Leadership integrated curriculum for junior high school family and consumer sciences students

by

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Never forget a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed it is the only thing that ever has.

-Margaret Mead
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. To assess the impact, a quasi-experimental research design was used. Five groups of ninth grade Teen Living students in four different schools in Northern Idaho participated. Teen Living is an exploratory Family and Consumer Sciences course offered to ninth grade students in Idaho. To create a connection between leadership development and the developmental needs of early adolescents—physical, intellectual, and socioemotional—junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum affords students the opportunity to solve real-life problems. This study incorporates the current social issue of childhood obesity by utilizing resources developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation. The “Sizing Up America: Public Policy Obesity Deliberation Guide” (Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005) was used by junior high school students to deliberate the issue with parents/guardians, peers, and community members in order to outline strategies that could be used to reduce childhood obesity. Prior to and upon completion of participating in the treatment or traditional curriculum unit, students completed the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006). Once data were collected, data analysis focused on student attributes, the reliability of the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self, and correlation between the pretest total LPI scores and student attributes, and the impact of the curriculum and integrated public forum on the LPI posttest scores. Findings related to the curriculum impact on LPI posttest scores indicated that the experimental leadership curriculum appeared to account for 12-20 percent
of the differences in LPI posttest scale scores between the experimental and control groups.

Based on the findings of the current research, it is evident that the integration of a leadership opportunity into a family and consumer sciences junior high nutrition and wellness curriculum increases the development of leadership practices by ninth grade students.
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background for the Study

Leadership development is an important, but often overlooked facet of youth development and education (MacNeil, 2000). The development of adolescent leadership practices contributes greatly to the positive development of adolescents and their communities (Fertman & van Linden, 2003). Leadership skills such as goal-setting, problem-solving and sound decision-making are not just necessary for leaders—these skills are needed for success in today’s world (MacNeil, 2000). Furthermore, helping adolescents develop leadership competencies prepares them to solve community problems and enhances their civic engagement and participation (O’Brien & Kohlmeier, 2003).

Civic engagement for adolescents is a desirable activity that will strengthen our society and prepare youth to be good citizens in the future (Stoneman, 2002). Adolescents are impacted by issues facing society differently than adults, therefore, decisions made guiding society would be better informed if adolescents participated in the decision-making process. Specifically, application can be made to schools, foster care, criminal justice systems, youth programs, drug education and prevention programs, children’s health care and public policy decisions, after school programs, and others.

Not only do adolescents need to be included in these decisions, but also attention needs to be given to the development of adolescents as ethical, skilled, highly committed young leaders willing to take on all levels of local and national responsibility for building the best possible society (Stoneman, 2002). This will require a deliberative effort by adults generally, and family and consumer sciences professionals specifically. Stoneman (2002) recommends that good leadership is needed at all levels of society beginning with adolescents.
The field of family and consumer sciences requires leadership at all levels of society in order to purposefully achieve its mission identified by Marjorie Brown (1985), a renowned scholar in FCS:

The mission of our field is to enable families both as individual units and generally as a social institution, to build and maintain systems of action which lead (1) to maturing in self-formation and (2) to enlightened, cooperative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means for accomplishing them (p. 548).

Family and consumer sciences (FCS), as part of the United States educational system, serves the purpose of providing learning experiences that help students explore career areas and prepare for employment and independent living. FCS education programs include real-life situations in classrooms and laboratories, as well as cooperative education and experiential educational opportunities. Curriculum in family and consumer sciences programs includes materials that focus on the development of basic skills, along with thinking skills, personal qualities, individual goals, and teamwork skills. In addition, workplace competencies and the specific skill competencies required for various occupational areas are addressed, along with core skills that can be generalized to different life and work situations (Jenkins, 1999; Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001).

Adolescent leadership development research provides evidence there is a need for instructional materials to enhance leadership practices in all students, but especially in those students who have not had the opportunity to develop these skills (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Leadership practices training in family and consumer sciences programs can serve the leadership needs of adolescents regardless of their career objective. Adolescents provided with leadership development training have the opportunity to develop interpersonal, technical and technological skills, competence in applying general education to the workplace, teamwork, and effective communication skills, which are required for employment. Young
leaders also demonstrate higher career aspirations, increased self-esteem, and improved high school completion rates (Bloomberg, Ganey, Alba, Quintero, & Alcantara, 2003).

By supporting and engaging adolescents in leadership integrated opportunities, adults, organizations and communities experience direct benefits, through stronger connections to adolescents in the community (Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Lorens, 2001). Adolescents then have a greater understanding of the problems facing other youth and society, and fresh perspectives for how to address these problems (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; McGillicuddy, 1991; Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Lorens, 2001). Additionally, adolescents help to re-energize adults and counteract negative stereotypes of youth when they are successfully engaged in leadership within their communities (Fiscus, 2003; Zeldin & Camino, 1999).

A primary concern of family and consumer sciences educators is to provide learning experiences that contribute to the welfare of individuals and families with a central theme focusing on human problems impacting society. In developing adolescent leadership practices, FCS educators can address the previous goal by providing a broad range of context, which allows young people to learn and develop leadership in the real world with diverse and unfamiliar groups (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; Gardner, 1990). Also, FCS educators specifically and adults in general recognize and respect the knowledge, experience, and skills that young people have now while still challenging them to enhance these skills and try new things (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000). Specifically, FCS educators can incorporate experiential learning projects into curriculum to address societal issues and the development of leadership practices.
Theoretical Framework

Curriculum within family and consumer sciences, which focuses on the development of adolescent leadership practices, is based on several learning theories including constructivism, transformational learning, critical science theory, a practical problem framework, and the Leadership Challenge Framework.

Constructivism

Constructivism is an emerging view of learning based on the idea that new information is added to existing mental frameworks. Learners are placed in authentic settings in order to identify the issue to be studied (Williams, 1999). Instead of allowing learners to take a passive role in their education, an educator with a constructivist viewpoint requires students to be challenged in finding possible alternatives to various social issues (Williams, 1999). By framing curriculum in this manner, students learn from and add to their experiences while asked to critically reflect on the meaning of new knowledge.

Transformational Learning

Learning designed incorporating the transformational theory is based on reflection that transforms the beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and the emotions of learners. Transformational learning encourages reflection and critical thought with increased receptiveness to the paradigms of others, and the acceptance of new ideas.

Critical Science Theory/Practical Problem Framework

The practical problem framework to guide the development of curriculum in family and consumer sciences junior high school courses is integrated within a critical science theory approach. Similar to the constructivist and transformational perspective, educators who apply a critical science approach and practical problem framework to curriculum development can provide students opportunity to think about various social issues. Junior
high school family and consumer sciences programs implementing the critical science approach seek to prepare individuals (adolescents) to examine personal social problems and to take reasoned and justifiable action based on the social justice values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring (Sirotnik, 1991).

Specifically, family and consumer sciences junior high school courses operate based on the goal to help adolescents take action in developing as individuals and to participate in the examination and formation of peer, family and social goals (Brown & Paolucci, 1979). Through a practical problem curriculum framework, adolescents are provided the opportunity to develop independent and leadership skills used to make personal adjustments integrating content knowledge (Dohner, 1994).

**Social Issue Context**

A current social issue that impacts society is related to the nutrition and wellness of children. As a connection between leadership development and the developmental needs of early adolescents—physical, intellectual, and socioemotional—junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum affords students the opportunity to solve real-life problems. Currently, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation identified obesity as a compelling issue appropriate for public deliberation. Sixty-five percent of U.S. adults are either overweight or obese (CDC, 2005; Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). Among children, 15% are overweight (CDC, 2005; Hedley, et. al., 2004; Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). To be considered overweight, individuals must have a body mass index of 25 or more, while a person who is obese has a body mass index of 30 or more (Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). In order to contribute to the national effort to address the issue of obesity, more specifically childhood obesity, family and consumer sciences junior high school
students can participate in the process of conducting a public forum, an experiential learning project. This process requires students to use communication skills, teamwork abilities, and productivity skills to successfully implement a public forum. Therefore, the opportunity necessitates adolescents’ use of skills related to being a leader.

*Leadership Challenge Framework*

According to Kouzes & Posner (2002) the Leadership Challenge Framework emphasizes how leaders work to organize a group of people together to accomplish identified goals. Specifically, these goals can be as simple as accomplishing everyday tasks to inspiring a passion to bring about extraordinary change. The practices leaders use to encourage the transformation of values into action; vision into attainable tasks; obstacles into creative means to an end; unifying a group of diverse individuals, and risks into successful accomplishments serve as a foundation to this approach (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. xvii). The setting in which this occurs creates a transformational climate where all people can participate in taking a difficult or challenging situation and turning it into an inspiring success (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Similar to constructivism, transformational learning, and the critical science approach/practical problem framework, the *Leadership Challenge* framework can provide students the opportunity to consider various social issues impacting society and identify possible solutions appropriate for action. For the purposes of this research, students will investigate the issue of childhood obesity, a social issue in nutrition and wellness curriculum, and identify various solutions that would be appropriate for their community. The process of formulating and implementing an action plan and related to an issue will require adolescents to utilize their leadership practices.
Need for the Study

Leadership development research currently focuses on managerial and adult leadership (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Studies devoted to the topic of adolescent leadership development are limited. Key research (Bloomberg, Ganey, Alba, Quintero, & Alcantara, 2003; Boyd, 2001; Gardner, 1990; Garrod, 1988; DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; Fiscus, 2003; MacNeil, 2000; O’Brien & Kohlmeier, 2003; van Linden & Fertman, 2003; Zeldin & Camino, 1999) does suggest the need and opportunity for the development of adolescent leadership potential. The research of adolescent leadership development integrated within family and consumer sciences curriculum provides an innovative approach to increasing adolescents’ leadership abilities, skills, and potential. Specifically, this research can be helpful for secondary family and consumer sciences educators, state funded projects for developing family and consumer sciences curriculum, FCS curriculum development specialists, and the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences’ initiatives on childhood obesity.

Statement of the Problem

van Linden and Fertman (2003) found that leadership is not a part of the average adolescent’s life. This can be attributed to the fact that many adolescents are not offered the opportunity to lead. They do not believe in their ability to lead, and their intense emotional and physical changes impact their desire to lead. Even though adolescents may not view themselves as leaders and they are experiencing emotional and physical changes, leadership practices are evident in their everyday life. For example, adolescents could be responsible for baby-sitting a sibling, working a job in a family business, and volunteering, all of which require the use of leadership practices on varying levels. Adolescence is an opportune time
to encourage young people to explore, recognize, and celebrate their leadership potential and abilities (van Linden & Fertman, 2003).

Adolescence is a time of growth and development that incorporates both challenge and excitement. Not only are adolescents changing, but also the world has evolved into an increasingly diverse society. In addition, technological advancement is expanding educational and occupational opportunities both locally and globally. Along with the developmental transition and change, adolescents are faced with the decision about their future career goal and aspiration (Erikson, 1968; Havighurst, 1953). As a threshold between various stages of change (elementary to high school, adolescence to adulthood), education at the junior high school level allows for a significant opportunity for students to develop knowledge, skills, attitudes, and awareness which are the foundation for future family and work life (Kerka, 2000).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Specific objectives of the project were to:

1. design a leadership development curriculum that can be integrated into existing junior high school family and consumer sciences nutrition and wellness curriculum with emphasis on childhood obesity, and
2. conduct a formative evaluation of the curriculum by studying its impact on the leadership practices and potential of junior high school family and consumer sciences students.
The focus and purpose of the study was to assess the effects of leadership development opportunities integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue.

To achieve the first objective, a research and development approach was used. The impact of leadership curriculum was assessed through a pretest/posttest design with both experimental and control groups as data sources. The experimental group received the integrated leadership curriculum, while the control group received the nutrition curriculum that is traditionally taught within secondary family and consumer sciences courses. The goal of this study was to develop and provide a curriculum model and framework that could be used by family and consumer sciences secondary educators in Idaho. The curriculum model integrated leadership development opportunities into lessons developed based on a practical problem framework and critical science approach to childhood obesity, a relevant social issue in nutrition and wellness content. Long-range outcomes of this study will hopefully include strengthening family and consumer sciences programs within junior high schools in the State of Idaho, adolescents who are more confident in their leadership practices and abilities, and an overall enhanced public image for family and consumer sciences within the State of Idaho.

Significance of the Study

Understanding the impact of integrating leadership development opportunities into family and consumer sciences curriculum in the junior high school is important because it allows FCS educators to contribute to the need for preparing adolescents for the world of work. Not only will junior high school students be provided with leadership development opportunities, but also they will become familiar with the process of addressing issues of concern within society. The major benefit of this study is that students will be provided
leadership development opportunities through FCS content curriculum. An overarching goal of the curriculum is to provide learning experiences that contribute to the welfare of individuals with a central theme focusing on human problems impacting society. National benefits include increased opportunities for adolescents to develop leadership practices and the contribution of knowledge from the public forums conducted by students on childhood obesity.

Upon completion of the study, a better understanding will exist of how family and consumer sciences junior high school courses can provide adolescents with learning experiences that increase leadership practices.

Variables

Due to the characteristics of this study, it is considered a quasi-experimental study comparing junior high school students in Northern Idaho who participated in the nutrition and wellness curriculum with the integration of leadership development opportunities with students who participated in the traditional nutrition and wellness curriculum. The treatment variable is junior high young and teen living courses within the State of Idaho and the nutrition and wellness curriculum integrated with leadership development opportunities established through this project. The independent variables are gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations and number of leadership positions held. Student leadership practices, measured by the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1998), serve as the dependent variable collected through a pretest/posttest format.

Research Question

The following is the research question addressed by the study:
1. What impact does the integration of leadership development opportunities, within a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity, have on the leadership development of junior high school students?

   **Hypothesis**

1. Participation in a class using an experiential instructional model of teaching leadership-related concepts integrated into nutrition and wellness curriculum with an emphasis of childhood obesity will increase the development of leadership practices in junior high school students.

**Definition of Terms**

*Leadership,* is a process by which an individual inspires, motivates, and facilitates a group to articulate a vision for mutual benefit, share the vision, and develop an action plan to make the vision a reality (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Further, Terry (1993) summarizes leadership as the action itself; a choice; part of a web of interdependent actions; participation; to be energized; an adventure; to be embraced; creativity and innovation and incorporating a playful nature into life and life’s work.

*Adolescence* is the time of life from onset of puberty to full adulthood (Hine, 1999). During this time, which varies from person to person between the ages of 12 and 20 in the United States, individuals experience both physiological and psychological changes.

*Practical problem curriculum framework* uses a problem orientation to think about family and consumer sciences in view of concerns facing individuals and families over time (Hutlgren & Wilkosz, 1986, p. 142). Various issues and problems addressed by curriculum within this framework are described as perennial, common and recurring from one generation to the next.
Critical science approach empowers learners to develop the abilities needed to make intellectually and ethical judgments regarding recurring issues facing individuals, families and communities (Brown, 1978). Further, family and consumer sciences programs implementing the critical science approach seek to prepare individuals to examine personal social problems and to take reasoned and justifiable action based on the social justice values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring (Sirotnik, 1991).

Curriculum translates specified educational goals into processes of teaching and learning; it describes the teaching methods used and the subject matter to be taught (Baldwin, 1989).

Experiential learning defines learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and results from the combination of grasping and transforming experiences (Kolb, 1984). Learning occurs when a learner is involved in an activity, reflects critically on the event, determines what was useful or important to remember, and uses the information to perform another activity (Boyd, 2001).

Assumptions

2. Nutrition and wellness curriculum emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue was administered the same in each school.
3. Students within four identified junior high schools represented Idaho junior high school students.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study was conducted once during the school year of 2006-2007, specifically the fall semester.
2. The location of the study was limited to four junior-senior high schools in Idaho.

3. The students were not randomly selected.

4. Teen Living is an elective course for ninth grade; therefore all students were not required to take the course.

Summary

Leadership skills are considered a desirable trait of prospective employers. An opportunity to develop leadership-related skills exists during the time of adolescence. Many adolescents do not realize their potential to lead and have few opportunities to lead outside of identified leadership roles and school leadership organizations. Family and consumer sciences courses within the junior high school allow opportunity for the integration of leadership opportunities. Curriculum developed with a critical science approach and practical problem framework provides a format for leadership development and structure to address social issues impacting society. A vehicle to be used for leadership development in family and consumer sciences is the public forum. The research study required students to participate in a public forum focusing on childhood obesity while utilizing skills required of a leader. In conclusion, the aim of the research was to assess the impact of leadership development opportunities with a practical problem framework in family and consumer sciences junior high school courses.
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Specific objectives of the project were to:

1. design a leadership development curriculum that can be integrated into existing junior high school family and consumer sciences nutrition and wellness curriculum with emphasis on childhood obesity, and

2. conduct a formative evaluation of the curriculum by studying its impact on the leadership practices of junior high school family and consumer sciences students.

The focus and purpose of the present study was to assess the effects of leadership development opportunities integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue.

A synthesis and analysis of literature related to the current study is presented in this chapter. Specifically, the review of literature focused on research related to three categories in order to illustrate the complexities and intersections among the three. The literature review is organized into the following categories: (a) theories related to the developmental processes of early adolescence, (b) theories and definitions of leadership, and (c) theories and definitions of curriculum frameworks commonly used in the field of education in general and family and consumer sciences education in particular. These three categories will provide justification and rationale for the selection of the framework used to design leadership development opportunities for adolescents in junior high school family and consumer sciences courses.
Adolescence is a time of growth and development that incorporates both challenge and excitement. Specifically, early adolescents experience a passage from childhood to adolescence. During this time they struggle to cope with specific challenges associated with cognitive, physiological, and psychological development related to puberty (Cohen, 1999). They are characterized by: (a) a need to explore a variety of interests; (b) connecting their learning in the classroom to its practical application in life and work; (c) high levels of activity coupled with frequent fatigue due to rapid growth; (d) a search for their own unique identity as they begin turning more frequently to peers rather than parents for ideas and affirmation; (e) extreme sensitivity to the comments from others, and (f) heavy reliance on friends to provide comfort, understanding and approval.

Erikson (1950) recognized that early adolescents leaving the seventh grade have usually learned the basic knowledge, skills, and abilities to participate in fair play. In the next stage adolescents search for their identity and desire to be accepted by peers. They seek to be stylish through dress and appearance in order to fit in. Another realization at this stage is that the future holds definite roles and responsibilities for them to fulfill (Erikson, 1950).

Due to many physical changes related to puberty, the transition from childhood to adolescence incorporates a shift in values from those derived solely from parents. This cultural transition is considered to be the single most crucial period of change in the lives of children and early adolescents (Curtis & Bidwell, 1977). Because this study focused on presenting lessons to students and engaging them in the material, it is essential that the curriculum implemented align with the developmental tasks of adolescents. Havighurst (1972) alleges that when an adolescent is able to connect course material with personal lived experiences, a teachable moment occurs. This moment depends on the person’s willingness and whether or not the developmental conditions are favorable for learning. No matter what
is important to society, teachers, and parents, if the learner does not perceive content as relevant to his/her needs and desires, assimilation will not take place (Curtis & Bidwell, 1977). The following section of the literature review, the developmental theory of early adolescence, provides a foundation for the current research. A thorough knowledge of adolescent development was found to be an important precursor to the development of youth leadership opportunities (Rickets & Rudd, 2002). Therefore, it is important to consider each individual’s ability to lead and adolescents’ similarities, differences, and needs before a synthesis and adoption of a leadership development curriculum can occur (Rickets & Rudd, 2002).

Developmental Theory of Early Adolescence

According to Kerlinger (1973) a descriptive or behavior theory is a set of interrelated constructs, concepts, definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena. Relations among variables are specified through a theory with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena. The following is a discussion of various behavioral theories related to the phenomena of early adolescent development.

To construct a deeper understanding of early adolescent development, an overview of four adolescent developmental theories is presented. Adolescence, especially early adolescence, is characterized by the extraordinary physical and cognitive changes that occur as a child turns into an adult. As a common thread through this stage in life, physical and cognitive changes influence the adolescent’s ability to cope with change.

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1970) suggests that humans have a hierarchy of five basic needs. The five basic needs are identified as: (a) physiological needs, (b) safety needs, (c) belonging and love needs, (d) self-esteem needs, and (e) self-actualization needs. In order to be categorized
as a basic human need, the need should meet the following requirements: (a) its absence breeds illness; (b) its presence prevents illness; (c) its restoration cures illness; (d) under certain (very complex) free choice situations, it is preferred by the deprived person over other satisfactions, and (e) it is found to be inactive, at low ebb, or functionally absent in the healthy person (Farmer, 2001). Classified as a humanistic approach to motivation, Maslow’s theory is influential in understanding how to motivate students and encourage their inner resources. For example, students’ sense of competence, self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization impact individual levels of motivation (Reeve, 1996). Maslow’s term self-actualization explains the realization of personal potential or self-fulfillment.

Deficiency Needs

The first level of basic human needs identified by Maslow are physiological related needs, including life sustaining necessities such as food, shelter, and clothing. Before an individual can satisfy the next highest need level, safety and security needs, the physiological needs must be satisfied. Malsow and Lowery (1998) emphasized the requirement of lower level needs being satisfied before higher level needs are even perceived. Specifically, the four-lower level needs are survival, safety, belonging, and self-esteem, which are classified as deficiency needs. When deficiency needs are satisfied the motivation for their fulfillment decreases.

Being Needs

Maslow (1970) categorized intellectual achievement, aesthetic appreciation, and self-actualization as being needs. Upon satisfaction of these needs, an individual’s motivation does not cease; instead, it increases to seek further fulfillment (Maslow, 1970). Therefore, the greater success an individual achieves when searching for knowledge and understanding, the more likely he/she is to strive for even greater knowledge and understanding (van Linden
& Fertman, 2003). Unlike deficiency needs, being needs can never be completely fulfilled. The motivation to achieve being needs is endlessly renewed.

Hierarchy of Needs and Education of Adolescents

Educators need a means of viewing the whole person; too often the educator sees only a part of the student (Farmer, 2001). Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, as a theory, offers a means to view the adolescent as a whole person, as a person whose physical, emotional, and intellectual needs are interconnected. Through the lens of this theory, implications for FCS professionals working with adolescents can be understood and applied. For example, adolescents who come to school or to programs hungry, sick, or hurt are unlikely to be motivated to seek knowledge and understanding. An adolescent struggling with feelings of safety and a threatened sense of belonging by a parental divorce, for example, may have little interest in learning and exploring leadership skills (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Further, if a classroom or community center is a fearful, unpredictable place adolescents will be more concerned with security than with learning.

Other insights gained from Maslow’s Hierarchy can enlighten educators on various teen behaviors. For example, adolescents’ desires to fill lower-level needs may conflict with a teacher’s expectation of students to achieve higher-level goals. Of importance to an adolescent is belonging to a social group and maintaining self-esteem within that group. If a teacher’s expectations interfere with the rules of the social group or peers, then adolescents may choose to ignore or defy the teacher.

Self-actualization theory provides a means whereby each educator, regardless of that educator’s professional duties, can view a student as a whole person (Farmer, 2001). Elliot (1970) found that when students are provided the opportunity to develop individual innate talents and potential (self-actualization), noticeable changes include (a) increased ability in
learning to listen, (b) increased use of honesty in conversation, (c) less alienation when learning about concepts, and (d) increased use of empathy and personal trust.

For some children, the early adolescent years are the beginning of a downward spiral in school-related behaviors and motivation that often lead to academic failure and school dropout. Even though the declines are not so extreme for most adolescents, there is sufficient evidence of gradual decline in various indicators of academic motivation, self-perceptions, and school-related behaviors (Eccles, Lord, & Midgley, 1991). For example, Simmons and Blyth (1987) found a decline in early adolescents’ school grades during the transition from elementary to junior high school. The magnitude of this decline was found to predict school failure and dropout (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Further, evidence illustrates a decline for motivational constructs such as interest in school (Epstein & McPartland, 1976), intrinsic motivation (Harter, 1981), self-concepts and/or self-perceptions (Eccles et al., 1984; Simmons et al., 1979), and confidence in one’s intellectual abilities, especially following failure (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). Along with declines in various motivational constructs, evidence has suggested that as the early adolescent ages negative changes occur in motivational and behavioral characteristics such as test anxiety (Hill, 1980); learned helplessness responses to failure (Rholes, et al. 1980); focus on self-evaluation rather than task mastery (Nicholls, 1980); and both truancy and school dropout (Eccles et al., 1984; Rosenbaum, 1976).

Educational Environment and Needs of Early Adolescents

The changing nature of the educational environments experienced by many early adolescents is a plausible explanation for the declines in motivational and behavioral characteristics associated with transition (Eccles, et al., 1984; Eccles & Midgley, 1988). Drawing upon the person-environment fit theory (Eccles & Midgley, 1988; Hunt, 1975;
Mitchell, 1969), it is evident that the motivational and behavioral declines could result from the inappropriate educational environment within the junior high school setting. According to the person-environment theory, behavior, motivation, and mental health are influenced by the characteristics individuals bring to their social environments and the characteristics of the social environment. When the social environment does not coincide with an individual’s psychological needs, success and motivation can be difficult. Eccles, Lord, and Midgley (1991) found that if the environment of a typical junior high school does not meet the psychological needs of adolescents, then person-environment fit theory would predict a decline in the adolescents’ motivation, interest, performance, and behavior throughout the transition.

Eccles & Midgley (1988) suggested that declines in motivation and behavior are linked to the characteristics of the educational environment within which early adolescents are exposed. Attention to the importance of the early adolescent years to individual development is crucial in the creation of educational experiences (Hamburg, 1974). Silberman (1970) found the junior high school to be considered unanimously as a wasteland, a cesspool of American education. Silberman (1970) questioned what would happen if adolescents were put into these “wastelands.” To answer the question, Eccles, Lord, and Midgley (1991) conducted a study to establish the impact of educational contexts on early adolescents. Various conclusions include evidence of classroom environment changes that impact adolescents during transitions associated with the junior high grades which include an increase in teacher control, decrease in teacher efficacy, and decrease in teacher-student relationship (Eccles, Lord, & Midgley, 1991). Further, the researchers (Eccles, Lord, & Midgley, 1991) found support for the hypothesis that traditional classroom environmental changes have a negative impact on student motivation. A final conclusion of Eccles &
Midgley (1988) suggested that the declines in motivation often assumed to be characteristic of the early adolescent period are less a consequence of the students’ developmental stage than of the mismatch between students’ needs and the opportunities afforded them in many educational settings.

Educators’ awareness of early adolescents’ struggles to meet individual needs provides a frame of reference within which to work. While striving to fulfill individual needs, adolescents begin to demonstrate leadership abilities throughout this process (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Educators can increase students’ perceptions of individual leadership potential through fostering an understanding of how their skills can be used to meet personal needs.

