonal behaviour</u>. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. New York.

Reviews a number of theories, personality factors, cultural forces, situations and interactions that are important to the understanding of the leadership process. Age and gender were not included in these reviews.

Pinkerton, James R. and Brown, Ralph B. (1990). <u>Rural community viability and leadership patterns</u>. Paper presented for annual meetings of the American Sociological Association. Washington, D.C.

An extensive literature has been developed around the economic and social crisis currently facing small rural communities. Conspicuously absent from this literature are systematic comparative studies of why some rural communities are more effective than others in developing strategies for dealing with the problems they face. Some communities with approximately the same economic and ecological constraints show considerable variation in their ability to cope with these crises. The use of objective criteria gathered for a specific population of communities of similar size, location and economy provides a useful comparative base for assessing differences between these communities. Individual characteristics such as age and gender are not reviewed.

Ploch, Louis A. (1985). "Migration and social participation." In Steahr, Thomas E. and Luloff, A.E. (editors). The structure and impact of population redistribution in New England, Northeast Regional Centre for Rural Development. University Park, Pennsylvania. Pp. 91-109.

Purohit, Sally R. and Clonts, Howard A. (1977). A comparison of citizen and leader perceptions of selected quality of life indicators. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Agricultural Scientists. Atlanta, Georgia.

Survey compared attitudes of leaders and citizens toward public services and economic development as related to quality of life. Demographic variables of age, ethnicity, gender, work status, occupation and residence were mentioned, but leaders were identified only as a whole, not in age or gender groups.

Roy, Philippe (1990). "Leadership and change in the 1990s." Optimum, 21 (2):7-18.

Literature on the subject indicates that the business world is in search of competent leadership. The literature is aimed at changing the nature of an organization to make it more effective, to enhance morale and to emphasize service to the public. It looks at the Public Service 2000 program and other initiatives with no mention of age or gender differences.

Rutter, Robert A. and Newmann, Fred M. (1989). "The potential of community service to enhance civic responsibility." <u>Social Education</u>, 53:371-374.

This article offers three types of information useful to practitioners interested in implementing community-service programs. It (1) provides estimates of students' participation in community service in U.S. high schools, (2) describes the nature of the programs and students' experiences, and (3) reports on data which illustrate that, although community service appears to have positive effects on students' personal development, the potential for influencing civic responsibility may not yet have been realized. To enhance civic responsibility, significant changes in key program characteristics and emphases may be necessary. The report does not differentiate between groups by age or gender.

Santora, Joseph C. (1983). <u>Leadership</u>: A selected guide to periodicals. 1972-1982. Public Administration Series: Bibliography, Vance Bibliographies. Monticello, Illinios.

The bibliography is representative of the ten year period 1972-1982. Its major focal point is the art of leadership, especially its influence on and application to the public sector. Entries come from a variety of fields including sociology, political science, psychology, economics, human relations and business administration. Of these none was deemed relevant to follow-up.

Seyfrit, Carole L. (1986). "Migration intentions for rural youth: testing as assumed benefit of rapid growth." Rural Sociology, 51 (2):199-211.

Focuses on one of the assumed benefits of rapid growth - the retention of rural youth. The assumption is that employment opportunities created by rural industrial expansion will be viewed by local youth as a reason for staying in their home communities. Literature, however, indicates that young people often leave home after graduation from high school. Frequently they leave in search as much of new experiences as of employment opportunities.

Sofranko, Andrew J. and Williams, James D. (1980). <u>Rebirth of Rural America: Rural Migration in the Midwest</u>, North Central Regional Centre for Rural Development. Ames, Iowa.

Looks at migration in the United States and provides various explanations, ranging from economic to attitudinal. The focus of the research suggests that migration is influenced by noneconomic considerations. Deals mainly with metro return to rural America where participation in the community is a bigger issue. Age and gender, while reviewed, are not reviewed in the context of leadership issues.

Somerville, Karen Ann (1990/91). "Highlights for the planned forum survey on leadership issues." Optimum, 21 (2):71-82.

A survey questionnaire was distributed and analyzed, and leadership was a major concern of respondents. The survey was divided into four major areas; 1) background information, 2) leadership questions, 3) areas of the federal public service the respondent would change and 4) comments. Age and gender questions were not asked and they were not issues raised in the comments portion of the survey.

Stogdill, Ralph M. (1948). "Personal factors associated with leadership: a survey of the literature." The <u>Journal of Psychology</u>, 25:35-71.

This survey is concerned only with those studies in which some attempt was made to determine the traits and characteristics of leaders. The findings suggest that leadership is not a matter of passive status or of the mere possession of some combination of traits. It appears, rather, to be a working relationship among members of a group in which the leaders acquire status through active participation and demonstration of the capacity to carry cooperative tasks through to completion.

Vandenberg, Lela, Fear, Frank A. and Thullen, Manford (1988). <u>Research-practice linkages in Extension leadership development programs: focus on community leadership development programs</u>. North Central Regional Centre for Rural Development. Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.

It seems clear that certain characteristics, in combination, are closely associated with effective leadership, although they are perhaps not absolutely necessary in every situation. Six characteristics or abilities seem equally important: perceptivity, self-understanding, self-confidence, the desire to lead, competence and flexibility. The authors reflect findings from recent research on social intelligence and research stemming from the observation that some people (beginning in childhood) are natural leaders who are effective in almost any situation. Neither age nor gender was a characteristic of note.

Voth, Donald E. and others (1977). <u>Citizen participation in rural development: A bibliography</u>. Southern Rural Development Centre. State College, Mississippi.

This bibliography contains 2310 citations on citizen participation, 350 of which carry an annotation or abstract. Though a few entries are from the 30's, most are from the 60's or 70's; there is an addendum of 50 items found after Dec. 1976. Leadership and leadership issues accounted for 40 citations. Of these two were deemed relevant for follow-up.

Wex, Samuel (1990/91). "Leadership and change in the 1990's." Optimum, 21 (2):25-30.

Reports the federal government's initiative considering changes to the basic financial, administrative and human management rules that govern the public service. The basic theme is leadership. Age and gender are not variables considered.

Youth: Transition to Adulthood (1972). Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, Illinois.

The findings suggest basic and sweeping revisions important now and for all future generations of youth. This information deserves careful consideration by professional business and labour groups as well as by concerned citizens and educators at all levels. Although this addresses the fact that creating opportunities for youth to participate in adult roles is necessary, it does not say how this can be accomplished.

Yukl, Gary A. (1989). Leadership in organizations. Prentice-Hall. Engelwoods, New Jersey.

Looks at managerial leadership as opposed to parliamentary leadership of social movements or informal leadership in peer groups. Presents a broad survey of theory and research on leadership in formal organizations. Looks at what makes an effective leader with a focus on effective leadership in organizations. The literature review is incisive rather than comprehensive. The book focuses on 20 percent of the literature that is most relevant and informative. If age and gender were used as criterion in the studies reviewed, they were not relevant enough to be discussed.