*Rotter’s Locus of Control*

Julian Rotter (1966) formulated the theory of locus of control, which classified generalized beliefs concerning who or what influences occurrences along a dimension from internal to external control. Internal control refers to the belief that control of future outcomes resides primarily in oneself, while external control refers to the expectancy that control is outside of oneself. For example, individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they control their own destiny and personal experiences are controlled by individual skill of effort. Specifically, adolescents who view life this way would say, “the more I study, the better grades I get” (Gershaw, 1989). Those who have an external locus of control tend to attribute experiences to fate, chance, or luck (Rotter, 1966). An example of external locus of control is if a student attributes either his/her successes or failures to having a bad day or unfair grading procedures on the teacher’s part, instead of take personal responsibility. This student may say, “It doesn’t matter how hard I study, the teacher doesn’t like me; therefore, I won’t get a good grade”. Since successes and failures are attributed to
luck or chance, a tendency to lack persistence and not have high levels of expectation occur (Mearns, 2004).

The development of locus of control stems from family, culture, and past experiences which lead to rewards (Rotter, 1966). Rotter (1966) found that internals come from families that focused on effort, education, and responsibility. Whereas, most externals come from families of a low socioeconomic status where there is a lack of life control (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control is a concept that has a significant impact on daily life occurrences. For example, those with an external locus of control believe that their own actions do not influence future outcomes. As a result, the individuals are less likely to work to reach their full potential due to the motivational, emotional, and cognitive deficits created. In some cases, individuals with an external locus of control are more likely to suffer from depression and other ailments because it is their belief that actions cannot improve their current position (Weiner, 1986). In contrast, those with an internal locus of control view the world through an adaptive perspective (Weiner, 1986). Specifically, hard work and personal abilities lead to positive outcomes, which increase success at meeting challenges and in future endeavors.

**Locus of Control and Education**

In the context of education, locus of control refers to the acknowledgement given to success or failures in school-related tasks. Findley and Cooper (1983) found that having an internal locus of control is related to higher academic achievement. According to Bender (1995), continued failure in spite of continued attempts at school tasks leads to an external locus of control. A high external locus of control results in lack of motivation for study and school in general (Bender, 1995). With the external locus of control view, an individual excuses poor performance without allowing personal self-esteem to be damaged (Basgall & Snyder, 1988). By attributing failure to fate, chance, or to the fault of another, the individual
avoids relating performance to personal flaws or lack of ability. If justification of failures through the external locus of control is used consistently, the individual loses motivation to improve.

Anderman & Midgley (1997) explained that students who believe poor performance is caused by factors out of their control are unlikely to see any reason to hope for improvement. On the other hand, students who attribute poor performance to a lack of important skills or poor study habits are more likely to persevere in the future (Anderman & Midgley, 1997). If students are taught to have a more hopeful attitude, develop an internal locus of control, their grades tend to rise (Noel, Forsyth, & Kelley, 1987).

Locus of control also impacts students’ responses to success. Kernis (1984) found that students with an internal locus of control performed better on a repeated task than students with an external locus of control. Further, students with an internal locus of control had less success on completion of differing tasks, whereas students with an external locus of control had greater success. Kernis (1984) found that students who made an internal attribution performed better on the same task than on a different task when tested again, whereas students who made an external attribution performed better on a different task than on the same task. Kernis (1984) concluded that internals are more likely to continue working at a task resulting in success, while externals are more likely to stop working on the successful task and move on to a different task.

Helping adolescents develop leadership abilities can have a direct impact on their locus of control (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Strong leadership skills encourage adolescents to be in charge of their lives. Because many adolescents don’t perceive they control life situations, it is critical throughout the leadership development process to increase the individual’s perception of life control (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). During this
process, students can also develop an awareness of the influence personal life decisions have on their lives and the lives of others. McCombs (1991) suggests that what underlies the internal locus of control is the concept of self as agent. An individual’s thoughts control action taken. When it is understood, an individual can positively impact beliefs, motivation, and academic performance. McCombs (1991) asserts that the self as agent can consciously or unconsciously direct, select, and regulate the use of all knowledge structures and intellectual processes in support of personal goals, intentions, and choices. In conclusion, through leadership development opportunities integrated into classroom instruction, adolescents can say, “I choose to direct my thoughts and energies toward accomplishment; I choose not to be daunted by my anxieties or feelings of inadequacy (McCombs, 1991).

Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development

Leaders can be defined as individuals who think for themselves, communicate thoughts and feelings to others, and help others understand and act on personal beliefs; they also influence others in an ethical and socially responsible way (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). An aspect of the previous definition relates to the concept of moral development. Working with adolescents to encourage discovery of the characteristics of ethical and social responsibility can be challenging for educators. In a time when fame and fortune are glorified through television, concepts of family and community are being transformed, and making distinctions between right and wrong, good and bad are blurred (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Kohlberg’s stages of moral development (1963, 1975, 1981) provide a framework for educators to better understand how adolescents make decisions in relation to what is right and what is wrong.

Lawrence Kohlberg expanded upon the work of Jean Piaget, who viewed development of logical reasoning as a progression through a series of stages in which
individuals incorporate a greater number of variables in each stage (Lozzi, 1990). From Kohlberg’s perspective, moral development is the increasing ability to differentiate and integrate the perspectives of self and other in making moral decisions (McDaniel, 1998). This perspective is the result of the interaction between an adolescent’s cognitive structures and the structural features of the social environment. Kohlberg (1969) suggested that moral development is promoted by social experiences that produce cognitive conflict and that provide the adolescent with the opportunity to take the perspective of others.

Kohlberg’s model consists of three hierarchical levels, each comprised of two stages. Responses to moral dilemmas become increasingly more complex as an individual progresses through each stage. The first level, Preconventional Reasoning, is the foundation of moral development. Children functioning at this level display no internalization of moral values; therefore, moral reasoning is controlled by external rewards and punishments. Conventional reasoning, the second level in the model, encompasses individuals who have internalized certain standards, but the standards are those of others (parents, society, teachers, etc.) (McDaniel, 1998). Within the third level of moral development, Postconventional Reasoning, individuals have completely internalized moral standards and no longer reason based on others’ standards (Kohlberg, 1978). Santrock (1997) explained that an individual in stage six who is faced with a conflict between law and ethical conscious would follow ethical conscious even if it involves personal risk.

*Moral Development and Education*

Moral thinking can be advanced educationally using social interaction, cognitive conflict, a positive moral atmosphere, and democratic participation (Kohlberg, 1969). Harding & Snyder (1991) suggested that implementing an approach to education that includes equality of all participants, ownership of decisions by all group members, and a
teacher who advocates mature moral reasoning while avoiding the presentation in an authoritarian manner is effective.

An important part of adolescent leadership development is helping adolescents understand the concept of morality in terms of influencing others through constant attention to ethics as an integral component of responsible leadership (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Matthews and Riley (1995) determined that effective ethics education is grounded in the community. Failure can result if ethics is taught without using community context to illustrate, nurture, and support ethical development (Matthews & Riley, 1995). By omitting the community and cultural context of the learner, a student will develop an abstract understanding of ethics that is outside his/her scope of experiences and ultimately irrelevant (Matthews & Riley, 1995). Without an environment conducive to being a person of character, leadership and character education cannot be effective (Kohn, 1997). In order to be successful, programs must focus on enhancing and creating positive environmental contexts (families, schools, and communities) that reinforce positive behaviors (Benard, 1992).

Antes & Norton (1994) provide the following suggestions for education related to adolescent moral and leadership development, which stemmed from Kohlberg’s Moral Reasoning theory:

1. Relate educational experiences to students’ lives providing opportunities for students to share their points of view.
2. Develop cooperative activities in the community with service projects to help students develop a sense of responsibility and connection to the community as a whole.
3. Encourage discussions with and among students concerning aspects of school life and how to interact with other people in the appropriate manner.
4. Guide children in playing a role in decision making in the classroom and school.
5. Provide forms of student self-government in public school as a means of helping students contribute to others and develop critical thinking and interaction skills.
6. Use day-to-day activities and what is happening in the students’ lives as opportunities to deal with values and ethics.
7. Encourage students to think in complex ways about moral issues in life as they appear in the curriculum.
8. Use reading and writing activities to encourage moral and ethical thought.
9. Structure the learning environment so that it models democratic values and provides a safe environment for learning, sharing, and cooperating.
10. Encourage self-discipline through cooperative interaction between persons in the learning environment.
11. Use discussion, role-playing, and analytical and creative projects as a basis for critical thinking about values, attitudes, character traits, and moral issues.
12. Use cooperative learning activities to help students develop social interaction skills (Antes & Norton, 1994, p. 220).

A concluding thought by Pittman and Cahill (1992) reminds educators that in our desire to rear healthy productive youth, our policies and actions should not be restricted to prevention or cures but should include cultivating skills and meeting needs. We must emphasize ethical leadership both in an adolescent’s personal and public life and as a leader in the school, community, workplace, or family (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Therefore, if educators are able to implement successful educational programs, enhancement of the character of youth will not only occur, but students will be provided with assets that will assist them in being caring, resilient, and successful individuals (McDaniels, 1998).

**Gilligan’s Theory of Moral Development**

Carol Gilligan’s approach to moral development provides another dimension to the theory of moral development. Specifically, Gilligan (1982) focused on moral development in relation to gender. According to Gilligan (1982) there are three levels of moral development. During the first level, the individual contemplates what is best for self. Second, an individual within the next level wonders if actions coincide with other’s expectations. And lastly, at the third level, the individual melds the two questions together, “can I be responsible for others and myself simultaneously?” (Gilligan, 1982). With the
three levels as a foundation for her theory of moral development, Gilligan traces gender differences in moral reasoning to different ways an individual views self.

The fact that physiological maturation occurs at an earlier age for females than males supports Gilligan’s findings relating to gender differences in moral reasoning (Gordon, 1996). According to several authors (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1984; Stiver, 1985), gender must be further taken into account in order to understand the differing psychological and social development of male and female adolescents. Gilligan focused on two orientations: a caring orientation based on relationships with others, and a hierarchical orientation based on achievement and independence (Gilligan, 1982). She found that the relationship orientation is more frequent in females because of the differing experiences of males and females as they grow up in our society (Gilligan, 1982). According to Gilligan (1982), identity for female adolescents is often developed in terms of intimacy. A significant difference between males and females is that males strive to be alone at the top and women strive to be at the center of connection (Gilligan, 1982). As a result, knowledge and decision-making are shaped by the nature of gender differences.

Females define themselves in relation to others with a sense of responsibility to others, whereas males define themselves as separate from others highlighting the need for rules to regulate actions (Woolfolk, 1995). Gilligan found that females adopt an ethic of care. This is evident through their thinking of morality in terms of responsibility to others and concern for doing something to meet the needs of others (Gilligan, 1982). Different for males, thinking is based on responsibility of not doing something that would infringe on the rights of others (Woolfolk, 1995).
From Theory to Advocacy

The work of Maslow, Rotter, and Kohlberg deepens an awareness of the complexities associated with the development of an adolescent. Each theory provides insight into what motivates adolescents and determines the sense of control they have over life (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Further, Kohlberg’s theory illustrated how adolescents develop a sense of right and wrong, and the role gender differences play in adolescent development. Adolescence is a time of transition, and insights provided by various theoretical frameworks aid in the framing of the teenage years. Educators working to develop adolescents’ leadership practices are informed through an understanding of various theories related to adolescent development.

Theories of Leadership

A review of leadership theories provides an opportunity to examine different perspectives held about the leadership process. Useful insights will be clarified focusing on variables that explain and predict leadership behavior. When examining the literature related to leadership, Vandenberg et al. (1966) suggested that it is not linear or sequential with one perspective replacing another, but rather the construct of leadership has been broadened through an evolutionary process over time.

Through the review of scholarly studies and publications on leadership it is evident that a wide variety of differing theoretical approaches to explain the complexities of the leadership process exist (i.e., Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992; Gardner, 1990; Hickman, 1998; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991). For example, some researchers conceptualize leadership as a trait, or as a behavior, while others approach leadership through a contingency lens or power and influence framework (Northouse, 2004).
Trait Theory

One of the first systematic attempts to explain leadership, trait theory, suggests that certain individuals are born with special traits required of great leaders (Northouse, 2004). Throughout the early 20th century, researchers were challenged to identify fundamental traits of leaders. Throughout the development of the trait theory, research concentrated on outlining specific traits that clearly differentiated leaders from followers (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982). Within this approach coined “great man” theory, the identification of innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders (i.e., Mohandas Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, and Napoleon) is central. Further, trait theory suggests that individuals are born with leadership-related traits and such traits can only be displayed by “great” people (Northouse, 2004).

The trait approach focuses exclusively on the leader, providing no attention to the followers, situation, or context. Trait is defined as “any distinctive physical or psychological characteristic(s) of the individual to which the individual’s behavior can be attributed” (House & Baetz, 1979). Trait theorists seek to differentiate leaders from non-leaders in terms of personal and psychological characteristics.

Bass (1990) found that traits commonly researched by trait theorists include physical characteristics (age, height, weight, appearance, physique, energy, health), personality characteristics (self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability), social characteristics (adaptability, introversion, and extroversion), communicative characteristics (fluency of speech, tone of voice, talkativeness, dominance), and cognitive characteristics (intelligence, knowledge, judgment, decision-making, scholarship). Further, Bass (1990) explained that assertiveness, decisiveness, dependability, persistence, self-confidence, and some skills such as verbal fluency, creativity, persuasiveness, and tact appeared to be characteristic of
successful leaders. Even though various traits appear to be characteristic, Bass (1990) concluded that simply having identified traits does not guarantee an individual is an effective leader.

L.L. Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), Kilbourne (1935), and Tead (1929) explained leadership in terms of the traits of personality and character (Bass, 1990). Bird (1940) compiled a list of seventy-nine traits from twenty psychologically oriented studies. Similarly, Smith and Kruger (1933) reviewed trait leadership related to educators and W.O Jenkins (1947) applied the theory to military leadership. Following the work of early trait theorists, several studies were done to discover core traits of effective leaders (Mann, 1965; McClelland and Burnham, 1976; and Miner, 1978; Stogdill, 1974). Even though multiple researchers found support for the trait theory, literature reviews organized by Mann (1959) and Stogdill (1948) led researchers to the conclusion that character traits are not useful in the prediction of leadership and leadership is situation-based (Reiter-Palmon, 2003).

Resurgence in research focusing on leadership related to the trait theory has occurred in the last decade (Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992). Mumford, O’Connor, Clifton, Connelly, and Zaccaro (1993) measured traits such as social skills, self-esteem and independence finding multiple correlations between traits and leadership ranging from .67 to .82. Bass (1990) found core competencies required for effective leadership were related to task performance, interpersonal skills, and personal values. Based on a new analysis of previous trait research, Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986) found that personality traits were strongly associated with individuals’ perceptions of leadership. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) claimed that effective leaders are distinct individuals in several key respects. Emphasis has been given to visionary and charismatic leadership traits by many researchers (Bass, 1990; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Zaleznik, 1977).
From the multitude of studies conducted throughout the years on individuals’ personal characteristics, it is clear that many traits contribute to leadership (Northouse, 2004). Traits that are consistently identified as characteristic of individuals recognized as leaders are intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Several advantages and disadvantages have plagued trait theory approach. Even though it is essential to focus on the characteristics of effective leaders, a more encompassing approach to leadership is the Skills Theory. This theory incorporates the situation in which leadership occurs, contextual factors impacting leadership opportunities, and it considers the involvement of those who follow the leader’s direction. In relation to adolescent leadership development, it is important to consider the context in which they are developing, learning, and practicing leadership skills. By doing so, educators can facilitate knowledge, skills, and ability growth in adolescents.

**Skills Theory**

Evolving from the trait approach, the skills approach to leadership theory is a leader-centered perspective of leadership (Northouse, 2004). Thinking is shifted from a focus on personality characteristics, viewed as innate and fixed, to an emphasis on skills and abilities that can be learned or developed. Further, the skills approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership (Northouse, 2004).

Leadership skills have been studied directly or indirectly for a number of years (Bass, 1990). The research of Robert Katz (1955) provides the foundation of the skills theory. In Katz’s three-skill approach (1955), effective leadership depends on three basic personal skills: technical, human, and conceptual. Specifically, Katz’s approach to leadership attempted to address the discrepancies found with the trait theory by addressing leadership as a set of developable skills, the three-skill approach. In the early 1990s, a multitude of studies
have been published reinforcing Katz’s findings that a leader’s effectiveness depends on the leader’s ability to solve complex organizational problems (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Yammarino, 2000).

Far more complex than Katz’s paradigm, is the model developed by Mumford et al (2000). This model outlined five components of effective leader performance: competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental influences (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., 2000). Competencies contained in the model are problem solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge. Individual attributes of a leader impact the leader’s general cognitive ability, crystallized cognitive ability, motivation, and personality. A leader’s career experiences and environment also impact various competencies outlined by the model. The model hypothesizes that effective problem solving and performance can be explained by the leader’s basic competencies and identified competencies are in turn impacted by the leader’s attributes, experience, and environment (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., 2000).

Behavioral Theory

Leadership according to behavioral theorists can be conceptualized in terms of observable actions (Northouse, 2004). A shift from innate characteristics of leaders to learnable behaviors and the interaction between leaders and followers is core to this leadership theory. From a behavioral perspective, leadership includes a core set of behaviors that are consistent and can occur in all situations. The individual leader’s style impacts the leadership-related behaviors displayed by the leader. In turn, leader behaviors can change and compel the behavior of others.

Blake & Mouton (1964, 1978, 1985) and Blake & McCanse (1991) developed a Managerial Grid to further conceptualize the leadership theory based on a behavior...
perspective. The Managerial Grid, which has been renamed the Leadership Grid, was designed to explain how leaders help organizations to reach specific purposes through two factors: concern for production and concern for people (Blake & McCanse, 1991; Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1978, 1985). The Leadership Grid joins concern for production and concern for people in a model that has two intersecting axes (Northouse, 2004). The horizontal axis represents a leader’s concern for people plotted on a nine-point scale. Through plotting scores from each of the axes, various leadership styles can be illustrated.

During the 1950s and 1960s, multiple studies were conducted by researchers from both The Ohio State University (Hemphill & Coons, 1957) and the University of Michigan (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Cartwright & Zander, 1960; Katz & Kahn, 1951; Likert, 1961, 1967) to determine how leaders could best combine task and relationship behaviors to maximize the impact of these behaviors on the satisfaction and performance of followers (Northouse, 2004). Specifically, researchers were looking for a universal theory of leadership to explain leadership effectiveness in every situation (Northouse, 2004). From this effort emerged contradictory and unclear results (Yukl, 1994). Even though some of the findings illustrated the value of a leader being both high-task and high-relationship oriented in all situations (Misumi, 1985), the majority of the research in this area was inconclusive (Northouse, 2004).

In conclusion, the behaviorist approach to leadership theory does not provide a refined and organized set of prescriptions for effective leadership behavior. Instead, this approach provides a valuable framework for assessing leadership in a broad manner through the assessment of behavior with task and relationship dimensions (Northouse, 2004). Further, attention to the idea that the behavior of subordinates can influence a leader’s
behavior, cause-and-effect relationships in the social sciences are uncertain, and situational contexts can impact group effectiveness.

Contingency Theory

One of the more recognized approaches to leadership is the category of contingency theories (Northouse, 2004). Developed by Hersey & Blanchard (1969a), this theory is based on Reddin’s (1967) 3-D management style theory. Yukl (1981) suggested contingency theories were concerned with the moderating influence of situational variables on the relationship between leaders. Contingency or situational leadership focuses on leadership within various situations. This approach has been refined and revised numerous times since its inception (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993; Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1988).

The premise for the contingency theory is that different situations demand different kinds of leadership (Northouse, 2004). To be an effective leader, the individual must adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations. Further, this model suggests to leaders how they should behave based on the demands of a particular situation. Effective leadership occurs when the leader can accurately diagnose the development level of subordinates in a task situation and then exhibit the prescribed leadership style appropriate for the situation (Northouse, 2004).

Yukl (1981) summarized that situational models, found with the contingency theories of Fiedler (1964, 1967, 1971, 1993, 1995), House (1971), Kerr & Jermier (1978), and Vroom & Yetton (1973) were empirically tested and found to be inconclusive. Similarly, Yukl’s (1981) multiple-linkage model, and Hersey & Blanchard’s (1977) theory were not directly tested. Therefore, authenticity of contingency theories has not yet been determined.
Power Theory

In the early 1980s, leadership research was approached through a power and influence lens. Within this approach, researchers focused on explaining leader effectiveness in terms of the sources of power available and the manner in which power was exercised over followers. The Leader-Member Exchange Theory or Transactional Leadership (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975) can be used to further understand the impact power has on the process of leadership.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory/Transactional Leadership

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX) was first described 28 years ago in the works of Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975), Graen & Cashman (1975), and Graen (1976). Central to this approach to leadership is the idea that leadership as a process is centered on the interactions between leaders and followers. The leader-member relationship is the pivotal concept within the process. Initially, LMX was classified as vertical dyad linkage theory. A leader’s relationship to the overall organization was viewed as a series of vertical dyads categorized as being of two different types (Northouse, 2004). Leader-member dyads formed two categories, the leader’s in-group (individuals who expanded and negotiated role responsibilities, extra-roles) and out-group (individuals based on the formal employment contract, defined roles). Individuals were categorized depending on how well they work with the leaders and in turn, how well the leader works with them. Personality and other characteristics are related to this process (Dansereau et al., 1975).

The Leader-Member Exchange Theory counters principles of fairness and justice in any situation by suggesting some members of the organization receive special attention and others do not. Therefore, the inequalities created by this theory do not lend to an appropriate approach for adolescent leadership development.
Similar to the LMX Theory, Transactional leadership is based on the process of social exchange whereby the leader and followers attempt to satisfy mutual needs and expectations. Specifically, economic, political, and psychological rewards are exchanged for loyalty and commitment to the visions of the leader.

**Ethical Leadership**

Under the title of ethical leadership, one of the earliest writings discussing this theory of leadership appeared in 1996. A small group of leadership scholars, collaborating under the W.K. Kellogg Foundation examined how leadership theory and practice could be used to develop a more caring and just society (Northouse, 2004). Ciulla (1998) published a collection of findings sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation entitled *Ethics, the Heart of Leadership*. Recently, Ciulla (2003) and Johnson (2001) have further explored the nature of ethical leadership.

The development of ethical theory, different than ethical leadership, dates back to Plato (427-347 B.C.) and Aristotle (384-322 B.C.). With roots in the Greek word *ethos*, ethics means “customs”, “conduct”, or “character”. Ethics incorporates the values and morals an individual society finds desirable or appropriate and is concerned with the virtuousness of individuals and their motives (Northouse, 2004). Ethical theory provides a system of rules or principles that guide individuals in making decisions about what is “right or wrong” and “good or bad” in a situation (Northouse, 2004). Further, ethical leadership provides a foundation to better understand what it means to be a morally decent human being.

In relation to leadership, ethics illustrates what leaders do and who leaders are. The nature of a leader’s behavior, decisions made, and response to circumstance can be directed by his/her ethics (Northouse, 2004). Ethical leadership theory can be described through two
domains: theories about leaders’ conduct and theories about leaders’ character. Stated another way, ethical theories are about the action of leaders and who they are as individuals (Northouse, 2004).

Teleological Theories

Impetus to ethical leadership theories is the focus on the conduct of leaders divided into two categories: theories that stress consequences of leaders’ actions, and those that emphasize the duty or rules governing leaders’ actions (Northouse, 2004). A teleological perspective surveys the results and outcomes or consequences related to various behaviors. Ethical egoism (Avolio & Locke, 2002) suggested within this approach that an individual would act in a way that would create the greatest good for her or himself. For example, a leader may take a job or career that he or she selfishly enjoys. Self-interest is an ethical perspective closely related to transactional leadership theory (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Utilitarianism, a second teleological approach suggests that individuals should behave to create the greatest good for the greatest number (Northouse, 2004). The morally correct action is the action that maximizes social benefits while minimizing social costs (Schumann, 2001). On the other hand, altruism, implying that actions are moral if their primary purpose is to show concern for the best interests of others emphasizes the interests of others. Contrary to self-interests, the leader makes decisions based on the needs and interests of others (Bowie, 1991). Authentic transformational leadership is an example of a leadership theory based on altruistic principles (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996). Mother Teresa was an example of an authentic transformational leader, who gave her entire life to help the poor.
Deontological Theory

Differing from teleological theory of leadership is deontological theory, which focuses on the actions of the leader and his or her moral obligations and responsibilities to do the right thing. A leader’s actions are moral if the leader has a moral right to do them, if the actions do not infringe on others’ rights and if the actions further the moral rights of others (Schumann, 2001).

Even though teleological and deontological theories approach ethics with the behavior or conduct of a leader in mind, a second approach to ethical leadership explores a leader’s character, virtue-based theories (Pojman, 1995).

Value-based Theory

Within this perspective, virtues are rooted within the individual and in his or her disposition (Pojman, 1995). Pojman (1995) explained that virtues and moral abilities are not innate but can be acquired and learned through practice. Individuals can be taught by families and communities to be morally appropriate human beings (Northouse, 2004). Consistent with Aristotle, current advocates of virtue-based theory stress that more attention should be given to the development and training of moral values (Velasquez, 1992). The Greek term associated with virtues-based theory is aretaic meaning “excellence” or “virtue”. Leaders ascribing to this theory would guide individuals in what to be rather than what to do, helping individuals become more virtuous.

Based on the writings of Aristotle, a moral leader demonstrates the following virtues: courage, temperance, generosity, self-control, honesty, sociability, modesty, fairness, and justice (Velasquez, 1992). Through application of ethics to leadership, Velasquez (1992) suggested that leaders should develop virtues such as perseverance, public-spiritedness, integrity, truthfulness, fidelity, benevolence, and humility. When practiced over time, from
youth to adulthood, good values become habitual and part of the individual (Northouse, 2004). Virtues are derived from actions and actions manifest virtues (Frankena, 1973; Pojman, 1995).

Inspired by the values-based approach to leadership, Reflective Human Action, grew out of a conviction that all professionals have a responsibility to lead, to use their competencies in each community of practice, family, neighborhood, organization, institution, or government (Mitstifer, 1995). In order to be considered a leader using the Reflective Human Action perspective, a leader must: (a) represent a nonpositional leadership and imply a responsibility of all professionals for leadership, (b) be intellectually and morally defensible, (c) link theory and action, and (d) link the how and why of action making a spiritual connection to others (Mitstifer, 1995). Contributing to the development of this theory are the works of various theorists including: Peter Block (1987, 1993), Tom Chappell (1993), Jay Conger (1994), Stephen Covey (1991, 1994), John Kotter (1996), James Kouzes and Barry Posner (1987, 1995), Thomas Moore (1992), James O’Toole (1995), Peter Senge (1990), and other researchers focusing on a values-based approach to leadership.

When dissecting the title of this values-based approach to leadership, it is essential to further understand the concepts of reflection and leadership.

Reflection is the ability to think about what you are doing while you are doing it. This reflection in action implies competence and artistry as well as commitment to learning through reflection on practice. With thoughtful naming and framing, the dimensions of a situation become apparent. Inventing and testing, a kind of improvisation, then can determine the human action. Reflection ensures a search for meaning, and appreciation of uncertainty, and a responsible inquiry. In other words, reflective engagement matters (Mitstifer, 1995, p. 2).

Leadership is conceptualized as a subset of human action. It is an engagement with life and lifelong commitment to human fulfillment. Thus leadership is the action itself, the total engagement offered for the well being of the earth and all its inhabitants. It is taking “responsibility for ourselves in concert with others, creating a
global commonwealth worthy of the best that we human beings have to offer” (Terry, 1993, p. 275). (Miststifer, 1995, p. 2)

Reflective Human Action is an active, mind-engaging process of meaning making in a community of practice (Mitstifer, 1998). Core to the perspective are authenticity, ethical sensibility, and spirituality (Mitstifer, 1998). Along with the core features of this perspective, features of action within this approach include: mission, meaning, existence, resources, structure, power, and fulfillment (Mitstifer, 1998). To implement this perspective, the following principles of practice are necessary: accept chaos, share information, develop relationships, and embrace vision (Mitstifer, 1998). Terry (1993) summarized the goal of Reflective Human Action in his book *Authentic Leadership: Courage in Action*.

Leadership is not a means to another end. It is not instrumental. Leadership is the action itself. Leadership is a gift to be unwrapped and treasured; leadership is choice, to be claimed; to be made functionally whole; leadership is participation, to be energized; leadership is adventure, to be embraced; leadership is creativity and innovation, to be playful. Leadership is total engagement offered for the well being of the earth and all its inhabitants. (p. 273) (Mitstifer, 1998).

**Influence**

Taking influence a step further than in the transformational leadership theory, ethical leadership requires the leader to have an impact on the lives of those being led. It is essential that leaders are sensitive to how their leadership affects the lives of those who follow. All leaders have an agenda, a series of beliefs, proposals, values, ideas, and issues to put on the table (Gini, 1998). The values promoted by the leader have a significant impact on the values exhibited by the organization (Carlson & Perrewe, 1995; Schminke, Ambrose, & Noel, 1997; Trevino, 1986). Because of their influence, leaders have a major role in establishing the ethical climate of an organization (Northouse, 2004).

**Heifetz’s Perspective on Ethical Leadership.** Based on work as a psychiatrist and observations and analysis of many world leaders (i.e., President Lyndon Johnson, Mohandas
Gandhi, and Margaret Sanger), Ronald Heifetz (1994) formulated a unique approach to ethical leadership. Emphasizing how leaders help followers to confront conflict and to effect changes from conflict, Heifetz’s perspective is related to ethical leadership because of the inclusion of value-based ideals. Leaders involve the use of authority to help followers deal with the conflicting values that emerge in changing environments and social cultures (Heifetz, 1994).

The leader provides a “holding environment” in which there is trust, nurturance, and empathy (Heifetz, 1994). By providing a safe environment, followers can confront and deal with hard problems. According to Heifetz (1994) leaders can use authority to influence people to pay attention to the issues, to act as a reality test regarding information, to manage and frame issues, to orchestrate conflicting perspectives, and to facilitate the decision-making process. A core duty of a leader is to assist followers in struggling with change and personal growth (Northouse, 2004).

Burn’s Perspective on Ethical Leadership. Burn’s theory of transformational leadership (1978) places a strong emphasis on followers’ needs, values and morals. Transformational leadership involves attempts by leaders to move followers to higher standards of moral responsibility (Northouse, 2004). Foundation to this perspective, leadership includes a moral dimension (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

In comparison to Heifetz’s perspective, Burns (1978) suggested that it is essential for leaders to engage themselves with followers and help them in their personal struggles regarding conflicting values (Northouse, 2004). Throughout the process, a connection between the leader and follower raises the level of morality in the leader and the follower (Burns, 1978).
Rooted in the work of Abraham Maslow, Milton Rokeach, and Lawrence Kohlberg, Burns’ (1978) theory of transformational leadership originated by emphasizing ethical leadership principles (Ciulla, 1998). Burns (1978) highlighted the importance of the leader’s role to attend to the personal motivations and moral development of the follower while considering past theorists’ works (Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership indicates it is the responsibility of the leader to help followers assess personal values and needs in order to raise the individual level of functioning to a level that stresses values such as liberty, justice, and equality (Ciulla, 1998).

**Greenleaf’s Perspective on Ethical Leadership.** During the early 1970s, Robert Greenleaf developed an approach to leadership called servant leadership. Servant leadership emphasizes the thought that leaders should be attentive to the concerns of their followers and empathize with them through care and nurturance (Greenleaf, 1970, 1977). Support has stemmed from various researchers (Block, 1993; De Pree, 1989) for the perspective that argues that leadership was bestowed on a person who was by nature a servant. In order to become a leader, first the individual must become a servant (Greenleaf, 1970, 1977). A servant leader focuses on the needs of followers by helping them to become more knowledgeable, more autonomous, and more like servants themselves while experiencing increased personal freedom (Greenleaf, 1970, 1977). Overall, servant leaders enrich others by their presence (Northouse, 2004).

Graham (1991) recalls that a servant leader strives to remove inequalities and social injustices that exist within an organization. Greenleaf requires that servant leaders must use listening techniques, empathize with others, and unconditionally accept others (Greenleaf, 1970, 1977).
Common throughout each perspective of the ethical leadership theory is that the leader-follower relationship is central to ethical leadership. Emphasis is placed on leaders’ attentiveness to the unique needs of followers. A connection between the three perspectives (Heifetz, Burns, and Greenleaf) is parallel to the ethic of caring proposed by Gilligan (1982). As discussed previously in the reviewed literature in relation to the moral development of adolescence, Gilligan (1982) suggested that personal relationships should be the beginning point of ethics. Within the past 20 years, the “caring principle” has been recognized by scholars as one of the predominant moral principles related to the role of a leader (Northouse, 2004). Further, Schumann (2001) explained a leader’s actions as morally correct if he/she expresses care in protecting people with whom the leader has special relationships. Similarly, Brady (1999) stressed that an ethic of caring is extremely important in organizations because it is the main ingredient in building trust and cooperative relationships.

In summary, this section presented an overview of five major categories of leadership theory. The integration of leadership opportunities into junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum required an understanding of various leadership theories. This knowledge guided the selection of an appropriate leadership theory to frame the social issue of childhood obesity into the curriculum presented to junior high school FCS students. First to emerge were trait theories, which attempted to explain and predict leadership by virtue of possession of personal attributes. Gradually trait theories evolved into a set of theories identifying behavioral characteristics. Behavioral theories focused on describing effective leaders based on successful performance within diverse roles and on identifying the perfect leadership style blending task-oriented and relationship-oriented styles. Next, contingency theories viewed leadership as successful attempts in manipulating situations to achieve desired end results. Power theories followed explaining the effect of a leader’s power or
authority over those who follow, whereas influence theories focused on a leader’s influence. In the influence category, leaders communicated a vision and inspired change by preparing a group to respond through innovation and collaboration. Within the realm of influence, theorists elaborated on the need to focus on the use of ethical means to lead a group of individuals. Ethical leadership incorporates many of the theories relating to leadership as well as theories explaining the moral development of individuals. Core to ethical leadership are the themes of respect, service, justice, honesty, and community. For the purposes of this research, ethical leadership principles will be used to develop lessons to present the issue of childhood obesity to junior high school family and consumer sciences students.

Definitions of Leadership

A variety of ways to finish the sentence “Leadership is…” have been identified by a large number of leadership theorists (Northouse, 2004). Stogdill (1974) identified in his review of leadership research that there are as many different definitions of leadership as there are individuals who have tried to define it. When defining leadership it is essential to recognize the multitude of meanings that exist. For over two hundred years, the term “leadership” has been found in literature within various disciplines, especially in the social sciences. The purpose of this review is to develop a suitable definition of the concept of leadership as the basis for the development of leadership opportunities to be implemented within junior high school family and consumer sciences courses.

A definition is a statement that ascribes meaning to a concept within a theoretical perspective. Categories of leadership definitions were originally developed by Stogdill (1974) and expanded by Bass (1990) and Northouse (2004). In order to better understand the concept of leadership, the definitions that exist correlate with the leadership theory identified during its time of conception.
To foster a complete understanding of the process that has occurred to define leadership, the following is a brief summary of the various categories used to define leadership over the years. Bass (1990) suggested that some definitions view leadership as the focus group process. From this perspective, the leader is at the center of group change and activity and guides the will of the group (Bass, 1990). A second grouping of leadership definitions views leadership from a personality perspective. This perspective suggests that leadership is a combination of special traits or characteristics that individuals possess, which enable them to influence others to accomplish various tasks. Another approach defines leadership as an act or behavior, actions leaders do to bring about change in a group (Bass, 1990).

Further, leadership has been defined in terms of the power relationship that exists between leaders and followers. Leaders are viewed to have power and use it to change others. Perceived as an instrument of goal achievement, leadership has been described as a model to help group members achieve goals and meet individual needs. Within this definition, leadership transforms followers through vision setting, role modeling, and individualized attention. A final category defining leadership is categorized from a skills perspective, stressing the capabilities (knowledge and skills) that make effective leadership possible (Northouse, 2004).

Even though multiple approaches to defining leadership exist, Northouse (2004) summarized the basic components as: (a) leadership is a process, (b) leadership involves influence, (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment. Northouse (2004) summarized leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Because leadership is defined as a process, it is not a trait or characteristic of a leader. Further, by using the term process, it
is suggested that a leader affects and is affected by followers through an interactive event (Northouse, 2004). When defining leadership this way, it is not limited to a few select individuals, but is attainable by everyone.

Important to the process of leadership is an understanding of the terms leader and follower. The term leader refers to those who engage in leadership, whereas the term follower refers to whom individual leadership is directed towards. Both leaders and followers are involved together in the leadership process; therefore, leaders need followers and followers need leaders (Burns, 1978; Heller & Van Til, 1983; Hollander, 1992; Jago, 1982). Even though leaders and followers are closely connected, the leader initiates the relationship, creates communication linkages, and carries the burden for maintaining the relationship (Northouse, 2004). Burns (1978), Hollander (1992), and Rost (1991) suggested that leaders and followers needed to be understood in relation to each other, collectively, and as a cooperative relationship, respectively.

The current study will focus on the following definition of leadership: leadership is a process by which an individual inspires, motivates, and facilitates a group to articulate a vision for mutual benefit, share the vision, and develop an action plan to make the vision a reality.

Competencies for Leadership

Competence is defined as a specific aptitude, ability, or knowledge that is relevant to meeting the requirements of successful performance in a particular setting (Boyatzis, 1982). In this section, the competencies related to the instrument chosen to measure leadership practices in junior high school students will be explained. When the competencies are understood, a foundation for the development of leadership opportunities is created.
Kouzes & Posner (1987, 1995, 2003, 2006) stated that effective leadership is not restricted to a few individuals. To assess the five fundamental principles or practices of exemplary student leadership the instrument *Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Student LPI-Self)* (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) was used in this research. The first practice is *Challenge the Process*. According to Kouzes & Posner (2006), leaders need the ability to initiate positive change, recognize and support new ideas, and be willing to take risks, to experiment, and to innovate. Further, leaders should be willing to challenge the system in order to get new products, processes, and services adopted. Required by this practice, leaders at all levels must possess expertise, initiative, and confidence in the outcome of change being proposed.

Second, *Inspire the Vision*, which includes looking at the future desirable state of the organization, was assessed. Kouzes & Posner (2006), suggested that being a visionary involves the ability to foresee a unique image of the organization, based on the analysis of the past, the present, and predictions of the future. Knowledge that is gained from experience, situational analysis, keeping current on present and future trends, and intuition allows the leader to envision the future. Leaders are required to contribute ideas, hopes and dreams for the organization, and encourage others to do the same (Gardner, 1990).

Third, *Enable Others to Act*, a process of encouraging collaboration, building of teams, and empowerment of others is evaluated through the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (2005). Bennis & Nanus (1985) suggested that the members of a work group may be encouraged to act by involving them in the process of strategic planning in order to obtain valuable input and gain commitment to the shared goals and plans of action. Effective implementation of this practice requires leaders to need skills that could sustain high levels of

Fourth, Model the Way requires leaders to act in ways consistent with their beliefs and values, such as being ethical, and open to new ideas and diverse points of view, being fair when dealing with others (Kouzes & Posner, 2006). In order to be effective, leaders should model the way through sharing values important for a successful organizational culture, such as high performance standards, a caring attitude, a sense of uniqueness, pride in jobs well done, and initiating the process of “small-wins” (Kouzes & Posner, 2006).

Fifth, Encourage the Heart asserts that leaders encourage followers through good and bad times, frustration, and disenchantment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Sashkin, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Within this practice, the building of self-confidence through high expectations, blending intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for jobs well done, being positive and hopeful, building confidence and courage, and celebrating accomplishments. Kouzes & Posner (2006) believed that individuals at all levels of organizational structures could learn the five leadership practices.

In conclusion, this section of the literature review explains that leaders are characterized by being long-range thinkers, thinking in terms of time and context, inspiring and communicating vision to others in such a way that others feel that the vision is worthwhile, and striving to make the vision a reality. Other characteristics of effective leaders are strong achievement motivation; being open to change; and having a wide range of competencies including outstanding job skills and conceptual skills, effective communication, good human relations skills, and political skills. Leaders should be eager to accept challenge, are willing to take risks, and often support the good ideas of others.
Specifically, leaders work for the growth and development of the organization, and are confident in their ability to be change agents using encouraging, honest, and ethical action.

*Leadership Development Theory and Adolescence*

It is essential that professionals understand and appreciate the complexity of leadership in order to support and challenge adolescents to be the best leaders they can be (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). DesMarais, Yang, & Farzenhkia (2000) indicate that in order to develop youth leadership; there are four critical elements that need to be included in a leadership program. The elements are: youth and adult partnerships; decision-making opportunities for adolescents while allowing responsibility for consequences; broad context for learning and service; and the recognition of adolescents’ experience, knowledge, and skills.

Leadership development starts early. The capacity to understand and interact with peers and other leadership-related skills critical for effective leadership development mature during adolescence and early adulthood (Gardner, 1987). Evidence has suggested that these critical skills begin to form before five years of age (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). It is not possible to predict which adolescents will display exceptional leadership performance; therefore, support exists for the opportunity for all adolescents having the potential to lead (Garrod, 1988; van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Opportunities for adolescent leadership exist in the workplace, family life, community, and government. Schools, community agencies, religious institutions, youth organizations, and sports organizations have incorporated leadership development in young people as a part of organization missions. Even though opportunities exist, research has suggested there is a lack of leadership programs available for all adolescents.
Leadership programs that currently exist have traditionally focused on developing leadership potential for certain student populations (Fertman & Long, 1990). Examples include, but are not limited to: student council officers (Gary & Pfeiffer, 1987; Stiles, 1986), community-group leaders (Lawson, Donant, & Lawson, 1982), and gifted students (Gallaghen, 1987; Richardson & Feldhusen, 1986). By the nature of these programs leadership education efforts focus on adolescents who have already demonstrated leadership skills in a school or community group. Fertman and Long (1990) conclude that leadership programs have not been developed for students who do not occupy leadership roles in school, community, or family activities. Although many adolescents do not perceive themselves as having leadership skills and abilities, the need for all adolescents to consider themselves as potential leaders has never been greater (Fertman & Long, 1990).

During the past thirty years, services and public policy in relation to adolescence has given attention to how problems such as substance abuse, teen pregnancy, school and community violence, conduct disorders, academic failure, and delinquent and anti-social behavior should be addressed (Catalano et al., 2002; Patterson, 2005). In conjunction with adolescent services and public policy, approaches to program development and research during the last twenty years have focused on prevention, providing support for adolescents before problem behaviors occur (Patterson, 2005). Patterson (2005) concluded that many early adolescent prevention programs highlight a single problem such as drug use prevention and are not based on theory or research. Because the need for prevention programs was at a crisis point, policymakers would fund programs that seemed to have optimistic outcomes.

Through evaluation of prevention programs that aim to reduce substance abuse, teen pregnancy, violence, and other problems it became evident that most of these programs failed to make a positive impact on adolescent development (Patterson, 2005). Hernandez (1995)
suggested that changes in socialization forces that have historically nurtured the development of children, especially within the family, necessitate the need for reconceptualizing school and community practices to support the family in its mission to raise successful children. Previously, the focus of interventions to support families and children responded to existing crises, for example, reducing juvenile crime or transforming poor character in youth (Catalano, et. al, 2002). While youth problems have become more evident and prevalent for today’s adolescents, intervention and treatment for a wide range of specific problems has been developed (Agee, 1997; Clarke & Cornish, 1978; Cooper, Altman, Brown & Czechowicz, 1983; DeLeon & Ziengenfuss, 1986; Friedman & Beschner, 1985; Gold & Mann, 1984).

Longitudinal studies during the past thirty years have identified important predictors of problem behaviors in youth and have served as a turning point with the formation of positive youth development programs and services (Catalano, et. al., 2002). From these findings, programs for positive youth development have focused on using information on predictors to interrupt the processes of specific problem behaviors. Ellickson & Bell (1990) illustrated an example of this occurrence through an explanation of drug abuse prevention programs. Drug abuse prevention programs began to address empirically identified predictors of adolescent drug use, such as peer and social influences to use drugs, and social norms that condone or promote such behaviors (Ellickson & Bell, 1990; Flay et al, 1998; Pentz et al., 1989). Instead of only focusing on the behavior problem, researchers supporting the theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Morrison, Simpson, Gillmore, Wells & Hope, 1994;) guided prevention efforts aimed to inform how people make decisions.
A second theory, the Health Belief Model (Janz & Becker, 1984; Rosenstock, Strecher & Becker, 1998) has also been used to guide the development of positive youth development programs through focusing attention on factors that influence behavior and behavior change. In 1991, the National Institute of Mental Health and leaders in youth development gathered in an attempt to reach agreement on the important factors influencing behavior and behavior change (Kirby, 1997). It was concluded that a successful transition to adulthood requires more than avoiding drugs, violence and precocious sex. The promotion of children’s social, emotional, behavioral and cognitive development began to be seen as the key to preventing problems (Fishbein, Middlestadt & Hitchcock, 1991; Patterson, 2005).

Along with these findings, the field of prevention began reinventing itself. In 1996, the Department of Health and Human Services awarded a large grant to support efforts to review and summarize prevention program evaluations. Researchers at the University of Washington conducted the research with the goal to document and describe the shift in approach from negative preventative approaches to the characteristics of positive youth development (Patterson, 2005). Twenty-five programs were identified with a primary prevention focus addressing positive youth development as well as problem behaviors (Catalano, et al., 2002). Even though the programs documented connected prevention and positive youth development, the researchers (Catalano et. al) called for developing and implementing more comprehensive programs focusing solely on positive youth development.

Evidence from this study also suggested that positive youth development programs should use flexible and comprehensive approaches rather than one-size-fits all approach for everyone (Bensen, 1997; Catalano, et al., 2002; Werner & Smith, 1992). Outcomes from programs using the flexible approach are: better school attendance, higher academic
performance, more prosocial peer and adult interactions, improved decision-making abilities, and less substance use and less risky sexual behavior (Catalano, et al., 2002).

Definition of Positive Youth Development Characteristics

A result of the Catalano, et al. (2002) project was the creation of common objectives that positive youth development programs seek to accomplish. Programs designed for youth strive to promote or cultivate one or more of the following objectives:

- Resiliency
- Social competence
- Emotional competence
- Cognitive competence
- Behavioral competence
- Moral competence
- Bonding with peers, adults, and school
- Self-determination
- Spirituality
- Self-efficacy
- Clear and positive identity
- Belief in the future
- Recognition for positive behavior
- Opportunities for pro-social involvement
- Pro-social norms

Catalano, et al. (2002) suggested that successful programs for youth and adolescents use strategies to address the following:

1. strengthen social, emotional, behavioral, cognitive, and moral competencies;
2. build self-efficacy;
3. shape messages from family and community about standards for positive youth behavior;
4. bonding with adults, peers and younger children;
5. expand the opportunities and recognition for youth who engage in positive behavior and activities;
6. provide structure and consistency in program delivery;
7. intervene with youth for at least nine months or more (Catalano, et al., 2002).

Through a practice and policy perspective, Flannery, et al., (2003) concluded that early prevention/intervention focus is important to increasing positive skills and competencies as well as reducing aggression and other problem behaviors. This perspective can also result in success at school, positive adult-teen and peer relations, and long-term adjustment and resiliency. Not only are adolescents overwhelmed and experiencing increased peer pressure to participate in risky behaviors, but the demands of the workforce for an employee who is trained to perform multiple skills has increased the demands on adolescents in school. Skills desired by employers range from technological to interpersonal and organizational. Training for many occupations requires years of preparation in formal education or on-the-job training encouraging young people to think and make decisions about their futures earlier. The jobs of tomorrow available to the adolescents of today may not even exist during the time of their secondary education.

*Adolescent Leadership Development through Secondary Family and Consumer Sciences Programs*

As professional-technical education programs in the state of Idaho are considered, much of the leadership development in our students occurs as a result of participation in
youth organizations. Wingenbach & Kahler (1997) illustrate that “…students at the secondary level could increase their leadership practices in communications, decision-making, getting along with others, learning management of self, understanding self, and working with groups by participating in a combination of youth leadership organizations in school and/or community activities” (p. 19).

Even though it is encouraging that adolescents have leadership potential and youth organizations provide opportunity for youth leadership development, there are important questions that need to be answered. Can current youth organizations provide adequate leadership education and training independent from classroom instruction? How many students are involved in Professional-Technical Education related youth organizations? Do these organizations provide students with needed leadership practices in order to be successful in the future? Carter & Spotanski (1989) questioned whether or not a more formal method of leadership training would be more effective than leadership development through involvement as an officer, committee chair, or as an active group member in an organization.

It is the task of professional-technical educators, specifically in the area of family and consumer sciences to prepare youth with the kinds of skills and personal qualities future employers deem important, but are currently offered to the few students active in youth organizations (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Carter & Spotanski (1989) found that students who received leadership training scored higher than students who had not received leadership training on nine of the top ten personal qualities that employers seek. The current research was based on the hypothesis that formal curricular instruction of leadership is presumably the missing piece of a strong family and consumer sciences secondary program.
Curriculum Development Theory

Curriculum within family and consumer sciences, which focuses on the development of adolescent leadership practices, is based on several learning theories including constructivism, transformational learning, critical science theory, and a practical problem framework. Hultgren & Wilkosz (1986) suggest that a curriculum orientation is the way in which educators think about the aims and content of the curriculum, which emphasizes a particular formation of educational priorities. Priorities, such as state and national standards identified by educators, influence the classroom climate in which students and teachers work to accomplish the learning goals established within a family and consumer sciences program (Hultgren & Wilkosz, 1986). Value positions of educators can affect curriculum thinking. Brown (1979) suggested that value positions represent the various levels of assumptions that are held within a particular field of knowledge, shared across disciplines concerned with human development, and connected to a particular worldview.

Further, Hultgren & Wilkosz (1986) explained that if the assumptions made are understood in regard to the learner, knowledge, society, and the aim of education, appropriate curriculum decisions could be made. The mission and knowledge paradigm guiding practice should also be considered when answering the question “what should be done about teaching family and consumer sciences education content?” When designing curriculum, educators are essentially seeking to address the question “What kind of world do we desire and how do we go about creating this world?” (Macdonald, 1975).

Curriculum development is accomplished by educators through the process of establishing and prioritizing educational goals; designing educational content, methods, and materials necessary to address the educational goals; implementing a broad range of activities and experiences that comprise the total educational program; and adjusting the plan based on
evaluation data (Shafritz, Keoppe, & Soper, 1988). A theoretical framework or paradigm can be used by educators to establish “what” and “how” to teach specified content. A framework or paradigm, defined by Schubert (1986) is a “conceptual lens through which curriculum problems are perceived” (p. 2). The conceptual framework outlined by an educator is based on a philosophical orientation that guides the decision making process within curriculum development.

*Constructivism*

Constructivism is an emerging view of learning based on the idea that new information is added to existing mental frameworks. Learners are placed in authentic settings in order to identify the issue to be studied (Williams, 1999). Instead of allowing learners to take a passive role in their education, an educator with a constructivist viewpoint requires students to be challenged in finding possible alternatives to various social issues (Williams, 1999). By framing curriculum in this manner, students learn from and add to their experiences while asked to critically reflect on the meaning of new knowledge.

The term constructivism describes the learner’s contribution to meaning and learning through both individual and social activity (Bruning, Schraw, & Ronning, 1999). Perspectives associated with constructivism are grounded in the research of Piaget, Vygotsky, the Gestalt psychologists, Bartlett, and Bruner as well as the educational philosophy of John Dewey (Woolfolk, 2001). Constructivism assumes that individuals construct their own cognitive structures as they interpret their experiences in particular situations (Palincsar, 1998). With multiple views of constructivism, some focus on how individuals make meaning; others emphasize the shared, social construction of knowledge (Driscoll, 1994; Iran-Nejad, 1990; Perkins, 1991; Spiro, Feltovich, Jacobson, & Coulson,

*Psychological/Individual Constructivism.* Psychological constructivists investigate how individuals build certain elements of their cognitive or emotional apparatus (Phillips, 1997). Interested in individual knowledge, beliefs, self-concept, or identity, the inner psychological life of people is of main concern. Recently, research conducted within the realm of psychological constructivism focused on information processing approaches to learning, which view the human mind as a symbol processing system (Mayer, 1996). To function, human mind converts sensory input into symbol structures (propositions, images, or schemas), and then processes (rehearses or elaborates) those symbols so knowledge can be remembered and retrieved (Woolfolk, 2001). Seen as a source of input, the outside world provides sensations to be perceived and to enter the working memory inside the head (Schunk, 2000; Vera & Simon, 1993).

Similarly, Piaget’s psychological constructivist perspective was developed around meaning that is constructed by the individual and processed through a sequence of cognitive stages that all humans pass through (Woolfolk, 2001). Previous stages are built upon through thinking, which occurs at each stage. Miller (1993) explained that within Piaget’s perspective, the main concern is with logic and the construction of universal knowledge that cannot be learned directly from the environment. Knowledge such as conservation or reversibility develops from reflecting on and coordinating personal cognitions or thoughts, not from the mapping of external reality (Woolfolk, 2001). Moshman (1997) concluded that Piaget saw the social environment as an important factor in development, but did not believe that social interaction was the main mechanism for changing thinking.
Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism. Central to Vygotsky’s theory is the belief that social interaction, cultural tools, and activity shape individual development and learning. Through participation in a broad range of activities with others, learners internalize or take for themselves the outcomes produced by working together. New strategies and knowledge are acquired of the world and culture (Palinscar, 1998). Classified as a social constructivist, Vygotsky’s theory relies on the social interactions and cultural context used to explain learning (Palinscar, 1998; Prawat, 1996). An example of this theory in action requires the culture to create cognition when the adult (teacher) uses tools and practices from the culture (language, maps, computers, looms, or music) to steer the child (student) toward goals the culture values (reading, writing, weaving, dance) (Woolfolk, 2001). Serpell (1993) elaborated that cognition creates culture as the adult and child together generate new practices and problem solutions to add to the cultural group’s repertoire.

Even though multiple constructivist theories exist, and some disagreement has occurred, agreement is illustrated through the common recommendations. First, constructivists recommend that complex and challenging learning environments provide the atmosphere for authentic tasks with the opportunity for students to participate in social negotiation and shared responsibility for learning (Driscoll, 1994; Marshall, 1992). Further, students should be provided with multiple representations of the content and develop an understanding that knowledge is constructed through student-centered instruction (Driscoll, 1994; Marshall, 1992).

Transformational Learning

Learning designed incorporating the transformational theory is based on reflection that transforms the beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and the emotions of learners.
Transformational learning encourages reflection and critical thought with increased receptiveness to the paradigms of others, and the acceptance of new ideas.

Transformative education suggests that teachers help students change into people who can think for themselves, who can engage life imaginatively and fully as life-long learners, and who can embrace democracy as a vibrant way of living (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). A description of transformative learning will be facilitated through the three lenses: subject learning, self-learning, and social learning (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Foundation to this theory is the idea that students experience thinking-centered, performance-based, multi-literate education while learning to think of themselves as caring, responsible, life-long learners and informed, participatory citizens in a democratic society (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000).

_Transformative Subject Learning._ A thinking-centered lesson engages students in thinking about the context within which they are learning (Perkins, 1993, 1994). A variety of teaching strategies can be used to facilitate thinking-centered learning experiences. An example of a teaching strategy that supports thinking-centered learning is the use of class discussion framed with thought-demanding questions. Second, the educator could facilitate a collaborative learning experience requiring students to share responsibility for learning through organization of self and topic. A third example is the integration of problem-based learning. Through problem-based learning opportunities, students study content by seeking out information needed to solve problems. Another strategy involves a similar approach, project-based learning, which provides students with the opportunity to gain knowledge through complex, socially meaningful projects (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Further, educators who engage students in peer teaching, infuse critical and creative thinking into subject matter through student analysis, critique, defense, questioning, and exploration of
alternative points of view align with the constructs of transformational learning (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000).

Even though debate has occurred over the meaning of transformational learning (Fosnot, 1996), generally it is defined as moments in which students actively make sense of a subject matter’s meaning by drawing personal connections between pertinent past experiences and the content students are studying (Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Henderson, 1996). When content does not relate to students’ lives, meaning cannot be actively constructed (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). In summary, research has suggested that thinking-centered educational activities can provide a meaningful context for basic skill acquisition and learning comprehension (Chi, 1994; Chi & Glaser, 1988). Transformational subject learning is aligned with disciplinary approaches that require inquiry responsibility instead of obedience to authority (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000).

Transformative Self-Learning. When an educational program focuses on inquiry, students are assisted in seeing themselves as active, life-long, informed decision makers as opposed to followers of authority (Palmer, 1998). Through this perspective, students are encouraged to develop a sense of self-based on internal, not an external, locus of control (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000).

As explained by Maslow (1962), a self-actualizing individual is engaged in continuous development of self through active, multifaceted transactions with the world. Through collaboration with Kelley, Rogers, & Combs (1962), Maslow proposed that the nature and development of the healthy self are related concepts. Individually, Kelley (1962) elaborated that a caring and mutually respectful social relationship is essential in the development of an individual’s self.
As described by Greene (1978), transformative self-learning is a process which involves cognitively, emotionally, physically, aesthetically, and spiritually attunement with self and others. In regard to learning, individuals activate imagination, welcome new insights, and alter beliefs through conversations with others (Greene, 1978). In summary, Kelley (1962) describes transformative self-learning as the cultivation of a fully functioning individual personality. Transformative self-learning affords students the opportunity to become active learners beyond the classroom setting, encouraging the development of an individual who participates in lifelong learning activities.

*Transformative Social Learning.* Students who are given the opportunity to participate in a transformative educational setting are taught to become active, responsible members of a pluralistic society centered on democratic ideals (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Through the cultivation of moral and ethical accountability students are made aware of deep, interrelated, and even controversial issues of equity, diversity and civility (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Students learn in a collaborative, critical, and meaningful setting where individual opinions and conclusions can be drawn with sensitivity to the ideals of the society in which they are (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000).

For the current study, students will be faced with a civility-related issue, a public forum focusing on the social issue of childhood obesity. Educating for civility aims to help students understand the right to dissent and relies on an individual commitment to listening to those who disagree with us (Scherer, 1997). To better understand the complexity of social issues students learn that many highly contested topics (i.e., government policy on abortion) cannot be understood through simplistic either-or thinking or by demonizing those with opposing points of view (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Experience with civil discourse through modeling provides students with social inquiry-related skills (Parker, 1997).
Implementation of transformative social learning can include the use of teaching strategies such as community service learning, which assists social education and aids students in thinking of themselves as active citizens (Boyte & Skelton, 1997).

In summary, an integrated approach to transformational learning can best be facilitated through a curriculum design concerned with enhancing the possibilities for personal and social integration (Beane, 1997). Beane (1997) concluded that when curriculum is organized around significant problems and issues and collaboratively identified by educators and students, the three dimensions of transformational learning (Transformative Subject Learning, Transformative Self-Learning, and Transformative Social Learning) are achieved.

**Critical Science Curriculum**

To discuss the theory of critical science in relation to family and consumer sciences curriculum, concepts of the technical science approach must first be explored. Plihal, Laird, & Rehm (1999) communicated that concepts of critical science and the technical science approach to curriculum are interrelated and interdependent on each other. Through this discussion, clear understanding of the importance of a critical science approach to curriculum development in FCS will be identified. Justification of the critical science approach to FCS curriculum is evident in the mission guiding the profession (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). For example, foremost to the service of individuals, families, and communities, FCS professionals strive to implement educational practice centered on human problems facing society (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Specifically, Schon (1996) suggested that problems can be classified by uncertainty, confusion, instability, and value-conflict, and not acquiescent to a scientific approach. Within the critical science framework, curriculum
developed will provide students the opportunity to think about social issues and problems occurring within society.

A critical science approach can be differentiated from a technical science approach through exploration of each approach in relation to the following constructs: curriculum goals; perspective views of potential value and contribution of the other approach; curriculum means and ends; the posing of value-related and philosophical questions; context of the curriculum; and the approach’s view of teachers and learners in the learning situation.

Curriculum Goals. In a technical science approach, an educator would focus on the use of how to questions to guide learning experiences. Through objective diminution of human problems into manageable components, educators would direct students to find the most efficient means of developing the technical skills to solve a particular problem.

Alternatively, a critical science approach seeks to create literate, democratic citizens with the capacity for self-governance (Carlson, 1988). Educators implementing this approach would ask “what knowledge is of most worth and why?” and “what ought to be”? (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Specifically, critical science curriculum seeks to prepare individuals and families to examine personal and social problems in order to take reasoned and justifiable action (Sirotnik, 1991). Action taken is based on the social justice values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring (Sirotnik, 1991).

Perspective Views of Potential Value and Contribution of The Other Approach. Core to technical science curriculum is the rejection of validity of any knowledge other than that which can be scientifically proven using objective definitions, observation, and measurement (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). The technical science approach also rejects the validity of the critical science approach and all approaches to curriculum that cannot be reduced to the technical scientific model, standards, and system of beliefs (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).
In contrast, critical science curriculum is an alternative perspective that does not seek to eliminate or invalidate the technical science approach. Technical science is seen as insufficient and inadequate alone, requiring an expansion of thinking and capabilities beyond the limited established boundaries. Family and consumer sciences educators providing instruction via a critical science approach, acknowledge, count on, and incorporate many of the strengths and contributions of technical science (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). A strong point of critical science is the recognition given to the need for integration of multiple forms of knowledge in order to best serve families and society. Brown (1980) explained the necessity of providing individuals and families with developmentally appropriate technical knowledge, communicative knowledge, and emancipatory knowledge in order for them to take reasoned action to solve problems. Brown used Habermas’ theory of action as a basis for construction of a critical science curriculum.

**Curriculum Means and Ends.** Technical science aims to find the most effective and efficient means to achieve a pre-determined, agreed upon, unexamined end (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Using exclusively *how to* questions, curriculum is presented to students. Decisions regarding curriculum means become technical matters, avoiding personal biases or values without questioning or examining the end in focus. When the ends are fixed and clear, a technical science approach may be effective, but is inadequate for dealing with ends that are confusing, conflicting, and problematic (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).

The use of critical science requires ends to be examined and questioned as thoroughly and continuously as the means for achieving ends are examined (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Throughout this process, reflection and critical evaluation of the numerous alternatives possible with justification of the ends desired should be in accordance with the overarching goals and values inherent within a social justice orientation (Plihal, Laird, &
Rehm, 1999). Further, the use of critical evaluation of the implication of decisions and the ramifications that could occur within personal, community, societal, and global contexts of both ends and means should take place (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).

Posing Value-based and Philosophical Questions. From a technical science approach, curriculum questions attempt to be bias-free and value-free. This eliminates questions that are philosophical and ethical in nature due to the urgency of the scientific approach (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).

Questioning within the critical science approach includes the following questions, “What out to be the ends? Why? What action should be taken? Why?” (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). It is essential that consideration of personal values and value differences are examined within the context of social justice and a democratic society (i.e., equity, security, freedom, personal dignity, and common good) (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). When questions are philosophical in nature, critical science requires investigation of philosophical agendas supported through everyday curriculum choices. Beyer & Apple (1988) outlined the following philosophical questioning topics as foundation for all curriculum planning: epistemological; political; economic; ideological; technical; aesthetic; ethical, and historical. A central dimension of curriculum planning is the use of philosophical understanding. Using this technique, educators are provided with a framework to access reflective understanding, heightened sensitivity, historical grounding, contextual meaning, a liberating praxis, and a vehicle for engendering justice, compassion, self-exploration, empowerment, critical thinking, and ecologically sustainability in a threatened global environment (Slattery, 1995).

Context of Curriculum. The context of a learning experience is often ignored in a technical science approach to curriculum development. Curriculum is seen as consisting of universal components with universal application (Reid, 1992). Specifically, technical
science operates under the orientation that it is possible to determine objectives, content, and measurements that will be appropriate for all learning experience contexts (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). In addition, technical science views problems as universally experienced occurrences that can be treated without regard to context, and yield technical solutions applicable in all situations (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).

Critical science recognizes powerful personal and social contexts influencing the learning process. Reid (1992) suggested that curriculum matters be considered within the personal contexts of real children, in real classrooms, with real teachers. Both the attitudes and experiences of students and teachers have an impact on what occurs in the classroom or school (Rogers, 1985). Educators and curriculum designers should consider personal contexts in terms of the larger contexts of community, society, and its institutions along with various contexts and institutions within our society (cultural, educational, political, and economic) (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Also, exploration of individual, family, and social problems from a holistic viewpoint, taking into account the multiple forces of influence is vital (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Family and consumer sciences teachers have the opportunity to develop curriculum that can challenge individuals to see the ways in which their personal, daily choices affect society. Specifically, learning experiences should focus on the problem setting while attempting to solve the problem (Schon, 1996). Problems might be identified by technical science as clear and distinct are instead seen as rich in complexity, characterized by uncertainty and dilemma, and possibly lacking in a “right” answer (Reid, 1992). Through the ongoing examination of valued ends, FCS educators are able to be ever responsive to changing personal and societal conditions affecting the individuals and families they aim to serve (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999).
View of teachers and learners. Learners within a technical science context are seen as passive recipients of knowledge that is produced and evaluated by “experts” and transmitted by teachers who follow procedures determined by “experts” (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Critical science views curriculum as a process (currere), which involves both learners and teachers as active participants and contributors to that process. Plihal, Laird, and Rehm (1999) summarized the critical science perspective in relation to teachers and learners superlatively by stating:

Unique individuals, in a unique classroom, with unique prior knowledge and experience, become co-creators of the unfolding curriculum, the knowledge emerging through guided critical inquiry, and the reasoned and justifiable action that follows. (p. 15).

In conclusion, the critical science approach aims to fulfill the goal of facilitating student ability to take reasoned and justifiable action (Staaland & Strom, 1996). Students exposed to curriculum developed within the critical science framework will be able to identify personal patterns of behavior and thought; relate social conditions to personal and group attitudes and behaviors; participate in the democratic process; take action to achieve social justice through the creation of conditions where all people have access to needed resources (Plihal, Laird, & Rehm, 1999). Not only will individuals have access to needed resources, opportunities will be created for individuals and families to make meaningful and informed decisions. To reach the goal of the improvement of life for individuals, families, and communities, the critical science approach provides a framework for the engagement of teachers and students in exploring possible valued ends. Curriculum developed with a critical science approach and practical problem framework provides a format for leadership development and structure to address social issues impacting society. A vehicle to be used for leadership development in family and consumer sciences is the public forum. This
research required students to participate in a public forum focusing on childhood obesity while utilizing skills required of a leader. In conclusion, the aim of the research was to assess the impact of leadership development opportunities using a critical science approach to curriculum in family and consumer sciences junior high school courses.

Practical Problem Framework

A practical problem framework for curriculum development focuses on family and consumer sciences content in relation to the concerns that families face over time (Hultgren & Wilkosz, 1986). Specifically, these concerns can be defined as perennial problems, reoccurring from one generation to the next. Questions such as “what to do” or “what action to take” requiring reasoned thought, judgment, and action are addressed in relation to significance to the human population (Hultgren & Wilkosz, 1986).

The practical problem framework to guide the development of curriculum in family and consumer sciences junior high school courses is integrated with a critical science theory approach. Similar to the constructivist and transformational perspective, educators who apply a critical science approach and practical problem framework to curriculum development can provide students opportunity to think about various social issues. Junior high school family and consumer sciences programs implementing the critical science approach seek to prepare individuals (adolescents) to examine personal social problems and to take reasoned and justifiable action based on the social justice values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring (Sirotnik, 1991).

Specifically, family and consumer sciences junior high school courses operate based on the goal to help adolescents take action in developing as individuals and to participate in the examination and formation of peer, family and social goals (Brown & Paolucci, 1979). Through a practical problem curriculum framework, adolescents are provided the opportunity
to develop independent thinking and leadership skills used to make personal adjustments integrating content knowledge (Dohner, 1994). Curriculum incorporating the practical problem framework provides a format for leadership development and structure to address social issues impacting society. A vehicle to be used for leadership development and utilizing the practical problem framework in family and consumer sciences is the public forum. Students were required to participate in a public forum focusing on childhood obesity while utilizing skills required of a leader. In conclusion, the aim of the research was to assess the impact of leadership development opportunities with a practical problem framework in family and consumer sciences junior high school courses.

Social Issue Context

A current social issue that impacts society is related to the nutrition and wellness of children. As a connection between leadership development and the developmental needs of early adolescents—physical, intellectual, and socioemotional, junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum affords students the opportunity to solve real-life problems. In 2005, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation identified obesity as a compelling issue appropriate for public deliberation. Sixty-five percent of U.S. adults are either overweight or obese (CDC, 2005; Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). Among children, 15% are overweight (CDC, 2005; Hedley, et all, 2004; Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). To be considered overweight, individuals must have a body mass index of 25 or more, while a person who is obese has a body mass index of 30 or more (Williams, Hartough, Miles, & Braun, 2005). In order to contribute to the national effort to address the issue of obesity, more specifically childhood obesity, family and consumer sciences junior high school students can participate in the process of conducting a public forum, an experiential learning
project. This process requires students to use communication skills, teamwork abilities, and productivity skills to successfully implement a public forum. Therefore, the opportunity necessitates adolescents’ use of skills related to being a leader.

An illustration of this process begins with the following question “What should I do about keeping my body looking and feeling good?” It integrates the content areas in family and consumer sciences and other disciplines (Fetters, 1989). Adolescents are concerned about how they look to others during a time of dramatic physical changes (Dohner, 1994). They need knowledge and independent skills that will enable them to adapt to physical and emotional changes occurring in the present and future.

The curriculum question, “What should I do about keeping my body looking and feeling good?” includes the following concepts addressed in a family and consumer sciences junior high school course: selection and preparation of nutritious foods, exercise and resting one’s body, cleaning and clothing one’s body, managing one’s lifestyle in relation to one’s family, studying body changes and how they make one feel, obtaining resources needed for caring for the body, and communicating one’s needs about one’s body to family and others (Dohner, 1994). Family and consumer sciences educators can facilitate an adolescent’s ability to address life questions through an integrated curriculum design with focus on whole-life, problem-posing social issues. Learning experiences offered within a practical problem curriculum framework consist of two types of learning processes: practical reasoning/problem solving and cooperative learning (Dohner, 1994).

Practical reasoning/problem solving is a process based on the critical science approach providing opportunity for the development of higher-order thinking skills (Dohner, 1994). Through the practical reasoning/problem solving process, teachers’ and students’ thinking is directed to include technical (using how-to thinking, prescribed methods, and
facts), communicative (understanding our own and other’s background and culture) and liberating (examining one’s assumptions, beliefs, and social conditions and making reasoned judgments to take ethical action) systems of action as problems are solved (Dohner, 1994; Dohner & Kister, 1990; Hultgren, 1987; Laster, 1987; Schwartz, Wilkosz, DeBoe, Grote, & Torgenson, 1986). Ethical questioning in this process assists early adolescents to think about themselves in specific situations, while contemplating the impact on others (Dohner, 1994). Laster (1987) suggests adolescents ask the following questions “What if everyone did it? How would you feel if someone did that to you? How does it affect me, peers, friends, family, and society?” Further, Beane (1990) emphasizes skills such as problem solving, ethics, valuing, social action, and searching for completeness and meaning as skills beyond a basic understanding of knowledge. With attention to skill development, affective learning is attained through practical reasoning/problem solving, which is necessary for examination of real-life problems (Dohner, 1994).

Cooperative learning is a teaching strategy used to facilitate the process of practical reasoning/problem solving. Dohner (1994) suggests practical reasoning/problem solving is best achieved in collaborative groups when multiple experiences can contribute to thinking about and solving various social problems. Results of cooperative learning include, but are not limited to, development of communication skills within a group or team, peer teaching skills, and skills required to work productively and support each other in groups (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1998). Cooperative learning allows early adolescents to feel a sense of responsibility for each other’s learning and provides opportunity for success which may also be useful in esteem building (Dohner, 1994).

Cooperative learning strategies have been shown to increase pro-social behavior and to enhance student’s ability to consider other’s point of view (McDaniel, 1995). In the
school setting, cooperative learning involves placing students in small groups where learning is of central importance and students are not only responsible for their own learning, but the learning of others (Leming, 1993b). This approach increases academic achievement, acceptance of other races and ethical origins (Leming, 1993b), mutual concern among students, and positive social attitudes and behavior (Leming, 1993a).

Practical reasoning/problem solving, cooperative learning, and an integrated critical science approach to curriculum incorporating effective teaching strategies support the development of early adolescent higher-order thinking skills. Also, adolescents are provided the opportunity to implement skills associated with leadership. For example, communication skills, teamwork abilities, and productivity skills are enhanced.

As a connection between leadership development and the developmental needs of early adolescents—physical, intellectual, and socioemotional, junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum affords students the opportunity to solve real-life problems. In order to contribute to the national effort to address the issue of obesity, more specifically childhood obesity, family and consumer sciences junior high school students can participate in the process of conducting a public forum. This process requires students to use communication skills, teamwork abilities, and productivity skills to successfully implement a public forum.

Leadership Education

Leadership can be taught and learned (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 1997). The goal of leadership education is to provide opportunities for individuals to learn the skills, attitudes, and concepts necessary to become effective leaders (Huber, 2002). According to Kolb (1984) many people learn from their experience; therefore many leadership educational opportunities are experiential in nature. The use of action-oriented
educational methods to train leaders can be effective and useful (Bass, 1990). Similarly, Huber (2002) stated that in order to increase the capacity of individuals and organizations to lead, experience in the process is essential.

A few of the recommended teaching strategies used to teach leadership are service learning (Hoover & Webster, 2004), movie analyses (Graham, Ackerman, & Maxwell, 2004; Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackerman, 2003), and case studies. Other methods include lecture discussion, role-playing, living cases games, computer-assisted and programmed instruction, behavior modeling, and sensitivity training (Bass, 1990). Role-playing can improve learning and retention while promoting transference from the learning situation to leadership performance on the job (Bass, 1990).

Green (1988) defined leadership enhancement as broadening one’s perspectives, expanding one’s vision beyond a particular position or institution, and integrating information and experience to shape the course of institutions. As explained previously, Andrews, Mitstifer, Meeks, Rehm, & Vaughn (1995) created a leadership development model based on the philosophies of authentic leadership developed by Terry (1993), and the nature of reality developed by Wheatley (1994). From this model, it is understood that human problems can be traced to the effect of human actions, and the most effective strategies for resolving problems can therefore be developed by reflective human action. The Reflective Human Action leadership perspective formulates a desired end result of a more reflective leader through consideration of the diverse views of various leadership theorists. Cleveland (1985) found that the educational system must foster integrative thinking at all levels. Specifically, curriculum emphasizing civic responsibility, self-knowledge, and a global perspective is essential in the preparation of adolescents for leadership. He concluded
that education cannot substitute a well-formed mind and a strong personal value system (Cleveland, 1985).

Leadership education for adolescents should consider individual differences that exist such as, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, learning styles, personality types, experience, and education (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Rudd, et al, 1998; Snow & Yallow, 1982; van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Also, adolescents share commonalities, which contribute to the development of an instructional model for leadership (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). These similarities include the desire to separate from parents, the need for a time of self-discovery and definition, the way they learn and develop leadership skills gradually, their unpredictability, and the need for a time of exploration (Basic Behavioral Science Task Force of the National Mental Health Council, 1996; Rickets & Rudd, 2002; Taylor, et al, 1995; van Linden & Fertman, 1998).

It is essential that the individual implementing the leadership educational experience has a thorough knowledge of adolescent development (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Due to the importance of considering each individual’s ability to lead, an adolescent’s differences, similarities, and needs should all be considered prior to synthesis and adoption of a model for formal youth leadership development curriculum (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). A specific model has been created for developing formal leadership education curriculum for youth or adolescents in formal career and technical education programs. Within the model, the various constructs of leadership are represented. To develop the dimensions and stages, research of Bloom (1956), Fertman & Chubb (1993), Fertman & Long (1990), Long, Wald, & Graff (1996), and Wald & Pringle (1995) were considered.

The dimensions of the model for youth leadership curriculum consist of dimensions used by van Linden & Fertman (2003) including cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects
of youth and providing “a consistent frame of reference to assess, monitor, and evaluate an adolescent’s leadership development” (p. 40). Ricketts & Rudd (2002) integrated their examination of leadership and youth development literature into Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives to provide the knowledge needed to adjust and expand van Linden and Fertman’s (1998) research. By doing so, leadership development could be taught in formal career and technical education settings with ease.

Figure 1 provides an illustration of the model for youth leadership curriculum developed by van Linden & Fertman (1998) and expanded upon by Ricketts & Rudd (2002). Five dimensions of leadership exist and are integrated into educational experiences to increase the adolescent’s knowledge, skills, abilities, and perceptions in relation to leadership.

Each circle within the figure represents a construct of leadership (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). For this research each dimension of the conceptual model will be integrated in the current curriculum of a junior high school family and consumer sciences Teen Living course. The dimensions will be taught using three different hierarchical levels that engage students in a higher order of thinking (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Within each stage, the experiential learning theory of Kolb (1984) is integrated using a holistic integrative perspective on learning combining experience, perception, cognition, behavior, and Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The integration of Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy requires students to thoroughly understand the concepts of leadership by learning on several hierarchical levels.

Following this model, students learn about each dimension of leadership at the Awareness, Interaction and Integration levels (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).
The Awareness stage provides orientation to the curriculum; the Interaction stage involves students in the exploration of leadership; the Integration stage involves student practice and mastery of leadership development activities and concepts (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Ricketts & Rudd (2002) concluded that each stage strives to build on the experience and perception of the students in order to enhance cognition and behavior in the leadership development process.

*Leadership Knowledge and Information*

The first dimension emphasizes what youth need to know about leaders and leadership before proceeding with application of leadership-related concepts (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). As an example, Dewey (1963) explained the role of prior knowledge:
To grasp the meaning of a thing, an event or a situation is to see it in its relations to other things; to note how it operates or functions, what consequences follow from it; what causes it, what uses it can be put to. In contrast, what we have called a brute thing, the thing without meaning to us, is something whose relations are not grasped. (p. 135).

In agreement with Dewey (1963), Stogdill (1974) found that leaders with information on the task at hand made more attempts at leading than did those without proper knowledge.

Knowledge can be defined as a demonstrated understanding of what a task is (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001). Through the acquisition of leadership knowledge and information, Ricketts & Rudd (2002) found that complicated, abstract concepts related to leadership were dispelled allowing students the opportunity to perceive themselves as leaders.

*Leadership Attitude, Will, and Desire*

Attitude can be defined as a mental set that causes a person to respond in a characteristic manner to a given stimulus and is the way in which individuals view and interpret their environment (Chapman & O’Neil, 1999). Contained within the leadership attitude, will, and desire dimension are the concepts of motivation, self-realization, and health in fulfilling a student’s leadership capacity. Optimum development occurs when a student is healthy, exhibiting physical and mental fitness, having a positive self-image, maintaining self-understanding, and possessing appropriate coping skills (Lerner, 1995). Instrumental in the synthesis of this dimension, Ricketts & Rudd (2002) referred to McClelland’s (1987) motivation theory describing the need for achievement, affiliation, and power to motivate people towards a certain pattern of behavior. If a student is motivated to be a leader, the student’s attitude, will and desire will be stronger towards the related dispositions.
Decision-Making, Reasoning, and Critical Thinking

Decision-making, reasoning, and critical thinking skills should be incorporated into the specific practices and strategies used by career and technical education professionals in secondary instructional programs (Henderson, 1983). Important insight into curriculum development for leadership education was found within the 1989 Report on Adolescent Development. A well-developed young person is an intellectually reflective person, who analyzes problems and issues and develops new solutions (Learning Leadership…, 1996). Further, Rudd, Baker, & Hoover (2000) suggested:

Critical thinking is a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information, and for which an inconvertible solution is unlikely. (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002, p. 9).

In order for an individual to function successfully and efficiently, a person’s knowledge and thinking abilities need to be evident (Lancelot, 1929). Further, Glaser (1984) found that critical thinking, reasoning, and decision-making are ideally taught by incorporating them into existing subject matter, and not taught as a separate topic, while van Linden & Fertman (1989) felt that exposure to the principles of reasoning would provide adolescents with the ability to make educated leadership decisions (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). In conclusion, thinking abilities allow individuals to get better jobs, fit better within a changing and complex environment, and improve the quality of their life. The critical thinking dimension is crucial to the model for leadership education (Thomas, 1992; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002).

Oral and Written Communication

Seen as one of the most important skills involved in leadership development, communication is vital in this process (Gardner, 1987). In order to share knowledge, interests, attitudes, opinions, feelings, and ideas to influence and ultimately lead others,
individuals need strong oral and written communication skills (van Linden & Fertman, 2003).

Throughout various inquiries into skills needed for employment, Benson (1994) and Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson (2000) found that written and oral communication skills were the two most important factors in graduating students gaining employment. In the process of developing a comprehensive model to train, teach and develop leadership in youth, Ricketts & Rudd (2002) identified that the inclusion of oral and written communication skills into a leadership education model is substantiated by the need to integrate oral and communication skill competencies across all disciplines.

Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Relations

To complete the leadership education model developed to increase adolescents’ leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities, the dimension of intrapersonal and interpersonal relations was created. Within this dimension, students are presented with concepts such as conflict resolution, stress-management, teamwork, and ethics combined with knowledge regarding diversity, personality types, communication styles, leadership styles, and other human relations abilities (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). This dimension prepares students to reflect and to work with others in an efficient and appropriate manner.

During youth leadership training, Scherer (1992) identified conflict resolution as a top priority. Deen (2000) explained further that many researchers envision conflict resolution as a productive and necessary part of positive interpersonal relationships, creative problem solving, and group cohesiveness. When the leadership constructs of Kouzes & Posner (1995, 2003) are implemented, adolescent leaders are better equipped to handle conflict in a constructive manner, avoid conflict if necessary, or encourage success in their peers. Kouzes & Posner (1995, 2003) suggested that exemplary leaders: (a) Challenge the Process, (b)
Enable Others to Act, (c) Model the Way, (d) Inspire a Shared Vision, and (e) Encourage the Heart. Correlations between Ricketts & Rudd (2002) and Kouzes & Posner (1995, 2003, 2006) provide a foundation for the current research. Leadership knowledge and information; leadership will, attitude and desire; decision-making, reasoning, and critical thinking; oral and written communication, and interpersonal and intrapersonal relations are themes throughout Kouzes & Posner’s *Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership* (2006). As concluded by Ricketts & Rudd (2002) very little research and even fewer applications of teaching adolescents leadership development have been conducted.

**Summary**

Adolescence is considered to be a time of fascinating and complex transitions. Individuals experiencing this time in life are faced with accelerated growth and change second to that of infancy, a time of expanding personal horizons, self-discovery and emerging interdependence, and transformation from childhood to adulthood. Core to the experiences of adolescents are the biological, physical, behavioral, and social transformations that characterize this stage in life. The intense change that is occurring provides a challenge to educators in assisting students with the transition from elementary to junior high school and eventually junior high school to high school. As a crucial time in one’s life, adolescence provides students the opportunity to experience life events that shape their future life course and therefore the future of our society.

The experiences of adolescents include happiness and growth along with doubt and confusion. During this time various relationships with peers and family take on new meaning. It is common for some adolescents to think about their future and opportunities that will be available to them with little hope for success. On the other hand, others have a vague image of the future as they begin searching for a means to a successful adulthood.
Risk-taking behaviors are often explored during adolescence. In order to avoid the establishment of damaging life patterns, early intervention is necessary to prevent later casualties and to promote more successful outcomes. Research has concluded that adolescence is an opportune time, possibly the last life phase, in which society has access to roughly the entire adolescent population. Therefore, educators have the potential for constructive influence on adolescents’ life and leadership development.

All adolescents have basic human needs that must be met in order for learning to occur. Educators can increase a students’ perception of individual leadership potential through fostering an understanding of how their skills can be used to meet personal needs. Leadership skills and abilities begin to develop in adolescents’ behavior throughout the process of seeking to attain various personal needs. Specifically, they must find ways to earn respect, establish a sense of belonging in a valued group, and build a sense of personal worth based on mastery of useful social and life skills. Further, adolescents should learn how to peacefully manage conflict, the elements of ethical behavior, and how to use the social support systems available to them. Throughout this time in life, adolescents have the opportunity to acquire a positive vision of the future through educational opportunities that integrate leadership.

Often, educators ascribe to the misconception that early adolescents are incapable of critical or higher-order reasoning. By not offering challenging instruction that connects to the social issues facing young people today, adolescents are not afforded the opportunity to develop in this manner. For example, education that captures the adolescent’s sense of self and the world can foster inquiring, analytical young people. This form of preparation is essential for adolescent and leadership development.
If an adolescent is expected to solve problems of human relations, develop healthy lifestyles, cultivate intellectual curiosity, access social systems they need, and meet the demands of the workplace, he or she must be afforded the opportunity to learn certain basic skills for everyday life. In particular, training should occur in interpersonal and coping skills to aid in resistance to pressures from peers and others to engage in high-risk behaviors. To reduce adolescents’ participation in high-risk behaviors, educators can prepare students through educational opportunities that promote the development of self-control, stress and anxiety reduction, and strategies for developing healthy relationships.

When developing learning activities and curriculum for adolescents, educators need to provide an opportunity for all students to succeed. One strategy providing success in this arena is the implementation of the cooperative learning teaching method. Through implementation of this strategy, educators allow students of varying abilities to work together. High achievers deepen their understanding of the material by explaining it to lower achievers, who in turn benefit by receiving extra help from their peers. Knowledge can be retained longer, material becomes mastered at a higher rate, and critical reasoning skills develop at a higher rate than when working alone. Adolescents are provided the opportunity to get to know classmates from differing backgrounds preparing them to live in a pluralistic society.

As a connection between the developmental needs of early adolescents (physical, intellectual, and socioemotional) and adolescent leadership development, junior high school family and consumer sciences curriculum affords students the opportunity to solve real-life problems. Using a current initiative sponsored by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation obesity has been identified as a compelling issue appropriate for public deliberation. Since sixty-five percent
of U.S. adults are overweight or obese and fifteen percent of children are overweight, obesity is a social issue that impacts adolescents in the junior high school setting. To contribute to the national effort to address the issue of obesity, more specifically childhood obesity, family and consumer sciences junior high school students can participate in the process of conducting a public forum. This process requires students to use communication skills, teamwork abilities, and productivity skills to successfully implement a public forum.

The inclusion of leadership opportunities for adolescents in junior high school family and consumer sciences Teen Living courses follows the mission of FCS professionals and the implementation of a critical science approach to curriculum development. From a critical science framework, FCS educators focus on developing experiential learning experiences that provide students the opportunity to think about social issues and problems occurring within society.

The purpose of this research was to assess the effects of leadership development opportunities integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue. Because employers are interested in a future workforce that understands leadership in relation to various life situations, it is essential that adolescents be provided the opportunity to learn about leadership development through experiential education opportunities. Specifically, family and consumer sciences curriculum allows for adolescents to apply various workplace skills in real-life contexts.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Participants represented five groups of ninth grade Teen Living students in four different schools in Northern Idaho. To be selected for the study, the school was required to have two sections of Teen Living offered to ninth grade students. Specific objectives of the project were to:

1. design a leadership development curriculum that can be integrated into existing junior high school family and consumer sciences nutrition and wellness curriculum with emphasis on childhood obesity, and

2. conduct a formative evaluation of the curriculum by studying its impact on the leadership practices and potential of junior high school family and consumer sciences students.

The focus and purpose of the study was to assess the effects of leadership development opportunities integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue.

To achieve the first objective, a research and development approach was used. The impact of leadership curriculum was assessed through a pretest/posttest design with both experimental and control groups as data sources. The experimental group received the integrated leadership curriculum, while the control group received the nutrition curriculum that is traditionally taught within secondary family and consumer sciences courses. The goal of this study was to develop and provide a curriculum model and framework that could be used by family and consumer sciences secondary educators throughout the United States.
The curriculum model integrated leadership development opportunities into lessons developed based on a practical problem framework and critical science approach to childhood obesity. Long-range outcomes of this study will hopefully include strengthening family and consumer sciences programs in junior high schools in the State of Idaho, adolescents who are more confident in their leadership practices and abilities, and an overall enhanced public image for family and consumer sciences in the State of Idaho.

Research Design

A quasi-experimental research design was used to examine the impact of leadership opportunities integrated within nutrition and wellness curriculum based on a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity. The design is categorized as quasi-experimental because the participants were not randomly selected or assigned to the experimental group and control group. Using a quantitative research design, the study was designed to test whether the integration of leadership opportunities increased the leadership practices of adolescents in a Teen Living course.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was junior high school students enrolled in Teen Living, a secondary family and consumer sciences course offered in Idaho during the Fall 2006 semester. Family and consumer sciences teachers in Idaho were contacted to invite the students in their classrooms to participate in the study.

The sample included ten family and consumer sciences classes totaling 203 students. Each school selected for the study has a family and consumer sciences course, Teen Living, offered to ninth grade students, who can range from ages 14-15. The students who participated in the course with leadership opportunities integrated within nutrition and wellness curriculum emphasizing childhood obesity were considered the experimental group.
and those who do not participate in the integrated curriculum the control group. Based on the enrollment numbers at the time of the study, the control group and the experimental group consisted of 100 students and 103 students, respectively.

To describe the sample more specifically, Table 1 provides a further description of the students who participated in the research. The information included in the table is limited to the data gathered for the purposes of this research study. Gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and the mean number of leadership positions held were provided by students in the control and experimental groups. For the purposes of this research, the age, diversity, and other descriptive characteristics were not gathered.

Table 1. Characteristics of sample based on gender, mean number of work experiences, mean number of memberships in student organizations, and mean number of leadership positions held

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of Work Experiences</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of Memberships in Student Organizations</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean # of Leadership Positions Held</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As evidenced by Table 1, students in the control and experimental groups were similar. The control group consisted of 42 males and 54 females, whereas the experimental group comprised of 34 males and 63 females. Students in the control group reported a mean number of work experiences as 1.04, mean number of memberships in student organizations as 1.10, and a mean number of leadership positions held as 1.25. Similarly, the experimental group reported a mean number of work experiences as 1.12, mean number of memberships in student organizations as 1.29, and a mean number of leadership positions held as 1.13.
Overall, the control group reported a greater number of leadership positions held, whereas
the experimental group reported a greater number of memberships in student organizations
and a greater number of work experiences.

Treatment

The treatment consisted of a two-week curriculum unit integrating the
implementation of a public forum within a community, specifically addressing the social
issue of childhood obesity. The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences
(Braun, Hartough, Miles, & Williams, 2005) created training materials for the public forum
entitled “Sizing Up America Public Policy Deliberation Guide” (see Appendix A).

The manual consists of three suggested approaches to the issue of childhood obesity:
(a) prevention of the obesity epidemic; (b) change our lifestyle; (c) protect your pocketbook
(Braun, et al., 2005). To accompany the obesity framework guide, participants were
provided the obesity forum moderator and convener guide (Braun et al., 2005).

The researcher presented the public deliberation and forum curriculum in all
experimental classes. As a family and consumer sciences certified teacher, she worked as a
ninth grade Teen Living teacher for three consecutive years and continues to work in family
and consumer sciences education at the postsecondary level.

The curriculum materials used to guide this research were developed in a web-based
format (http://www.agls.uidaho.edu/fcsed) and paper copy consisting of the two-week
curriculum unit (see Appendix B). Each lesson was developed based on the curriculum
development theories referred to in the literature, experiential learning, transformational
learning, and constructivism. Specifically, teaching strategies such as role-play, simulations,
small group discussion, and the use of written exercises were incorporated as well as the use
of written exercises.
Instrument

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) was used to measure the leadership practices of ninth grade students before and after implementation of the nutrition and wellness curriculum with an integrated leadership opportunity (see Appendix C). For the purpose of the study leadership development was measured based by participant scores on the five leadership practices selected as an underlying theme of the curriculum: Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Kouzes & Posner (2003) developed the LPI due to the need for a valid and reliable research instrument to test their leadership theory and model.

The development and validation of the instrument by Kouzes & Posner (2006) included the use of both qualitative and quantitative analyses. Initially, case studies were prepared and analyzed involving 1,330 managers. Each case study was framed with the goal to identify managers’ most successful experiences during leadership position tenures. Through both case studies and in-depth interviews a pattern of critical leadership practices was outlined. Actions illustrated were categorized within the five categories of leadership practices assessed within the LPI. Following several repeated psychometric processes, the resulting instrument has been administered to over 350,000 managers and non-managers across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). A version of the LPI was later developed for specific use with junior high school, high school, and college students. For the purposes of this study, the student version of the instrument was used. Kouzes & Posner have conducted over a fifteen-year period
validation studies which consistently confirm the reliability and validity of the Leadership Practices Inventory and the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders model.

The LPI was created through the development of a set of statements, which describe each of the various leadership practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). For this study, the second edition of the Student Leadership Practices was used. The response format for each item was cast as a 5-point Likert Scale. A higher value on the LPI represents a more frequent use of a leadership practice. Specifically, responses range from: (a) rarely or seldom; (b) once in a while; (c) sometimes; (d) often, and (e) very frequently or almost always do what is described in the statement (Kouzes & Posner, 2006).

The Student LPI-Self contains thirty statements—six statements for measuring each of the five key practices of exemplary leaders. Approximately eight to ten minutes is needed to complete the Student LPI-Self and it can be hand or computer scored. For this study, participants filled out the paper version of the instrument and the researcher then hand scored the Student LPI-self responses.

Determination to use this instrument was made after reviewing several instruments related to the leadership research (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Ellis, 1990; Institute for Behavioral Research in Creativity, 1990; Karnes & Chauvin, 2000a; Karnes & Chauvin, 2000b; Khatena & Morse, 1994; Meisgeier & Murphy, 1987; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Roets, 1986; Sisk & Roselli, 1987). Consideration was given to validity, reliability, reading level, time required for administration, previous uses of the instrument, and the appropriateness of the test variables to the material taught in the curriculum. The content framework for the Leadership Practices Inventory aligns with the definition for leadership and theoretical frameworks guiding the study.
Psychometric Properties

The following information includes the latest information about the psychometric properties of the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI) and an overview of the research behind the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership*. A five-point response scale is used to provide the basic structure of the instrument. Specifically, the instrument is designed to assess the five scales of leadership practices (each measured by responses to six statements on a five-point Likert scale) in relation to how frequently a participant engages in a specific practice.

**Means and standard deviations.** Means and standard deviations for the LPI scale for leaders (self) are presented in Table 2. Based on the mean scores, Enabling is the leadership practice most frequently reported as being used (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Second, individuals reported Modeling; then the average scores for Challenging and Encouraging followed. The leadership practice, Inspiring, is perceived as least frequently used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>22.74</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>20.62</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>24.81</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>22.26</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heat</td>
<td>21.90</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Internal reliability.* Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument contains measurement errors that cause scores to differ for reasons unrelated to the individual respondent. The fewer errors contained, the more reliable the instrument, and instrument reliabilities above .60 are considered good (Aiken, 1997). The reliability for the LPI
consistently meets or exceeds this criterion. See Table 3. Reliability coefficients for the LPI-Self range between .71 and .85.

Table 3. Reliability coefficients for the five LPI scales as reported by the LPI developers (N=6,651)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI scales</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heat</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Validation of the LPI

Validity addresses the question of whether or not an instrument truly measures what it reports to measure and, accordingly, whether its scores have meaning or utility for a respondent (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). To determine the validity of the LPI empirical and objective measures were used. Specifically, factor analysis was used to determine the extent to which the instrument items measure common or different content areas. The results from various analyses revealed that the LPI contains five content areas with correlating items in each section of the instrument. For example, responses to the thirty leadership practice items were subjected to a principle factoring method with iteration and varimax rotation (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Kouzes & Posner (2003) extracted five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and accounting for 60.5 percent of the variance. Consistent with the five subscales of the LPI, five factors were obtained. Although few item factor loadings shared common variance across more than one factor, factor-analyzing the data from different subsamples tested the stability of the five-factor solution. In each case, Kouzes & Posner (2003) reported the factor structure as being similar to the entire sample.
Further Validation of the LPI

Several meta-reviews of leadership development instruments have been conducted. The LPI is consistently rated among the best, regardless of the criteria. For example, in one assessment of 18 different leadership instruments, the LPI was the only instrument to receive the top score in psychometric soundness and ease of use (Huber, et al., 2000). Leong (1995) found that the factor analyses and multiple regressions provided strong support for both the structural and concurrent validity of the LPI.

The Leadership Practices Inventory has sound psychometric properties including reliability for the five leadership practices, which have proven to be consistent over time. The underlying factor structure has been sustained within a variety of studies and research settings. Kouzes & Posner (2003) summarize that the five practices of the exemplary leadership framework and the Leadership Practices Inventory contribute to an understanding of the leadership process and in the development of leadership capabilities.

 Procedures

To accomplish the objectives of the study, eleven major procedures were implemented. Procedures included were: selection of instrument to be used; gaining permission to use the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self from authors Kouzes & Posner (2006) (see Appendix D); permission to conduct study from the Iowa State University Institutional Review Board (IRB), participating schools and teachers, and parent/guardians of students; development of curriculum; identification of experimental and control groups; administration of the pretests; teaching of the curriculum; implementation of the public forum on childhood obesity; administration of posttests; and analysis and interpretation of data.
Procedures for the study and instruments used were reviewed by the Iowa State University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) to comply with federal law and university policy. In order to complete the ISU review form, the researcher made initial contact and confirmed collaboration with five ninth grade Teen Living teachers in Northern Idaho during April and early May 2006. Each school was required to submit a letter of approval for the study from the district superintendent and building principal. No contact was made with students until IRB approval was received on September 11, 2006. The IRB committee concluded that there were no risks to participants and that their rights and welfare were adequately protected by the procedures to be used to assure confidentiality of the data (see Appendix E). Following approval, participating FCS teachers received the necessary documents needed prior to the implementation of the research study. Each student and the student’s parent/guardian completed an informed consent or informed assent form (see Appendix F). Teachers were also required to fill out an informed consent form documenting their understanding of the voluntary nature of the study, the purpose of the study, and the procedures involved (See Appendix G).

Once permission forms were received, students from both the experimental and control groups took the Student LPI-Self at the beginning of the nutrition and wellness curriculum (see Appendix C). This was administered in all classrooms by the researcher.

**Overview of Leadership Integrated Curriculum**

Upon completion of administering the Student LPI-Self, the researcher then implemented the leadership integrated curriculum unit during a two-week time frame in the classrooms of the experimental groups. The curriculum unit was composed of ten experiential learning activities that took one-to-two class periods each (Appendix B). Using the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) and the *Ten
Commitments of Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) the activities were created and made available on the following website (http://www.agls.uidaho.edu/fcsed) and in hard copy.

Lesson Objectives

To construct the unit, lessons were created with the following objectives in mind, as a result of the leadership integrated lessons, students will be better able to: (a) understand the specific practices of exemplary leadership relating to a current social issue of childhood obesity; (b) identify personal strengths as leaders in life situations; (c) identify areas for improving their leadership practices; (d) determine actions for becoming better leaders by increasing the frequency and comfort (skill) with which they engage in various leadership practices in various settings relating to life roles (family, workplace, community member, etc.); (e) plan how to share their results and learning from an integrated leadership opportunity in a family and consumer sciences classroom with others in family, community, etc.; (f) understand the impact an individual voice can make in regard to public policy and social issues impacting individuals, families, and communities throughout the world (Braun, Hartough, Miles, & Williams, 2005; Kouzes & Posner, 2006).

Lesson Delivery

Full-class participation was emphasized along with teamwork and individual student projects and reflection. The researcher was the facilitator and manager of the classroom environment. Thinking-centered instruction was the focus of the lessons designed to enable and inspire students to plan and take action for the well being of self and others in the home, workplace, community, and world. This was done by incorporating the following teaching strategies into instruction as identified in the reviewed literature (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000): (a) providing opportunity for classroom discussion using thought-demanding questions; (b) promoting peer teaching where students thought through a topic and then
taught it to other students; (c) collaborative learning, students shared responsibility for something and organized themselves and topic; (d) project-based learning, provided students the opportunity to gain knowledge through complex, socially meaningful projects with engagement in “understanding performance” (students thought about what they already knew and then demonstrated and built understanding); (e) critical and creative thinking through analysis, critique, defending, questioning, and exploration of alternative points of view using authentic open-ended problems.

Lesson Time Requirement

Lessons ranged from 15 minutes to one-hour depending on the population of students in each classroom setting. Differences in population included student-learning ability levels, number of students in the class, and class period length. Of the five classes participating, the number of students in each class ranged from 10-25 and class time ranged from 55 minutes to 90 minutes.

Lesson materials

Each lesson included supporting materials and documents for educators to implement the curriculum in the future. Each lesson identified helpful resources and connections to standards in FCS and other disciplines such as language arts, speech, and government.

Leadership Integrated Lesson Plans

Lesson One: Model the Way: What should be done about leadership in our everyday life?

The first lesson presented to students was developed based on the following valued ends: Students will be able to (a) understand the specific practices of exemplary leadership, and (b) identify personal strengths and weaknesses.

Background information. The following quote from the Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2003) was presented to students to inspire their thinking:
Leaders have a philosophy, a set of high standards by which choices are made, a set of values about how others should be treated, and a set of principles that make the individual unique and distinctive (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 13).

It is important that leaders stand up for what they believe and show by their own example how others ought to behave. Leaders build their credibility by matching words and actions. To convince others of something good, leaders focus on the fact that the impossible is possible by taking the first step through setting an example. In order to be successful, a leader will break a larger challenge or problem into smaller manageable pieces avoiding feelings of being overwhelmed. In this lesson, students explored what being a leader meant to them while comparing identified leadership characteristics with personal characteristics.

**Opening.** With the word leadership on the board (using the large star provided), students filled in small stars provided with words they associated with leadership (i.e. characteristics of leaders, qualities, skills, practices, etc.). This activity was used to begin class discussion on what character traits are essential to leadership.

**Student activity.** Once the board was full, and a mini-discussion took place, students formed groups of 3-5 individuals. Then, each group was given a list of qualities sheet (see Appendix B). Using the starter list for inspiration, each group added other characteristics or qualities to the list. Next, students identified one person, preferably someone who was well known to the group, who exhibits each character quality (a community member, famous celebrity, or role model). In groups, students discussed why they thought each person listed exhibits that particular quality. Students then ranked which characteristics from the list they thought were most important in a leader and why. To connect to the individual reflection activity, students identified which attributes they already possess and which ones they needed to develop. Possible strategies for developing each attribute were discussed.
**Ending/closure.** Conversation and activities from the day were discussed and summarized by asking the question “What did you learn about yourself and being a leader?” Before students left the class for the day, they were introduced to the individual reflection assignment. An example of what the final product could look like was presented to students. Using self-reflection, students used words, pictures, or both to answer the following questions and statement: (a) “Who are you?”, (b) “Who do you pretend to be?”, (c) Who do others perceive you to be?”, and (d) Identify personal strengths and weaknesses by creating a CD cover that represents you as an individual. Creativity, originality, and neatness were essential for the individual reflection assignment.

**Lesson Two: Model the Way, What should be done about leadership related to issues impacting our society in relation to nutrition and wellness?**

The second lesson implemented focused on the practice of leadership, *Model the Way*. Developed using the same valued ends as lesson one, students were guided through class discussion, individual reflection and collaborative learning.

**Background information.** To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) *Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership*:

The most important personal quality people look for and admire in a leader is personal credibility. Credibility is the foundation of leadership. If people don’t believe in the messenger, they won’t believe the message. Titles may be granted, but leadership is earned. Student leaders model the way by finding their voice and setting an example. Leaders should stand up for what they believe, which requires one to have beliefs to stand up for in the first place. Leaders must be clear about their guiding principles, find their own voices and clearly give voice to their values. Through engaging others, leaders can model the way first by clarifying personal values and building and affirming shared values that all can embrace. Not only words but also behavior earns leaders respect. Leaders set an example and build commitment through simple daily acts that create progress and build momentum (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, p. 1-2).
Students were reminded that as a final activity for the research study, the class was responsible for hosting a public forum on childhood obesity. In relation to the research conducted, a public forum was referred to as an event that requires individuals to discuss and dialogue about an issue of importance to individuals, families and communities. To prepare students for that experience, they completed the activity designed for lesson two. This activity used music to provide students the opportunity to practice using their voice to model the way for positive change in our society.

**Opening.** Through music, individuals can express and communicate their personal preferences and backgrounds. Also, powerful feelings, emotions and values can be conveyed through music. This experience was designed to provide students with the opportunity to think about an issue that is important to them and to incorporate their own musical preferences to create a song. This song was designed to encourage students to find their voice and to set an example using music.

**Student activity.** Self-expression can take place through music and song. In various situations individuals choose to listen to various songs and artists to be comforted, inspired or encouraged. Students identified musical artists whom they would listen to when experiencing the following emotions: (a) joyfulness; (b) fear; (c) amusement; (d) grief/mourning; (e) anger; (f) nervousness; (g) frustration; (h) disappointment; (i) depression, and (j) enthusiasm. Before students expressed their thoughts and recommendations for action related to childhood obesity, they created a song that expressed their passions and presented who they are as a leader or a unique individual. Some groups also created a song presenting the issue of childhood obesity.

**Ending/closure.** Students who felt comfortable presented their songs to the class at the end of the class period. A few of the classes created a song book emphasizing how
childhood obesity has impacted society, causes of the social issue, emotions related to the issue, etc.

Lessons Three and Four: Inspire a Shared Vision, What should be done about the social issue of childhood obesity within our society?

The valued ends for lessons three and four were for students to be able to: (a) improve their understanding of leadership vision and goal setting for various life roles as an individual community member, and in the workplace; (b) expand their thinking; (c) understand the concept of vision; (d) begin to form their own visions as leaders, and (e) understand how goals relate to vision.

Background information. To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership:

When students describe their personal-best projects, they told of times during which they imagined an exciting, highly attractive future for themselves or society. Leaders are driven by their clear image of possibility and what they can become or accomplish. Student leaders inspire a shared vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in a common vision. Leaders passionately believe they can make a difference. They have a desire to make something better than it is today; change the way things are, and create something that no one else has ever produced. Yet visions seen only by leaders are insufficient to create an organized movement or significant change in a product, let alone society. Leaders cannot command commitment; they can only inspire it. What may begin as “my” vision emerges as “our” vision. To enlist others in a vision, leaders must get to know others and practice dialoging with them. Leaders create a unity of purpose by showing others how the activity is for the common good. Leaders breathe life into vision through vivid language and expressive style. Their own enthusiasm and excitement are contagious and spread from the leader to others. Their belief in and enthusiasm for the vision is the sparks that ignite the flame of inspiration. Leaders uplift people’s spirits with a perspective about why they should strive to be better than they are today (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, p. 2-3).
After reading the above excerpt, students were asked the following question, “Are you ready to create a mission that will inspire others to work with you in addressing the issue of childhood obesity?”

Lesson preparation. The researcher created a squares diagram, large enough for the total group to see. The diagram could also be created on a transparency, display board or newsprint. Before and after students saw the diagram, a piece of paper concealed it. It was important to the quality of the activity that all shapes in the diagram be actual squares. Next, a copy of the school or district mission, FCS Mission developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (see Appendix B), and the Family, Career, Community Leaders of America (FCCLA) mission (see Appendix B) were posted for students to see as they came into the classroom.

Lesson activity: Squarely sighted. After students arrived and were seated, the researcher explained that the session’s first activity was a vision test. The squares diagram was then revealed allowing students 60 seconds to silently count how many squares they saw on the diagram. After 60 seconds, the diagram was covered and students were asked to tell how many squares they counted. The student who spotted the highest number of squares used the diagram to explain his/her count. There were at least 26 squares in the diagram (FCCLA, 1999).

Then, students were asked to raise their hand if they did not count the biggest, outer square. The researcher then explained that it was not unusual for individuals to miss “the big picture”. Sometimes we get so busy counting the little things in life that we miss how they fit together into a whole. Leaders see the big picture. They have a vision that inspires them to set and reach goals (FCCLA, 1999).
Lesson activity: Defining vision. Students were asked what the word “vision” meant to them. Most organizations, schools, etc. have vision statements or mission statements. Before developing their own mission, students reviewed the school’s vision statement, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences’ vision (see Appendix B), and the FCCLA vision statement. The following points were made to guide students’ understanding:

1. A vision is an ultimate goal or ideal situation you want to bring about. A vision statement clearly describes your direction.

2. Successful leaders develop a clear picture of what they want. “Leaders want to do something significant, accomplish something no one else has yet achieved and personally believe in something and be inspired before they can effectively inspire others” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 112).

3. Speaker and trainer Patty Hendrickson says, “Leaders have two characteristics. First, they are going somewhere. Second, they are able to persuade other people to go with them”. The vision where we are going is an important first step in leadership. It’s how leaders move others forward (FCCLA, 1999, p. 25).

4. Leadership consultant Gary Goldman says, “You will never be greater than the vision that guides you.” What does that tell us about the importance of creating an inspired vision? (FCCLA, 1999, p. 25).

Lesson activity: On a mission. For this activity, students were divided into six work groups. Each work group was given one of the sheets with copies of various mission statements. After reading each mission statement, the individual groups wrote a mission statement that relates to the concept of childhood obesity and points youth toward a successful future. Before developing the mission statement, groups were instructed to discuss what each mission provided means. Then, each group wrote a mission statement to
represent the group. Depending on the class, groups developed a creative way to share their mission statement with the total group (8-10 minutes was provided for group work). After all mission statements were shared, the provided statements (school or district’s mission; FCS mission; FCCLA mission) were read for a second time (FCCLA, 1999).

*Lesson activity: Window on the future.* For this activity, students created their own window. In the window, students wrote a personal vision statement in each windowpane. In the labeled areas, students wrote their vision for leadership in school, family, community, and career. The researcher explained that visions should be: (a) positive for self and others; (b) big enough to be motivational; (c) clearly expressed, vivid, and colorful, and (d) simple yet descriptive. Upon completion of this activity, students were given four-five minutes to share their vision statements (FCCLA, 1999).

*Lesson activity: Stepping-stones.* To introduce this activity, the researcher explained that vision is the first step toward dynamic leadership and goals are the next step. Dynamic leaders work toward their vision by setting and reaching goals. Goals will be the stepping-stones to your vision. Students were instructed to imagine a pathway to the vision in their window on the future. As a large group, the researcher led students through an exercise designed to guide them through the brainstorming process and the process of placing stepping-stone goals. A sample vision statement from the previous exercise representing one of the key areas (school, family, community, and career) was used as an example for students to contemplate while completing the next task. With the sample vision statement in mind, students brainstormed what they would need to do to achieve that vision. The steps or conclusions developed were then expressed as goals (FCCLA, 1999).

The researcher emphasized that the strongest goals are specific. For example, a goal might be to take official minutes for every meeting of the community service committee in
the next three months. Each goal was written on a “stepping-stone” cut out provided. Upon completion of transferring the goals to the stepping-stone cut outs, students placed the stones in order of occurrence (FCCLA, 1999).

If time allowed during the class period, students were divided into three work groups to build stepping-stone paths toward visions in the various areas.

**Ending/closure:** The researcher facilitated a final review of the “big picture”, and students and researcher debriefed the main points together. A few of the main points identified by students were: it is important to pay attention to the “big picture” of life; leaders have a vision of what they want to achieve; vision is important in families, careers, and communities; leaders set and reach goals to achieve their vision. Upon conclusion of lessons three and four, students began to interact with the public forum documents created by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences to help in the creation of a mission, vision, etc.

**Lessons Five and Six: Challenge the Process, What should be done about the impact of the social issue childhood obesity in our own community?**

Upon completion of lessons five and six, students used the Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America (FCCLA) five-step planning process to turn ideas into actions in school, families, careers, and communities.

**Background information.** To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) *Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership:*

Leaders venture out. Those who lead others to greatness seek and accept challenge. Every single personal-best leadership case Kouzes & Posner (2006) collected involved some kind of challenge. Not one person said he or she achieved a personal best by keeping things the same. Student leaders challenge the process by searching
for opportunities by experimenting, taking risks, and learning from mistakes (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, p. 3-4).

To frame the research study, the researcher stated that the current research study requires students to do just that...challenge the process associated with childhood obesity. “How can the issue be resolved, the impacts on society diminished?”

Leaders are pioneers; they are willing to step out into the unknown. The work of leaders changes, and the status quo is unacceptable to them. They search for opportunities to innovate, grow, and improve. This is your opportunity. But leaders need not always be the creators and originators. In fact, it’s just as likely that they’re not. Sometimes a dramatic external event thrusts a group of people into a radically new solution. Therefore, leaders must remain open to receiving ideas from anyone and anywhere. The leader’s primary contribution is in recognizing and supporting good ideas and in being willing to challenge the system to get new products, processes, services, and ideas adopted. In taking one step at a time, leaders strengthen commitment to the long-term future. Extraordinary things don’t get done in huge leaps forward (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, p. 3-4).

Lesson preparation. In order to implement FCCLA into the secondary family and consumer sciences classroom, students used the FCCLA planning process to prepare for the public forum on childhood obesity. Using the planning process handout included (see Appendix B), students began to outline how they, as a class, would challenge the process addressing a social issue impacting individuals, families, and communities throughout our nation.

Lesson activity introduction. To introduce the social issue of childhood obesity, the researcher presented a PowerPoint included in the curriculum unit focusing on childhood obesity as a national social issue impacting our nation. Students were reminded that when a leader encounters a challenge, they make a plan and bring others on board in order to accomplish identified goals. It is easy to learn and use a plan to practice leadership. Using the FCCLA planning process, students first identified why childhood obesity is a concern. Students were presented with various facts identified by the American Association of Family
and Consumer Sciences in order to foster students’ understanding of why the issue of childhood obesity is a public issue. Also, students were provided with the following rationale developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences suggesting why childhood obesity should be deliberated using the constructs of a public forum:

With the health of individuals and the nation threatened and choices for response unclear, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, identified obesity as a compelling issue that is appropriate for deliberation because obesity: (1) is of broad concern as evidenced by the extent of media coverage, reporting of related research and federal or state attention as evidenced by passage of resolutions or laws, regulations, legislative studies, hearings, or grants in the area; (2) demands choices but there are no clear or right answers. Solutions to obesity lie in diverse fields, education, food industry, business, and government; (3) requires a range of people and groups to act for society to effectively move forward; (4) is an issue wherein new approaches need to be developed in order to be resolved; (5) is an issue where citizens have not had the chance to consider different courses of action and long-term consequences; (6) decisions by office holders and other leaders need to be informed by public judgment as well as expert views (Braun et al., 2005, p. 2)

To clarify the purposes of a public forum, students were reminded that framing the issue of obesity can help combat the problem that researcher findings are not in the hands of citizens and public decision makers in a useable form (Braun et al., 2005). Public deliberation can bring the public voice to decision makers in a helpful and useable way. It can also open dialogue between policy makers and their constituents on an issue that has profound personal and societal implications on a number of outcomes, including health, psychological and economic (Braun et al., 2005)

FCCLA planning process step one: Identify concerns. To begin the use of the FCCLA planning process, students first answered the following questions related to childhood obesity: (a) “What do you need to know about the problem?” (b) “Why do you want to help?” and (c) “What additional concerns do you have as a group?” The goal
guiding each student work group focused on the construction of the best plan of action possible to alleviate the social issue of childhood obesity. After discussing the previous questions, students brainstormed concerns and evaluated the list created. Each group chose one idea or concern to work on for the remainder of the lesson.

*FCCLA planning process step two: Set a goal.* During this step of the FCCLA planning process, students reviewed the guidelines for conducting a public forum (outlined in “Sizing Up America Deliberation Guide” see Appendix A). To better understand the information in the guide, students were divided into work groups to look over the deliberation guide and to become familiar with the process and positions involved. While students were working, the researcher reminded the classes that each class member must be involved in the planning and implementation of the public forum. As a class, students identified volunteers to fulfill the various roles needed for a public forum (see Appendix A).

*FCCLA planning process step three: Make a plan.* As a class, students created a workable plan for how the public forum on childhood obesity would be implemented. Students identified who would do what, when, why, where, and how. For this activity students needed to plan how they were going to divide up the tasks to ensure quality and to overcome any problems they were going to potentially face.

*FCCLA planning process step four: Act.* To develop a better understanding of how a public forum is implemented, students conducted a mock forum on focusing on the issue of childhood obesity. This allowed students the opportunity to practice the roles that they were required to assume and to become more familiar with the processes involved in deliberating a social issue.

*FCCLA planning process step five: Follow-up.* The final step of the FCCLA planning process is to follow-up on any actions taken. For the purposes of this research
study, students used this step of the process to evaluate the experience of the mock forum by answering the following questions: (a) “How did your plan work?” (b) “What problems did you have?” (c) “How did you deal with them?” (d) “If you could do it again, what would you do differently?” and (e) “What did you learn about leadership by following the planning process steps?”

Ending/closure. Lessons five and six were concluded by reviewing the key points associated with the lessons, such as leaders make a difference in school, family, careers, and community by identifying concerns, setting goals, planning, acting, and following up.

Lesson Seven: Enable Others to Act, What should be done about using personal leadership practices to encourage others to participate in discussing the issue of childhood obesity?

Upon completion of lesson seven, students developed shared rules for working together in the group and engaged in a group activity that emphasizes cooperation, trust and leadership.

Background information. To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) *Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership*:

Collaboration improves performance. Collaboration is the critical competency for achieving and sustaining high performance, especially in the Internet age. It won’t be the ability to fiercely compete, but the ability to lovingly cooperate that will determine success. (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 242).

Create a climate of trust. Trust is at the heart of collaboration and teamwork. The central issue in human relationships within and outside a group is trust. Without trust, you cannot get extraordinary things done (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 244).

Facilitate positive interdependence. Riveting or not, *Survivor*, teaches all the wrong lessons about how to survive in the “real world”. In the real world, if people were to behave as these players on television did, they’d all be dead (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 250-251).
Exemplary leaders recognize that such self-serving behavior is the path to team dysfunction and successful leaders and team members put aside their own goals to the service of the greater good (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 251).

Activity one. To create group teamwork rules, students talked about the importance of working together as a group and were asked to think of a time when rules helped a group or team they were part of. The following passage was read to students:

If you make a mess, clean it up. If you borrow something, return it. If you make a promise, keep it. If you start something, finish it. If you hurt someone, apologize. The only person who can take responsibility for your actions is you. No one else can make you on time, turn in your homework, be friendly, and play fair. It’s up to you, and you alone. Whenever you find yourself about to make an excuse or blame someone else for a problem, ask yourself, “Did I really do the right thing? Is there something I should be fixing?” If the answer is yes, step up and fix it. It takes a big person to accept responsibility without being told what to do. You’re ready, and you can do it (Woods & Tiger Woods Foundation, 2000, p. 64-65).

After the passage was read, students were instructed to brainstorm rules they were familiar with and that they thought would help their group work together. Suggestions from the brainstorming session were posted on the whiteboard. Examples included: be on time, respect others’ opinions, respect others’ beliefs, try to listen carefully to all points of view, no put-downs, what is said here stays here, everyone gets a turn before someone gets a second turn to talk, and everyone has a right to pass. As a group students identified and agreed on a set of rules for the group. In small groups, students designed a pennant and motto that reflected the group’s rules. Once the pennants were complete, students added their signatures before they displayed their projects. For the duration of the research, each group’s pennant and motto remained posted.

Activity two. The main focus of this activity was to challenge the large group. As a whole group, students were introduced to the lesson with the following explanation:

1. This activity is about working together as a group.

2. Be open to new ideas without criticism.
3. Everyone should be allowed to express his/her ideas.

4. You will stand shoulder-to-shoulder in a straight line.

5. One rope will be placed in all of your hands.

6. The goal of this activity is to make a triangle as a group.

7. At no time are you to drop the rope or change places.

8. Sound easy? Oh, I forgot to tell you that you would be blindfolded.

Once the previous instructions were given, the activity began. Students learned that by listening to one another and cooperating they could come up with strategies to divide the line and to come together to make a triangle. After the class met the goal, or became too frustrated, the researcher facilitated a discussion reflecting on the activity. While students participated in the activity, the researcher took notes about the actions of the group and comments made by students while they worked together to figure out how to accomplish the goal.

Lesson Eight: Enable Others to Act, What should be done about working as a team to effect change in relation to childhood obesity, a social issue in nutrition and wellness content?

Continuing from lesson seven objectives, upon completion of lesson eight students developed shared rules for working together in the group and engaged in a group activity that emphasizes cooperation, trust and leadership.

Background information. To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership:

Leaders know they can’t do it alone. Leadership is a team effort. Student leaders enable others to act by fostering collaboration and strengthening others. Collaboration is the master skill that enables teams, partnerships, and other alliances to function effectively. So leaders engage all those who must make the project work and, in some way, all those who must live with the results. Cooperation can’t be
restricted to a small group of individuals. Leaders make it possible for everyone to do extraordinary work. At the very heart of cooperation is trust. Leaders help create a trusting climate. They understand that mutual respect is what sustains extraordinary efforts. When leadership is understood as a relationship founded on trust and confidence, people take risks; make changes; and keep programs, organizations, and movements alive. Without trust and confidence, people do not take risks. Without risks, there is no change. Creating a climate in which people are involved and feel important is at the heart of strengthening others. It’s essentially the process of turning others into leaders themselves. Exemplary leaders use their own power in service of others; they enable others to act, not by hoarding the power they have, but by giving it away (Kouzes & Posner, 2006, p. 4-5).

*Lesson activity.* For lesson eight, students participated in a foods and nutrition laboratory opportunity. By creating and infusing a laboratory foods experience into the series of lessons, students had the opportunity to practice teamwork skills and abilities before the implementation of the public forum. Depending on the classroom, various foods labs were organized and implemented by the researcher with assistance of the classroom teacher.

*Lesson Nine: Encourage the Heart, What should be done about recognizing the contributions of others?*

Upon completion of lesson nine, students developed a better understanding of the various leadership practices of chefs from across the nation. This exploration provided students the opportunity to recognize the contributions of others, and celebrate the values and victories of leaders in relation to addressing various social issues impacting individuals, families, and communities.

*Background information.* To introduce this lesson, students were presented with the following information from Kouzes & Posner’s (2006) *Five Practices of Exemplary Student Leadership:*

Genuine acts of caring uplift the spirits and draw people forward. Student leaders encourage the heart by recognizing contributions and celebrating values and victories. Exemplary leaders set high standards and have high expectations of their organizations. Leaders also expect the best of people and create self-fulfilling prophecies about how ordinary people can produce extraordinary results. By paying
attention, offering encouragement, personalizing appreciation, and maintaining a positive outlook, student leaders stimulate, rekindle, and focus people’s energies. Part of the leader’s job is to show appreciation for people’s contributions and to create a climate of celebration. Encouragement can come from dramatic gestures or simple actions. Caring is at the heart of leadership.

*Lesson introduction.* Making connections to the culinary world provides students with real world examples of individuals making a difference in the area of foods and nutrition. Many chefs across the nation and the world have used their fame and finances to contribute to various social issues impacting our society. Through taking a virtual tour, students explored some of the different leadership practices various chefs have participated in. For a list of the websites used see Appendix B.

*Activity one.* On the board, the researcher listed definitions of hero, mentor, and role model. As a large group, students suggested people that fit into each category. A few examples were provided to start students’ thinking. Once the board was full of examples of heroes, mentors and role models, the researcher asked students what the identified individuals have in common and if they all show characteristics of a leader.

*Activity two.* As an individual, students were asked to list all of the individuals they could characterize as heroes, mentors, and role models. Differing from lesson one, students focused on the differences among heroes, mentors, and role models. Heroes, mentors, and role models can be leaders, but are not classified as leaders in all contexts. For example, an individual who is considered to be a hero is a person noted for special achievement in a particular field. This individual can be successful, but may or may not be considered a leader. Similarly, a mentor is an individual, who is considered to be a wise and trusted counselor, but may or may not display leadership-related characteristics. Each student then chose one person for each category from the list and wrote a short narrative explaining how that individual is a hero, mentor, or role model.
Activity three. Once students identified a hero, mentor, and role model they created an award certificate, wrote a letter, or chose another method for honoring each individual identified. If the individual was a local person, students were encouraged to present the award, letter, or other method of recognition to the person identified.

Ending/closure. To document what was learned during this lesson, students completed a journal entry focusing on a personal story about a time when they were (or could be) a hero, mentor, or role model.

Lesson Ten: Putting it all Together: What should be done about childhood obesity, a social issue related to nutrition and wellness content, both locally and globally?

Upon completion of lesson ten, students reflected and prepared to make a difference in their community. This lesson was designed to review the five practices of leadership and prepare for the “Sizing Up America” public forum by planning the who, what, when, where, and how. Students volunteered for the various tasks required for a public forum. A final objective of lesson ten was for students to conduct the public forum.

Background information. To introduce this lesson, students were reminded of the following information from the “Sizing Up America Public Policy Deliberation Guide” (Braun et al, 2005, p. 1).

Public deliberation is a means for citizens to make tough choices about the basic purpose and direction for their communities and country and a way of reasoning and talking together. It is neither a partisan argument where opposing sides try to win, nor a casual conversation conducted with polite civility (Braun et al., 2005, p. 1)

Deliberative forums are a safe non-partisan venue for citizens to struggle with challenging issues facing their communities and nation. These forums are based on the idea that in a democracy citizens have a responsibility to get together to talk through their common concerns, to weigh possible alternative actions to address these problems and eventually send signals to officeholders and others about the desired direction for public action. This is how a public puts its social capital to work (Braun et al., 2005, p. 1).
Deliberative action occurs when participants gain a sense of what steps may be taken on an issue as a result of the forum. Many “products” or actions can result from forums; some can be readily observed and many cannot (Braun et al., 2005, p. 1).

About 655 members of the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS) responded to a survey to determine if they believe that obesity is a problem, to gather insights regarding the cause of the problem and to gather ideas regarding what should be done to address this problem. Survey respondents overwhelmingly expressed concern for the obesity epidemic facing our country. They offered a variety of suggested solutions for the problem that have implications for public policies that might be implemented to address this complex and challenging social problem (Braun et al., 2005, p. 1).

Students were reminded that the public forum they hosted was a chance for them to contribute to the proposed solutions related to the issue of childhood obesity. The “Sizing Up America Public Policy and Deliberation guide was designed to be used to conduct deliberative forums across the United States. These forums were designed to discover a common ground on the issue of obesity.

Before legitimate public action can be taken, the public voice must be heard. Public voice includes the judgments people make about the purpose and directions of their communities, states, and the nation. Public voice is obtained by carefully considering what people think about a given issue and further, what they want to do to address it with any local, state, or national action or policy. Moving citizens to common ground often requires a positive catalyst. You can be that catalyst (Braun et al., 2005, p. 1).

The culminating activity for the study was the organization and implementation of a public forum deliberating the issue of childhood obesity in the community of the school. Student participants in the experimental groups were responsible for the public forum under guidance of the researcher. For more information about implementing a public forum based on the AAFCS “Sizing Up America” framework, see Appendix A.

Public forum. Ninth grade students at the five participating research sites conducted five public forums across Idaho. Each site prepared for the public forum by completing the following tasks: (a) establish forum dates; (b) create a task list identifying which student will complete what task; (c) identify snack and beverages to be served at the forum; (d) ensure
that each class member has read the deliberation guide; (e) prepare the meeting space (meeting spaces included the Family and Consumer Sciences classroom, cafeteria, or multi-purpose room); (f) gather materials needed (posters of the three approaches or PowerPoint, flip charts or butcher paper, pens or pencils, and masking tape); (g) prepare name tags for each participant (one site created name tags in the shape of apples, others used pre-made nametags, and (h) market the forum (students created posters to post around the school, and contacted the local newspaper to invite community members).

For the day of the forum, each site identified student greeters to welcome guests participating in the forum. Other student responsibilities included room and equipment set-up, and distribution and collection of feedback forms from participants. Each class implementing a forum divided the class up into task groups. The groups included a welcome and introduction group, a forum deliberation group, a reflection and conclusion to forum group, and a data-recording group.

The forums conducted by the students had similarities and differences in regard to preparation, implementation, and results. Similarities included assistance from the researcher in planning and preparation of the forum. All forums included involvement of community members, family of students, faculty and staff at site, administrators (such as superintendents and principals), and students from other classes (such as the speech class). All forums took about an hour for implementation. Each forum integrated the three approaches to address the obesity issue identified by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS), and the forums were all student-led in regard to participation and discussion. On the other hand, each forum differed on specific implementation strategies such as: the use of PowerPoint to introduce and guide discussion during the forum; number of participants (ranged from 20 to 40 participants); and what was learned or concluded at each forum. One
site incorporated a cooking demonstration presenting a healthy snack option for families. Discussion of what was learned and concluded as a result of the public forums is presented in chapter five.

During the class period after the integrated leadership opportunity was conducted, the Student LPI-Self was administered by the researcher as a post-test to both the experimental and control groups.

Summary of Research Procedures

The research process began with the collection of pre-test data through the paper-based Student LPI-Self. Participants in the experimental classes then completed a two-week unit on leadership integrated into nutrition and wellness curriculum, which culminated with the implementation of a public forum emphasizing the social issue of childhood obesity. Students in the control classes were exposed to the traditional nutrition and wellness curriculum unit. At the end of the two weeks, participants in both the experimental group and control group completed the Student LPI-Self as a posttest.

Data Collection

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI) developed by Kouzes & Posner (2006) was used to assess students’ self-reported change in leadership practices as a result of participating in the curriculum and leadership opportunity (see Appendix C). As a pretest and posttest measure, the Student LPI-Self was used and administered to both groups. The posttest instrument for both the experimental and control group also contained open-ended questions (Part II) to obtain information on four attribute variables: gender, number of work experiences, number of organization memberships, and number of leadership positions held. The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) was
administered to both groups during the first class period of the nutrition and wellness curriculum and was repeated during the last contact.

Data Analysis

Responses of students on the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self were coded and entered into a computer database by the researcher. Respondents were grouped together into two groups—experimental and control and analyzed as aggregates not by school or class. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS Release 15.0 (SPSS, Inc., 2006). At the beginning of each section of chapter 4, strategies for data analysis and justification for their use will be explained. For all statistical analyses, a p-value of .05 or less was deemed to be sufficient to accept as statistically significant.

Four different strategies were used to analyze the data collected. First, student attributes were analyzed as reported in Part II of the posttest instrument. The experimental and control groups were selected because of enrollment in the Teen Living course. Specifically, background information focusing on the students in the experimental and standard groups and whether or not they differed significantly on the attributes of gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held. To determine if difference between the two groups existed, t-tests were used. For each t-test, data were analyzed comparing both experimental and control groups and male and female participants. A p-value of .05 or less was deemed sufficient to accept as statistically significant. By analyzing the data using this method, statistical differences can be identified based on the attributes of participants to identify if the experimental and control groups vary related to the identified variables.

Second, the Student-Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) reliability and scores were analyzed, investigating how the reliability coefficients, means, and standard
deviations of the Student LPI-Self five scale scores and total test scores for the experimental and control groups compare with those presented by the LPI developers. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was used to estimate the internal consistency of the Student LPI-Self. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency is a method of estimating instrument reliability when a response format is arranged as a midpoint continuum (rarely or seldom, once in a while, sometimes, very often, frequently).

Third, the Student LPI-Self scores and attribute variables were analyzed focusing on the strength of the relationship between student attribute variables and the total LPI pretest scores in the experimental and control groups combined. Pearson correlation coefficients were used to compare the dependent variable, pretest total LPI scores along with four independent variables, gender, number of previous work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held.

Fourth, the impact of the curriculum and integrated public forum focusing on a social issue on the Student LPI-Self posttest scores was analyzed, “Did the students in the experimental leadership curriculum score significantly higher than students in the control group on the posttest LPI scale and total scores when controlling for pretest scores?” Using the pretest LPI total and scale scores as covariates an analysis of covariance was conducted. This procedure allowed for the control for variables that are likely to affect variation in the dependent variable. This approach was used to assess the impact of the experimental and control group leadership opportunity integrated curricula on the dependent variable, posttest LPI total score and the five scale scores, controlling for pretest LPI total and scale scores.

Summary

To accomplish the purpose of this study, to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing
childhood obesity on the leadership practices of junior high school students a quasi-
experimental design was used. Upon completion of this investigation, results of the study
were made available to participating school districts, the Idaho Division of Professional-

To study the impact of leadership integrated opportunities on the leadership practices
of adolescents, five groups of ninth grade Teen Living students in four different schools in
Northern Idaho were identified. To be selected for the study, the school was required to
have two sections of Teen Living offered to ninth grade students. One section was used for
the experimental group and the other for the control group. The experimental group received
the leadership-integrated curriculum as the research treatment, while the control group
participated in the general nutrition and wellness curriculum without the integrated
leadership opportunities.

In the context of the study, leadership development was measured in terms of scores
on the five leadership practices selected as the content framework for the curriculum:
*Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and
Encourage the Heart* (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The instrument used to assess leadership
development within the identified context was the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-
Self. Students participating in the study completed the Student LPI-Self as a pretest and
posttest assessment.

Prior to conducting the research study, procedures and instruments used were
reviewed by the Iowa State University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research
to comply with federal law and university policy. The committee concluded that there were
no risks to participants and that their rights and welfare were adequately protected by the
procedures to be used to assure confidentiality of the data. To meet the objectives of the research study, ten procedures were followed.

To collect data, the Student LPI-Self was used as a pretest and posttest measure and was administered to both groups. The posttest instrument for both the experimental and control groups also contained open-ended questions to obtain information on four attribute variables: gender, number of work experiences, number of organization memberships, and number of leadership positions held. Once data were collected, data analysis focused on student attributes, the reliability of the Leadership Practices Inventory, and the correlation between the pretest total LPI scores and student attributes, and the impact of the curriculum and integrated public forum on the LPI posttest scores.
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Specific objectives of the project were to:

1. design a leadership development curriculum that could be integrated into existing junior high school family and consumer sciences nutrition and wellness curriculum with emphasis on childhood obesity, and
2. conduct a formative evaluation of the curriculum by studying its impact on the leadership practices of junior high school family and consumer sciences students.

The focus and purpose of the study was to assess the effects of leadership development opportunities integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue.

The following chapter will discuss data analysis procedures and findings for the current study. To assess the impact of the integration of the leadership development opportunity into nutrition and wellness curriculum, responses of students on the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self were coded and entered into a computer database. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS 15.0 (SPSS, Inc., 2006). The strategies for data analysis and their justification in response to the research questions will be described at the beginning of each section. For all statistical analyses, a p-value of .05 or less was deemed to be sufficient to accept as statistically significant.
Data Collection

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI) developed by Kouzes & Posner (2006) was used to assess students’ self-reported change in leadership practices as a result of participating in the curriculum and leadership opportunity. As a pretest and posttest measure, the LPI was used and administered to both groups. The posttest instrument for both the experimental and control group also contained open-ended questions to obtain information on four attribute variables: gender, number of work experiences, number of organization memberships, and number of leadership positions held. Therefore, for the experimental group and control group, the posttest instrument included the Student LPI-Self instrument (Part I) and items to gather information about attributes (Part II) of the participants (Appendix C).

The Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) was administered to both experimental and control groups during the first class period of the nutrition and wellness curriculum and was repeated during the last contact.

Research Question

The following is the research question addressed by the study:

1. What impact does the integration of leadership development opportunities, within a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity, have on the leadership development of junior high school students?

Hypothesis

1. Participation in a class using an experiential instructional model of teaching nutrition with an emphasis of childhood obesity will increase the development of leadership practices in junior high school students.
Data Analysis

**Student Attributes**

Questions on student attributes were included in Part II of the posttest instrument (see Appendix C). The experimental and control groups were selected because of their enrollment in a secondary family and consumer sciences course, Teen Living, at junior-senior high schools in Northern Idaho. To gather and analyze background information in relation to the attributes of students participating in the research an investigation of whether or not students in the experimental and control groups differed significantly on the attribute variables of gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held. To determine if differences existed between the two groups in these attributes the identified differences were statistically standardized through the use of chi-square test for gender (a categorical variable on a nominal level of measurement) and t-test for number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held. The t-test was used because these variables are continuous and on an interval or ratio level of measurement.

Data in Table 4 present a comparison of gender between the experimental and control groups. Since the chi-square statistic, $x^2$ (1.307) did not exceed the critical value for 0.05 probability level (3.841), it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in relation to gender. Therefore, there was no need to statistically control for the effects of these differences when examining the impact of the integration of a leadership opportunity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school FCS students.
Table 4. Data and test of significance for number of students by gender in experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 1.307 \]

Data in Table 5 present a comparison of the number of work experiences between the experimental and control groups. As indicated by the p-value of .375, the means of work experiences of the students in the experimental and control groups were not significantly different. This finding suggested that there was no need to control for the number of work experiences when examining the impact of the experimental leadership curriculum on the LPI as compared to the control group.

Table 5. Data and test of significance for mean number of work experiences of students in experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number of Cases</th>
<th>Mean # of Work Experiences</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p (2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td>.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means of memberships in student organizations either in school or after school for the 97 students in the experimental group and the 96 students in the control group are shown in Table 6. These memberships included various community organizations such as church groups, Boy Scouts of America, 4-H, etc., and state and nationally recognized school organizations, such as Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America (FCCLA),
Business Professionals of America (BPA), etc. As shown in Table 6 by a p-value of .082, differences between the two means were not significant, so there was no need to statistically control for the effects of these differences in the further analysis of data.

Table 6. Data and test of significance for mean number of memberships in student organizations of students in experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number of Cases</th>
<th>Mean # of Memberships in Student Organizations</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p (2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>1.746</td>
<td>.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>-1.301</td>
<td>.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data presented in Table 7 for means of leadership positions in student organizations indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group. Therefore, there was no need to statistically control for these differences when examining the impact of experimental leadership curriculum.

Table 7. Data and test of significance for mean number of leadership positions held by students in experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number of Cases</th>
<th>Mean # of Leadership Positions Held</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p (2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>-1.301</td>
<td>.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, it was concluded that the two groups were not significantly different in the four attribute variables. Therefore, further data analyses could proceed without controlling for any of these variables.

LPI Reliability and Scores

To provide background information on the Leadership Practices Inventory and its use, the reliability coefficients, means, and standard deviations of the LPI five scale scores and
total test scores for the experimental and control groups were compared with those presented by the LPI developers. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was used to estimate the internal consistency of the Student LPI-Self. Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency is a method of estimating instrument reliability when the response format is arranged as a midpoint continuum, (i.e., rarely or seldom, once in a while, sometimes, very often, frequently). According to Santos (1999), reliability is an indicator of the extent of the confidence that can be placed in research data resulting from using the instrument in question. Gronlund & Linn (2000) suggested that a reliability coefficient above .60 is sufficient for research situations that can be later confirmed or reversed without serious consequences, as was the case in this study.

The reliability coefficients for the five LPI scales as reported by the developers, Kouzes & Posner (1995) are presented in Table 8. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of reliability were based on the administration of the LPI to 6,651 respondents from a wide variety of professional fields and organizations. No reliability for the total instrument was reported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI scales</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heat</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Reliability coefficients for the five LPI scales as reported by the LPI developers (N=6,651)

The LPI scale reliability coefficients range from .71 to .85. Using Gronlund & Linn’s criteria, Table 8 indicates that the items contained in the LPI are stable measures of leadership.
practices. The reliability of the LPI served as one reason for its selection for use in this study.

Reliability coefficients are presented in Table 9 for each of the five LPI scales and for the total test, based on student responses in this study to Part I of the pretest and the posttest. The reliability of the instrument was seen as acceptable to the purposes of this study.

Table 9. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients of pretest and posttest LPI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI scales</th>
<th>Pretest N=203</th>
<th>Posttest N=193</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heat</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 10 provide the means and standard deviations for each of the LPI scale scores as reported by the developers based on 6,651 respondents representing various professional fields and organizations. The gender-ratio of this sample was not reported. Also, the developers did not report the mean and standard deviation for the total instrument.

As expressed by the highest mean among the five scales on the LPI, Enable Others to Act, was reported as the most frequently used leadership practice. Also, this scale had the lowest standard deviation, which suggests that there is the least amount of variation in individuals’ responses to the items for this scale compared to the responses to the items in the other four scales. The scale with the highest standard deviation was Encourage the Heart, which suggests that the greatest variability in response was for this scale. It was followed closely by Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, and Model the Way.
Table 10. Means and standard deviations for the five LPI scales reported by the LPI developers (N=6,651)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>22.74</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>20.62</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>24.81</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>22.26</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heat</td>
<td>21.90</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 11 present the pretest and posttest mean scores, and standard deviations for the total number of students in the experimental group. At the time of the pretest, students in the experimental group had reported using the leadership practice, *Enable Others to Act*, most frequently, followed by *Encourage the Heart, Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision*, and *Challenge the Process*.

The pretest mean LPI scores were lower than those reported by Kouzes & Posner (2003) for all scales (see Table 10). A higher mean occurred for the scale *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Encourage the Heart* for the posttest of the experimental group. All standard deviations of the pretest and posttest mean scores are higher (Table 11) than those found by the authors for all scales. This suggests that the variability of individuals’ responses to the items for each scale was greater among the five scales in this study than those reported by Kouzes & Posner (1995).
Table 11. Pretest and posttest mean scores, and standard deviations for students in the experimental group (N=97)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI total and Scales</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>4.370</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>4.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>18.69</td>
<td>5.527</td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>5.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>18.34</td>
<td>4.578</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>4.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>21.54</td>
<td>3.964</td>
<td>22.78</td>
<td>3.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td>20.30</td>
<td>4.979</td>
<td>22.31</td>
<td>4.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98.07</td>
<td>23.418</td>
<td>108.18</td>
<td>18.927</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 12 present the pretest and posttest mean scores and standard deviations for students in the control group. The leadership practice reported by the pretest as most frequently used was *Enable Others to Act*. This was followed by *Encourage the Heart*, *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, and *Challenge the Process*. The posttest mean scores on the five scales showed that the order of leadership practices was the same as that reportedly used at the time of the pretest.

The pretest and posttest standard deviations of the mean scores were greater than those reported by Kouzes and Posner (Table 10), except for the pretest standard deviations for *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Encourage the Heart*. Lower standard deviations indicate less variability in the responses of the participants in the study. All mean LPI scale scores for the pretest and posttest were lower for the control group than those found by the LPI developers.
Table 12. Pretest and posttest mean scores, and standard deviations for students in the control group (N=96)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPI total and Scales</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>3.375</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>4.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>17.55</td>
<td>3.814</td>
<td>17.78</td>
<td>3.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>3.875</td>
<td>17.56</td>
<td>4.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>19.19</td>
<td>4.339</td>
<td>19.33</td>
<td>4.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>3.782</td>
<td>19.08</td>
<td>4.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91.55</td>
<td>19.185</td>
<td>91.60</td>
<td>20.743</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, based on the above findings, it may be concluded that the reliability based on the data from the experimental and control groups was similar to that found by the developers of the instrument. Because of this evidence, the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self could be used in this study with confidence. Students in this study were typical in their perception of their own leadership practices when compared to the larger group studied by the test developers.

**LPI Scores and Attribute Variables**

For the current study, a comparison of the Leadership Practices Inventory Scores and student attribute variables was guided by analyzing the strength of the relationship between the student attribute variables (gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held) and the total LPI pretest scores for students in the experimental and control groups combined. This question was posed to evaluate the strength of the relationship of various student attributes to more accurately identify the implications of leadership development opportunities in secondary family and consumer sciences courses. Data in Table 13 illustrate the strength of this relationship as indicated by tests of significance for Pearson correlation coefficients. The
decision to use this test was based on the variables being interval or ratio scales of measurement.

Table 13. Relationship between four student attribute variables and LPI total pretest scores of the students in the experimental and control groups combined

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student attribute variables</th>
<th>Pearson’s correlation coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Work Experiences</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Memberships in Student Organizations</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Leadership Positions Held</td>
<td>.095</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings suggest a positive but not significant relationship between each of the variables and the LPI total pretest score. Even though the correlation coefficient suggests a minimal positive relationship, the statistic is closer to no relationship than a strong positive relationship. Therefore, none of the attribute variables studied was significantly related to LPI total pretest scores of the students in the study. This finding leads to the conclusion that the attribute variables studied were not significant predictors of LPI total pretest score.

Curriculum Impact on LPI Posttest Scores

When considering the research question guiding the current research study, “Did the students in the experimental group score significantly higher on the LPI after participating in the experimental leadership curriculum?” paired t-tests were conducted. The paired t-test was used because for this research the same subject participating in the experimental curriculum was tested before and after the integration of the leadership opportunity. Calculation was done using the posttest LPI total and scale scores paired with the pretest LPI total and scale scores. When conducting a paired t-test, a comparison of two paired groups is done so inferences about the size of the average treatment effect can be made. For example,
in pre-test/post-test studies, each subject is paired (matched) with himself or herself, so that the difference between the pre-test and post-test responses can be attributed to the change caused by taking the test, and not to differences among the individuals taking the test. Tables 14 and 15 present the statistical calculations for the paired samples conducted to respond to the fourth research question. An initial conclusion can be made from looking at Table 14, that there was an increase in students’ perceived leadership practices as reported on the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) based on the comparison of mean LPI total and scale posttest and pretest scores. Table 14 suggests that those students participating in the control group had a slight decrease in perceived leadership practices based on the comparison of mean LPI total and scale posttest and pretest scores, but not significant.

Table 14. Paired sample statistics for the experimental group LPI total and scale posttest scores and pretest total and scale scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model the Way</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.213</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.370</td>
<td>.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspire a Shared Vision</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.254</td>
<td>.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>18.69</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.527</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenge the Process</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.981</td>
<td>.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>18.34</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.578</td>
<td>.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enable Others to Act</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>22.78</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.789</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>21.54</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.964</td>
<td>.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Encourage the Heart</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>22.31</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.487</td>
<td>.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>20.30</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>4.979</td>
<td>.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total LPI Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>108.18</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>18.927</td>
<td>1.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>98.07</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>23.418</td>
<td>2.378</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15. Paired sample statistics for the control group LPI total and scale posttest scores and pretest total and scale scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.114</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.375</td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>17.78</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.913</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>17.55</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.814</td>
<td>.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>17.56</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.121</td>
<td>.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.875</td>
<td>.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>19.33</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.262</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>19.19</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.339</td>
<td>.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>19.08</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.333</td>
<td>.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.782</td>
<td>.386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total LPI Score</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>91.60</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>20.743</td>
<td>2.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>91.55</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>19.185</td>
<td>1.958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis guiding the current research was as follows: participation in a class using an experiential instructional model of teaching nutrition with an emphasis of childhood obesity will increase the perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Based on the findings presented below in Table 16, the current research suggests that the integration of a leadership opportunity into a family and consumer sciences junior high nutrition and wellness curriculum increases the development of leadership practices of ninth grade students. Since the significance levels for the experimental group (.003, .008, .000, .030, .005, .001) are less than the value of alpha (.05), the model under the null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis of real effects is accepted. The mean difference is then said to be statistically significant.

The differences between the LPI total and scale posttest scores and pretest total and scale scores for students in the control group are presented in Table 17. Based on the findings related to the control group, the current research suggests that traditional nutrition and wellness curriculum does not have a statistically significant impact on ninth grade
students’ leadership practices. This is evident by the mean difference reported as greater than the alpha (.05).

Table 16. Differences between the LPI total and scale posttest scores and pretest total and scale scores for students in the experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total LPI Score</td>
<td>10.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>1.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>2.0272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>2.948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>1.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td>2.010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17. Differences between the LPI total and scale posttest scores and pretest total and scale scores for students in the control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total LPI Score</td>
<td>-.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>-.604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though the experimental group received a treatment over a short period of time, the nature of the integrated leadership opportunity challenged students and allowed for
leadership roles to be assumed by all students. Students were provided the opportunity to use their voices in relation to a social issue through deliberating childhood obesity with parents/guardians, teachers, peers, and community members. Calculation of covariance was done using the pretest LPI total and scale scores as covariates. When conducting analysis of covariance, variables that are likely to affect variation in the dependent variable are controlled. With this being true, this approach was used to assess the impact of the experimental curriculum on the dependent variable, posttest LPI total score and the five scale scores, controlling for the pretest LPI total and scale scores. Table 18 provides further information regarding the research question guiding the current study.

Table 18. Differences between the LPI total and scale posttest scores for students in the experimental and control groups controlling for the LPI total pretest scores and scale scores as covariates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Covariate and Main Effect</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model the Way</td>
<td>744.311</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>106.330</td>
<td>6.016</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>301.805</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>301.805</td>
<td>17.076</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3269.762</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>17.674</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspire a Shared Vision</td>
<td>563.213</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>80.459</td>
<td>3.548</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>266.809</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>266.809</td>
<td>11.766</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>4195.264</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>22.677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge the Process</td>
<td>882.169</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>126.024</td>
<td>5.923</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>344.095</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>344.095</td>
<td>16.171</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3936.494</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>21.278</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable Others to Act</td>
<td>615.032</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>87.862</td>
<td>5.536</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>418.685</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>418.685</td>
<td>26.382</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2936.004</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>15.870</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage the Heart</td>
<td>706.536</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100.934</td>
<td>5.233</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>333.552</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333.552</td>
<td>17.292</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3568.584</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>19.290</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .203 (Adjusted R Squared = .173)  
b. R Squared = .185 (Adjusted R Squared = .155)  
c. R Squared = .118 (Adjusted R Squared = .085)  
d. R Squared = .183 (Adjusted R Squared = .152)  
e. R Squared = .173 (Adjusted R Squared = .142)

Findings indicated that the experimental leadership curriculum appeared to account for 12 to 20 percent of the differences in LPI posttest scale scores between the experimental and standard groups. With R Squared values ranging from .118 to .203, the conclusion can be
made that the experimental leadership curriculum accounted for 12 to 20 percent of the differences in leadership practices.

Even though the experimental group received a treatment over a short period of time, the nature of the integrated leadership opportunity challenged students and allowed for leadership roles to be assumed by all students. The opportunity to deliberate a social issue, such as childhood obesity, with parents/guardians, teachers, peers, and community members allowed students to communicate their stance on an important topic impacting our society.

In conclusion, the analysis of covariance based on the responses of all students revealed a significant posttest difference for the total LPI scores and the five scale scores between the experimental and control groups beyond those explained by the covariate pretest scores for the total instrument and each of the five scales respectively.

Summary

As identified in the literature, research has suggested that leadership development starts early (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). The capacity to understand and interact with peers and other leadership-related skills critical for effective leadership development mature during adolescence and early adulthood (Gardner, 1987). Evidence has suggested that these critical skills begin to form before five years of age (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). It is not possible to predict which adolescents will display exceptional leadership performance; therefore, support exists for the opportunity for all adolescents having the potential to lead (Garrod, 1988; van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Opportunities for adolescent leadership exist in the workplace, family life, community and government. Schools, community agencies, religious institutions, youth organizations, and sports organizations have incorporated leadership development in young people as a part of organization missions. Even though opportunities exist, research has suggested that there is a lack of leadership programs
available for all adolescents (Fertman & Long, 1990; Gallaghen, 1987; Gary & Pfeiffer, 1987; Lawson, Donant, & Lawson, 1982; Richardson & Felhusen, 1986; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Stiles, 1986). This research was guided by the need to integrate leadership opportunities into activities and courses that are available for all adolescents.

The study was designed to assess the effects of integrating a leadership development opportunity into a secondary family and consumer sciences course using a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue. A sample of ninth grade family and consumer sciences student scores on the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self were analyzed to see whether there were differences between the experimental and control groups. The experimental group participated in the integrated leadership opportunity, a public forum on childhood obesity, whereas, the control group completed the traditional curriculum in nutrition and wellness offered to ninth grade family and consumer sciences students in Idaho.

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI) developed by Kouzes & Posner (2006) was used to assess students’ self reported change in leadership practices as a result of participating in the curriculum and leadership opportunity. As a pretest and posttest measure, the Student LPI-Self was used and administered by the researcher to both groups. The posttest instrument for both the experimental and control group also contained open-ended questions to obtain information on four attribute variables: gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held.

Data were analyzed related to one research question, along with information pertaining to the attributes of students and the instrument used. First, student attributes were analyzed. To determine if differences existed between the two groups the identified
differences were statistically standardized through the use of the t-test and chi-square test. Based on the findings related to student attributes, it was concluded that there was no need to control for the four independent variables when examining the impact of the experimental leadership curriculum on the Student LPI-Self as compared to the control group.

Based on the findings related to the reliability of the Student LPI-Self, it was concluded that the data from the experimental and control groups were similar to that found by the developers of the instrument. Because of this evidence, the Student LPI-Self was used in this study with confidence. Students in this study were somewhat atypical in their perception of their own leadership practices when compared to the larger group studied by the test developers. Due to the pretest and posttest mean LPI scale scores for both the experimental and control groups resulted at higher or lower levels than those reported by the LPI test developers, the previous conclusion was made.

In relation to investigating the relationship between student attributes and the LPI pretest scores, findings suggested a positive but not significant relationship between each of the variables and the LPI total pretest score. Therefore, none of the attribute variables studied were significantly related to LPI total pretest scores of the students participating in the study. This finding led to the conclusion that the attribute variables studied were not significant predictors of LPI total pretest score.

Findings related to the curriculum impact on LPI posttest scores indicated that the experimental leadership curriculum appeared to account for the differences in LPI posttest scale scores between the experimental and control groups. Based on the findings of the current research it is evident that the integration of a leadership opportunity into a family and consumer sciences junior high nutrition and wellness curriculum increases the development of leadership practices by ninth grade students. Since the significance levels for the
experimental group (.003, .008, .000, .030, .005, .001) are less than the value of alpha (.05), the model under the null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis of real effects is accepted. The mean difference is then said to be statistically significant. Chapter five discusses the results and offers suggestions for future research.
CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUMMARY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of the integration of leadership development opportunities using a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity on the self-perceived leadership practices of junior high school students. Specifically, the objectives of this study were to:

1. design a leadership development curriculum that can be integrated into existing junior high school family and consumer sciences nutrition and wellness curriculum with emphasis on childhood obesity, and

2. conduct a formative evaluation of the curriculum by studying its impact on the leadership practices of junior high school family and consumer sciences students.

The focus and purpose of the study were to assess the effects of a leadership development opportunity integrated within a practical problem curriculum framework emphasizing childhood obesity as a social issue. To achieve the first objective, a research and development approach was used. The impact of leadership curriculum was assessed through a pretest/posttest design with both experimental and control groups as data sources. The experimental group received the integrated leadership curriculum, while the control group received the nutrition curriculum that is traditionally taught in secondary family and consumer sciences courses in Idaho. The goal of this study was to develop and provide a curriculum model and framework that could be used by family and consumer sciences secondary educators throughout the United States. The curriculum model integrated a leadership development opportunity into lessons developed based on a practical problem framework and critical science approach to childhood obesity. Long-range outcomes of this study will hopefully include strengthening family and consumer sciences programs within
junior high schools in the State of Idaho, adolescents who are more confident in their leadership practices, and an overall enhanced public image for family and consumer sciences in Idaho.

Chapter two reviewed previous research conducted related to three categories in order to illustrate the complexities and intersections among the three. The literature review was organized into the following categories: (a) theories related to the developmental processes of early adolescence, (b) theories and definitions of leadership, and (c) theories and definitions of curriculum frameworks commonly used in the field of education in general and family and consumer sciences education in particular. Chapter three described the research methods used in this study and chapter four reported the findings of the conducted research.

This chapter will present a more detailed discussion of the findings of the research; recommendations for policy, research, and practice; and conclusions developed based on the conducted research. For the benefit of the reader, a brief background for the study, statement of the problem, research questions, and a summary of research methods used are also included.

Background for the Study

Leadership development is an important, but often overlooked facet of youth development and education (MacNeil, 2000). The development of adolescent leadership practices contributes greatly to the positive development of adolescents and their communities (Fertman & van Linden, 2003). Leadership skills such as goal-setting, problem-solving and sound decision-making are not just necessary for leaders—these skills are needed for success in today’s world (MacNeil, 2000). Helping adolescents develop leadership competencies prepares them to solve community problems and enhances their civic engagement and participation (O’Brien & Kohlmeier, 2003).
Civic engagement for adolescents is a desirable activity that will strengthen our society and prepare youth to be good citizens in the future (Stoneman, 2002). Adolescents are impacted by issues facing society differently than adults are. Therefore, decisions made guiding society would be better informed if adolescents participated in the decision-making process. For example, civic engagement can be used in schools, foster care, criminal justice systems, youth programs, drug education and prevention programs, children’s health care and public policy decisions, after school programs, and others.

Not only do adolescents need to be included in these decisions, but also attention needs to be given to the development of adolescents as ethical, skilled, highly committed young leaders willing to take on all levels of local and national responsibility for building the best possible society (Stoneman, 2002). This will require a deliberative effort by adults generally, and family and consumer sciences professionals specifically. Stoneman (2002) recommends that good leadership is needed at all levels of society beginning with adolescents.

The field of family and consumer sciences requires leadership at all levels of society in order to purposefully achieve its mission identified by Marjorie Brown (1985), a renowned scholar in FCS:

The mission of our field is to enable families both as individual units and generally as a social institution, to build and maintain systems of action which lead (1) to maturing in self-formation and (2) to enlightened, cooperative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means for accomplishing them (p. 548).

Family and consumer sciences (FCS), as part of the United States educational system, serves the purpose of providing learning experiences that help students explore career areas and prepare for employment and independent living. FCS education programs include real-life situations in classrooms and laboratories, as well as cooperative education and experiential
educational opportunities. Curriculum in family and consumer sciences programs includes materials that focus on the development of basic skills, along with thinking skills, personal qualities, individual goals, and teamwork skills. In addition, workplace competencies and the specific skill competencies required for various occupational areas are addressed, along with core skills that can be generalized to different life and work situations (Jenkins, 1999; Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001).

Adolescent leadership development research provides evidence there is a need for instructional materials to enhance leadership practices in all students, but especially in those students who have not had the opportunity to develop these skills (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002). Leadership training in family and consumer sciences programs can serve the leadership needs of adolescents regardless of their career objective. Adolescents provided with leadership development training have the opportunity to develop interpersonal, technical and technological skills, competence in applying general education to the workplace, teamwork, and effective communication skills, all of which are required for employment. Young leaders also demonstrate higher career aspirations, increased self-esteem, and improved high school completion rates (Bloomberg, Ganey, Alba, Quintero, & Alcantara, 2003).

By supporting and engaging adolescents in leadership integrated opportunities, adults, organizations and communities experience direct benefits, through stronger connections to adolescents in the community (Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Lorens, 2001). Adolescents then have a greater understanding of the problems facing other youth and society, and fresh perspectives for how to address these problems (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; McGillicuddy, 1991; Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Lorens, 2001). Additionally, adolescents help to re-energize adults and counteract negative stereotypes of youth when they
are successfully engaged in leadership within their communities (Fiscus, 2003; Zeldin & Camino, 1999).

A primary concern of family and consumer sciences educators is to provide learning experiences that contribute to the welfare of individuals and families with a central theme focusing on human problems impacting society. In developing adolescent leadership practices, FCS educators can address the previous goal by providing a broad context, which allows young people to learn and develop leadership in the real world with diverse and unfamiliar groups (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; Gardner, 1990). Also, FCS educators specifically and adults in general recognize and respect the knowledge, experience, and skills that young people have now while still challenging them to enhance these skills and try new things (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000). Specifically, FCS educators can incorporate experiential learning projects into curriculum to address societal issues and the development of leadership practices.

Statement of Problem

van Linden & Fertman (2003) found that leadership is not a part of the average adolescent’s life. This can be attributed to the fact that many adolescents are not offered the opportunity to lead. They do not believe in their ability to lead, and their intense emotional and physical changes impact their desire to lead. Even though adolescents may not view themselves as leaders and they are experiencing emotional and physical changes, leadership practices are evident in their everyday life. For example, adolescents could be responsible for baby-sitting a sibling, working a job in a family business, and volunteering, all of which require the use of leadership practices on varying levels. Adolescence is an opportune time to encourage young people to explore, recognize, and celebrate their leadership potential and abilities (van Linden & Fertman, 2003).
Adolescence is a time of growth and development that incorporates both challenge and excitement. Not only are adolescents changing, but also the world has evolved into an increasingly diverse society. In addition, technological advancement is expanding educational and occupational opportunities both locally and globally. Along with the developmental transition and change, adolescents are faced with the decision about their future career goal and aspiration (Erikson, 1968; Havighurst, 1953). As a threshold between various stages of change (elementary to high school, adolescence to adulthood), education at the junior high school level allows for a significant opportunity for students to develop knowledge, skills, attitudes, and awareness which are the foundation for future family and work life (Kerka, 2000).

**Overview of Research Conducted**

A quasi-experimental research design was used to examine the impact of leadership opportunities integrated within nutrition and wellness curriculum based on a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity. Using a quantitative research design, the study was designed to test whether the integration of leadership opportunities increased the leadership practices of adolescents in a Teen Living course. The population for this study was junior high school students enrolled in Teen Living, a secondary family and consumer sciences course offered in Idaho during the Fall 2006 semester. The sample included ten family and consumer sciences classes totaling 203 students. The students who participated in the course with leadership opportunities integrated within nutrition and wellness curriculum emphasizing childhood obesity were considered the experimental group. The control group received the traditional nutrition and wellness curriculum. Based on the enrollment numbers at the time of the study, the control group and the experimental group consisted of 100 students and 103 students, respectively.
The treatment consisted of a two-week curriculum unit integrating the implementation of a public forum within a community, specifically focusing on the implementation of a public forum addressing the social issue of childhood obesity. The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (Braun, Hartough, Miles, & Williams, 2005) created training materials for the public forum entitled “Sizing Up America Public Policy Deliberation Guide” (see Appendix A). The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) was used to measure the self-perceived leadership practices of ninth grade students before and after implementation of the nutrition and wellness curriculum (see Appendix C). Procedures included in this research were: selection of instrument to be used; gaining permission to use the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self from authors Kouzes & Posner (2006) (see Appendix D); permission to conduct study from the Iowa State University Institutional Review Board (IRB), participating schools and teachers, and parent/guardians of students; development of curriculum; identification of experimental and control groups; administration of the pretests; teaching of the curriculum; implementation of the public forums on childhood obesity; administration of posttests; and analysis and interpretation of data. The previous research procedures were implemented to investigate the following research questions.

Research Question

The research question addressed by the study was:

1. What impact does the integration of leadership development opportunities, within a practical problem framework emphasizing childhood obesity, have on the leadership development of junior high school students?
Hypothesis

Participation in a class using an experiential instructional model of teaching nutrition with an emphasis of childhood obesity will increase the development of leadership practices in junior high school students.

Research Methodology

This study is considered a quasi-experimental study comparing junior high school students in Northern Idaho who participated in the nutrition and wellness curriculum with the integration of leadership development opportunities with students who did not participate. The treatment variable consisted of leadership development opportunities integrated into nutrition and wellness curriculum offered to junior high school students in Teen Living courses in Idaho. The independent variables are gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations and number of leadership positions held. Student leadership practices, measured by the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006), serve as the dependent variable collected through a pretest/posttest format.

In this study curriculum content was designed based on the research of Kouzes & Posner (2003) who developed five leadership practices: *Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart*. Using the *Leadership Challenge* framework, lessons were developed which integrated the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences’ *Sizing Up America: Public Deliberation Guide* (Braun, et. al, 2005). By using the two resources as a framework for lesson plan development, students in the experimental group were provided the opportunity to use leadership practices to deliberate their position on an issue directly impacting their generation.
The curriculum was implemented in five secondary family and consumer sciences classrooms in Northern Idaho. Each site participating was required to have two sections of the family and consumer sciences course offered. One section served as the experimental group, receiving the leadership integrated curriculum, and the other a control group participating in the typical FCS nutrition and wellness curriculum. The curriculum unit consisted of ten lessons. Each lesson required one-to-two class periods depending on the length of class time, student participation level, and other unplanned events that occur in a secondary education setting.

Before and after the implementation of the curriculum, students in the experimental and control groups completed the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 2006). This assessment of program impact was conducted with family and consumer sciences students who enrolled in Teen Living, a secondary family and consumer sciences course offered in Idaho. One hundred-three students participated in the experimental group; one hundred students participated in the control group receiving the traditional curriculum. At the time of the posttest, the experimental group consisted of ninety-seven students and the control group ninety-six students. This change occurred due to fluctuation in course enrollments at the beginning of the school year.

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI) developed by Kouzes & Posner (2006) was used as a pretest and posttest measure for both the experimental and control groups to assess students’ self-reported changes in leadership practices. Information was gathered from both groups on four attribute variables: gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held. Thirty-nine percent of the participants were male with 61% being female.
Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS, Release 15 (SPSS, Inc., 2006). First, to determine if differences existed between the experimental and control groups, student attribute variables were analyzed using t-tests to statistically standardize any identified differences. To estimate the internal consistency of each of the five LPI pretest and posttest scales and the total LPI-Self, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of reliability was used. Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of the relationship between the student attribute variables collected in relation to total LPI-Self pretest scores of both groups. Finally, the analysis of covariance was used to determine whether students in the experimental leadership integrated curriculum group scored significantly higher than students in the traditional family and consumer sciences course on the posttest LPI scales and total scores, when controlling for pretest scores.

Summary of Research Findings

Design of the research focused on answering one research question. Prior to the analysis of data relating to the research question, background information relating to student attributes and the Student Leadership Practices Inventory-Self was gathered and analyzed. First, student attributes were explored by examining how the experimental and control groups differed based on the attribute variables of gender, number of work experiences, number of memberships in student organizations, and number of leadership positions held. For the t-tests conducted to analyze this information, the p-values indicated students in the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly on the four attribute variables. From this analysis it was concluded that the two groups were not significantly different based on attribute variables and further data analysis could proceed without controlling for any of these variables.
Second, the reliability coefficients, means and standard deviations of the LPI five scales and total test scores for the experimental and control groups were compared to those presented by the LPI developers. Kouzes & Posner (1995) documented the responses of 6,651 participants representing various professional organizations and fields. From their research, reliability coefficients of .71 to .85 were found. The reliability coefficients for this study ranged from .75-.79 for the pretest and .77-.79 for the five scales on the posttest. For the purposes of this study, the reliability coefficients were deemed acceptable and were similar to the coefficients identified by the LPI developers.

In conclusion, the attribute variables were not significant predictors of the LPI pretest total score generated by analyzing the strength of the relationship between the three student attribute variables and total LPI pretest scores for all students in the experimental and control groups combined. Findings revealed no significant correlation between student attributes and the LPI pretest scores. From this statistical analysis, a conclusion could be made that leadership can be developed in students even if they do not participate in student organizations. If students are afforded the opportunity and motivated to use leadership practices, their potential for successful leadership development can increase.

Findings related to the curriculum impact on LPI posttest scores indicated that the experimental leadership curriculum appeared to account for 12-20 percent of the difference in LPI posttest scale scores between the experimental and control groups. Other occurrences that could have accounted for the majority of the difference could include the personality of the teacher and researcher, the motivation of students in the experimental group, and the relevant nature of the topic presented. Based on the findings of the current research it is evident that the integration of a leadership opportunity into a family and consumer sciences junior high nutrition and wellness curriculum increased the development of leadership
practices by ninth grade students. The hypothesis (participation in a class using an experimental instructional model of teaching nutrition with an emphasis on childhood obesity will increase the development of leadership practices in junior high school students) guiding the research was accepted based on the findings from paired t-tests and the analysis of covariance. Along with the analysis conducted using paired t-tests, analysis of covariance was performed to test the difference between LPI total and scale posttest scores for the experimental and control groups controlling for the LPI total pretest scores and scale scores as covariates. The analysis of covariance based on the responses of all students revealed a significant posttest difference for the total LPI scores and the five scale scores between the experimental and control groups beyond those explained by the covariate pretest scores for the total instrument and each of the five scale scores.

Upon completion of data analysis, significance levels for the experimental group from the paired t-test and analysis of covariance (.003, .008, .000, .030, .005, .001; .000, .001, .000, .000, .000, .000) are less than the value of alpha (.05). The first series of significance levels comes from the paired t-test and provides values for the findings relating to total LPI scores and the five LPI scale scores for the experimental group, respectively. Significance levels in the second series represent the findings from the analysis of covariance representing the five LPI scale scores and LPI Total scores for the experimental group, respectively. The model under the null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis of real effects is accepted. The mean difference is then said to be statistically significant. Discussion related to each area of data analysis is presented in the following section.
Discussion

Student Attributes

Gender. It was found that the ten Teen Living classes participating in the conducted research did not vary significantly based on student attributes. In relation to gender, in the experimental group there were 34 males and 63 females totaling 97 students. The control group consisted on 42 males and 54 females with a total of 96 students. Similarly, Kouzes and Posner (2006) found that when using the Student LPI-Self students’ perceived leadership practices were independent of various demographic variables such as gender. Similarly, Pugh (2000) found that findings in relation to the study of students’ perceived leadership practices using the Student LPI-Self were not based on gender. Several researchers (Torres & Cano, 1995b; McBride, 2000; Corral-Verdugo, 1993) also found no significant differences for the effect of gender on leadership practices using categorical data analysis.

Work experience. In regard to number of work experiences, the differences between the two groups were not significant, but it is important to consider the leadership opportunities work experiences can provide to adolescents. van Linden & Fertman (2003) suggested that jobs can provide many opportunities for adolescents to develop leadership skills by requiring adolescents to be responsible for various work-related tasks. Even though it may be difficult for them to take advantage of such opportunities (transportation to and from, time available to work, child labor laws, etc.), jobs available to adolescents often require minimal skills and little creativity (van Linden & Fertman, 2003). Furthermore, van Linden & Fertman (2003) elaborated that adolescents frequently find jobs they do have boring, make poor decisions, and end up leaving after a short period of time (anywhere from a few days to a few weeks). Family and Consumer Sciences teachers can and do enrich these leadership opportunities by integrating into classroom experiences the knowledge, skills and
responsibilities required to gain employment. Card (2004) stated that leadership, honesty, responsibility, and respect are an integral part of FCS curriculum offered to secondary students. Lessons presented in the FCS classroom simulate real-world settings and activities such as creating a small business (Card, 2004).

Membership in student organizations. As professional-technical education programs in the state of Idaho are considered, much of the leadership development in our students occurs as a result of participation in youth organizations. Because of this finding referred to in the review of literature, it was important to assess whether or not there were differences or a significant correlation between perceived leadership practices of adolescents and the number of memberships in student organizations. The current research concluded two things: (1) that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups based on number of memberships in student organizations, and (2) there was no significant correlation between perceived leadership practices and the number of memberships in student organizations by participants. Further, Wingenbach & Kahler (1997) illustrated that “…students at the secondary level could increase their leadership practices in communications, decision-making, getting along with others, learning management of self, understanding self, and working with groups by participating in a combination of youth leadership organizations in school and/or community activities” (p. 19). The current research was based on the hypothesis that formal curricular instruction of leadership is presumably the missing piece of a strong family and consumer sciences secondary program.

Leadership positions held. As referred to in the literature reviewed for this research, leadership programs that currently exist have traditionally focused on developing leadership potential for certain student populations (Fertman & Long, 1990). The current research found no significant differences between the experimental and control groups based on the
number of leadership positions held and the correlation between student perceived leadership practices and the number of leadership positions held. By providing the opportunity for all adolescents to lead, adolescents develop leadership competencies, which will prepare them to solve community problems; enhance their civic engagement and participation, and prepare them for the world of work (O’Brien & Kohlmeier, 2003).

Curriculum Impact on LPI Posttest Scores

Based on the findings of this research study, it was concluded that the integrated leadership opportunity increased students’ perceived leadership practices. The current research provided a means for FCS educators, including the researcher, to deliberately make available to adolescents the opportunity to be involved in civic engagement activities. As referred to in the literature guiding this study, civic engagement for adolescents is a desirable activity that will strengthen our society and prepare youth to be good citizens in the future (Stoneman, 2002). Adolescents are impacted by issues facing society differently than adults, therefore, decisions made guiding society would be better informed if adolescents participated in the decision-making process.

Not only do adolescents need to be included in these decisions, but also attention needs to be given to the development of adolescents as ethical, skilled, highly committed young leaders willing to take on all levels of local and national responsibility for building the best possible society (Stoneman, 2002). This will require a deliberative effort by adults generally, and family and consumer sciences professionals specifically. Stoneman (2002) recommends that good leadership is needed at all levels of society beginning with adolescents.

The field of family and consumer sciences requires leadership at all levels of society in order to purposefully achieve its mission. Family and consumer sciences (FCS), as part of
the United States educational system, serves the purpose of providing learning experiences that help students explore career areas and prepare for employment and independent living. FCS education programs include real-life situations in classrooms and laboratories, as well as cooperative education and experiential educational opportunities. Curriculum in family and consumer sciences programs includes materials that focus on the development of basic skills, along with thinking skills, personal qualities, individual goals, and teamwork skills. In addition, workplace competencies and the specific skill competencies required for various occupational areas are addressed, along with core skills that can be generalized to different life and work situations (Jenkins, 1999; Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001).

For the purposes of the conducted research, students experienced curriculum using a critical science approach and practical problem framework. Specifically, curriculum created using this approach seeks to prepare individuals to examine personal social problems and to take reasoned and justifiable action based on the social justice values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring (Sirotnik, 1991). Students in the experimental group were guided through the process of examining the social issue of childhood obesity in the context of the nutrition and wellness curriculum required in Teen Living courses in Idaho. Students were presented with a practical problem framework, which used a problem orientation to think about family and consumer sciences content (specifically nutrition and wellness) in view of concerns facing individuals and families over time (Hultgren & Wilkosz, 1986, p. 142). The practical problem posed to students consisted of a question asking, “What should be done about childhood obesity, a social issue impacting our community and society?

Because family and consumer sciences professionals are seeking ways to justify the existence of secondary FCS programs, the integration of leadership provided a unique means
to that end. As MacNeil (2000) communicated, leadership development is an important, but often overlooked facet of youth development. Not only do employers desire an able workforce that is capable of leadership related skills, but also adolescent leadership development contributes greatly to the positive development of adolescents and their communities (Fertman & van Linden, 2003). The leadership framework integrated into nutrition and wellness curriculum encouraged students to make connections between real life issues and what they as individuals can do to reduce the impact of that issue. Students realized the power of their personal voice and experimented with engaging in civic discussions and discourse. Each experimental group, located in different communities in Northern Idaho, considered the specific characteristics of their community when deliberating the social issue.

The communities involved in the research study ranged from a small rural community with a population of about 780 people to a large community of about 35,000 people. This demographically diverse representation led to recommendations for action that were both similar and different. For example, students in the larger community made recommendations for action related to gym memberships and the purchase of organic foods and supplements, whereas, students in the rural community recommended a community walk to raise awareness and the development of activities for elementary age students incorporating exercise and healthy eating. When discussing and deliberating social issues with junior high school students, it is important to develop their awareness of how different contextual factors impacting various communities will lead to varying solutions for each community. As evidenced by the solutions suggested by each site, it can be recommended that in future research students’ awareness of identified solutions in other communities be developed. Students could then gain greater understanding of the differences that exist between
communities and the potential for developing a variety of methods to solve a social issue impacting many communities.

The framework that was used to integrate leadership into the secondary FCS classroom is transferable to other issues impacting society. For example, students could deliberate on the issues of hunger both locally and globally; eating disorders and the impact on young people, identity theft, and poverty both locally and globally to name a few. As stated by Hultgren & Wilkosz (1986), the practical problem framework seeks to develop autonomous, responsible individuals and families who are able to engage in proactive behavior related to various issues (p. 145). When used as a model, individuals, families and communities can be stimulated to engage in problem solving and practical reasoning related to issues in their communities (Hultgren & Wilkosz, 1986). This was evidenced by the outcomes of each public forum conducted by junior high students in Northern Idaho.

Lessons learned. As a result of the conducted forums, students and participants learned and generated a number of conclusions. Based on the three approaches identified by AAFCS (prevent the obesity epidemic, change our lifestyle, and protect your pocketbook), participants of the forums concluded that the best approach to address the obesity issue was prevention of obesity through nutrition and wellness education. Students and participants both thought more education should be provided to the general public through workshops and presentations led by both students and community members who specialize in nutrition education. Also, one community concluded that the facilities available for wellness and recreation needed to be updated and open to the public.

Participants at one of the five public forums concluded that the solution to obesity in general, and childhood obesity specifically, needed to incorporate all three solutions recommended by AAFCS. First, they suggested that prevention of childhood obesity would
reduce future cases of obesity. Those who currently struggle with the effects and realities of obesity would benefit most from (a) changing their lifestyle, (b) increasing insurance premiums for those who are obese and (c) increasing costs for health care for those considered obese. Adults were less likely to agree with this conclusion because they are more aware of the realities associated with health care costs.

Individuals who participated in all of the public forums reported that their involvement in public policy before this opportunity was minimal, their expected involvement in public policy after this forum increased, and as a result of the forums they were thinking differently about the issue of obesity.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the implementation of the leadership integrated curriculum unit emphasizing a social issue in family and consumer sciences secondary courses and directions for policy, research, and practice:

Policy

Civic engagement represents an important vehicle in promoting positive development among youth (Balsano, 2005). Several studies on civic engagement among high school and college students have shown that civic engagement can promote experiences and behaviors that positively impact youth’s personal development, social development, and their future occupational aspirations and accomplishments (Balsano, 2005). Even though the research reviewed by Balsano (2005) focused on civic engagement and high school and college students, evidence provided from the current research illustrates the opportunity and benefits for early adolescents to be involved in the process. Overall, youth who are civically engaged tend to have an increased sense of their own competencies, be more internally driven to get involved in prosocial activities, and have higher self-esteem (Balsano, 2005). Also, civically
engaged youth were more likely than youth who were not to have a higher internal locus of control and to show a higher level of comfort resolving social and interpersonal issues (Balsano, 2005).

Youth involvement in civic engagement and public policy matters provides benefits for society. For example, where there is a dynamic relation between youth civic engagement and movement toward a more civil society, youth’s positive development and civic engagement have been viewed as playing an important role in “educating, organizing, and taking actions on issues of social justice” (Evans & Prilleltensky, 2005, p. 409). Lerner (2004) suggested that youth engagement in public policy is crucial to the survival of a democratic system and the protection of civil society. Further, Roulier (1998) explained that youth civic engagement and positive youth development that is supported by it, may represent the key parts of the social capital that strengthens civil society by serving as the currency of a healthy community.

In regard to policy, adults (FCS teachers, parents/guardians, community members, etc.) need to overcome the notion that we can make decisions that affect youth without including youth in the process; that youth are not concerned about the world around them; and that youth are too immature to be involved in decision-making processes at the local, national, and international levels. The opposite is true. All youth need to be viewed as resources, as unique carriers of information about the state and needs of the local young population as potential “community mappers” in participatory, community-based initiatives aimed at challenging local obstacles to civic engagement (Kirshner, 2003; Balsano, 2005).

In conclusion, integrated opportunities similar to the model for the current research should be implemented into family and consumer sciences classrooms. The model presented in the current research integrated a civic engagement activity emphasizing the social issue of
childhood obesity and allowed for adolescents to use leadership-related skills to conduct a public forum. The public forum served as a vehicle for youth and adults to discuss the issue together and identify possible solutions and strategies collaboratively. By providing this opportunity for youth and adults through family and consumer sciences secondary classroom, greater visibility and justification for FCS curriculum could exist. Not only will the profession of Family and Consumer Sciences benefit, but the contribution of youth to public policy efforts will lead to more informed decisions made at the local, state, national, and international levels. Further research needs to be conducted related to civic engagement opportunities integrated into family and consumer sciences secondary courses at the junior high and high school levels.

Research

The following list of recommendations are made focusing on research-related opportunities that should be investigated in future studies:

1. Researchers should continue to investigate the relationship between leadership development and family and consumer sciences secondary courses.

2. Researchers should conduct a qualitative analysis of an integrated leadership opportunity with emphasis on a social issue such as a public forum, in family and consumer sciences curriculum. By doing so, more information could be provided on the various themes discovered related to the integration and feedback from students, parents/guardians, teachers, and community members in regard to the effectiveness and importance of leadership development opportunities integrated into FCS curriculum.
3. Even though this study reported an increase in students’ perceived leadership practices, future research should be conducted implementing a similar model to the current research, but be conducted over a longer period of time.

4. Conduct research to investigate the impact implementing leadership integrated opportunities into the secondary family and consumer sciences classroom has on postsecondary family and consumer sciences students’ leadership practices.

5. Investigate the perceptions of policy makers’ views and perceptions of family and consumer sciences in relation to leadership development to identify possible marketing and recruitment strategies for college and university family and consumer sciences programs.

Practice

The following are recommendations based on practice in family and consumer sciences education:

1. Publicize and use the curriculum nationally to further develop the leadership of family and consumer sciences secondary students.

2. Use leadership education to frame various social issues impacting our society in general, and adolescents specifically, to increase junior high school students’ awareness and involvement in potential alternatives to the issue.

3. Integrate leadership opportunities into current family and consumer sciences curriculum to develop and strengthen the ability of adolescent learners to display the five practices of leaders created by Kouzes & Posner (2003): *Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart.*
4. Connect students in secondary family and consumer sciences classrooms to efforts led by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, such as public policy forums. This connection would be made through the integration of materials developed by professionals into secondary classroom experiences in family and consumer sciences.

5. Implement curriculum unit into family and consumer sciences classrooms across the state of Idaho and in other states to increase awareness of social issues impacting society and to encourage the development of possible alternatives to those issues identified.

6. Integrate leadership development into family and consumer sciences secondary courses across all grades rather than as an add-on. Further connections between secondary family and consumer sciences courses, Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America National Programs, and the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences can be facilitated through the leadership curriculum to allow for increased understanding and use of leadership practices in student attitudes and behaviors.

7. Initiate networking opportunities for postsecondary family and consumer sciences students with secondary family and consumer sciences teachers and students to develop collaborative projects incorporating leadership opportunities and the framing of various social issues impacting local, state, national, and even global populations.

8. Maintain and expand the web-based curriculum materials available to FCS teachers, which present leadership development integrated opportunities in various secondary family and consumer sciences content areas.
9. Conduct research to investigate the impact implementing leadership integrated opportunities into the secondary family and consumer sciences classroom has on postsecondary family and consumer sciences students’ leadership practices.

Summary

Studies devoted to the topic of adolescent leadership development are limited. Key research (Boyd, 2001; Bloomberg, Ganey, Alba, Quintero, & Alcantara, 2003; DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; Gardner, 1990; Garrod, 1988; Fiscus, 2003; MacNeil, 2000; O’Brien & Kohlmeier, 2003; van Linden & Fertman, 2003; Zeldin & Camino, 1999) does suggest the need and opportunity for the development of adolescent leadership potential. This research study of adolescent leadership development integrated within family and consumer sciences curriculum provided an innovative approach to increasing adolescents’ leadership practices. Specifically, this research connected junior high family and consumer sciences students to a national effort guiding individuals, families, and communities in the deliberation of public policy approaches addressing the issue of childhood obesity. The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, with support from the Kettering Foundation, developed a framework for deliberating the issue of childhood obesity in a group setting. Students participating in the research used the guide to conduct a public forum in their community.

To study the impact of leadership integrated opportunities on the leadership practices of adolescents, five groups of ninth grade Teen Living students in four different schools in Northern Idaho were identified. To be selected for the study, the school was required to have two sections of Teen Living offered to ninth grade students. One section was used for the experimental group and the other for the control group. The experimental group received the leadership-integrated curriculum as the research treatment, while the control group
participated in the general nutrition and wellness curriculum without the integrated leadership opportunities.

In the context of the study, leadership development was measured in terms of scores on the five leadership practices selected as the content framework for the curriculum: Challenge the Process, Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Students participating in the study completed the Student LPI-Self as a pretest and posttest assessment.

Findings led to the conclusion that the hypothesis guiding the conducted research (participation in a class using an experiential instructional model of teaching nutrition with an emphasis of childhood obesity will increase the development of leadership practices in junior high school students) was accepted. As a result of the research, recommendations in relation to policy, research and practice were made. The conducted research provides evidence that family and consumer sciences secondary courses afford adolescents the opportunity to increase their leadership practices.
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APPENDIX A

“SIZING UP AMERICA PUBLIC DELIBERATION GUIDE”
Sizing Up America
Public Policy Deliberation Guide

Produced by:
American Association of Family & Consumer Sciences
Funding from The Charles Kettering Foundation

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How Was This Guide Developed?

Some 655 members of the American Association of Family & Consumer Sciences (AAFCS) responded to a survey to determine if they believe that obesity is a problem, to obtain insights regarding the cause of the problem and to solicit ideas regarding what should be done to address this problem.

Survey respondents overwhelmingly expressed grave concern for the obesity epidemic facing our country. They offered a variety of suggested solutions for the problem that have implications for public policies that might be implemented to address this complex and challenging social problem. Based on AAFCS member responses, a draft deliberation guide was developed that included three possible public policy directions for addressing the obesity issue.

The initial guide was distributed to over 900 participants of an Obesity Summit conducted during the 2005 AAFCS Annual Meeting. Participants were asked to carefully consider the policy choices presented in the draft guide, provide thoughts to enhance the three approaches presented, and to suggest other public policy choices that should be considered. The wealth of input provided by those participants was used to revise this deliberation guide.

How Will The Deliberation Guide Be Used?

The Sizing Up America: Public Policy Deliberation Guide will be used to conduct deliberative forums across the United States. These forums are designed to discover common ground on the issue of obesity.

The prerequisite to any legitimate public action is to base action on the public voice—judgments people make about the purposes and directions of their communities, states, and the nation. The public voice is obtained by carefully considering what people think about a given issue and further, what they want to do to address it with any local, state, or national action or policy. Moving citizens to common ground often requires a positive catalyst.

A deliberative guide does not provide answers to challenging questions related to social problems but does provide a framework to help people thoughtfully and carefully consider a variety of policy directions designed to address the problem. It assists the public in coming to thoughtful judgment about what should be done about a challenging social issue.

Public deliberation is a means for citizens to make tough choices about the basic purpose and direction for their communities and country—a way of reasoning and talking together. It is neither a partisan argument where opposing sides try to win, nor a casual conversation conducted with polite civility.

Deliberative forums provide a safe non-partisan venue for citizens to struggle with challenging issues facing their communities and nation. These forums are based on the idea that in a democracy citizens have a responsibility to get together to talk through their common concerns, to weigh possible alternative actions to address these problems and eventually send signals to officeholders and others about the desired direction for public action. This is how a public puts its social capital to work.

Deliberative action occurs when participants gain a sense of what steps may be taken on an issue as a result of the forum. Many “products” or actions can result from forums; some can be readily observed and many cannot.

Deliberation is a long-term investment, not a “quick fix.” The process is not linear or orderly. Many things can be happening simultaneously.
There is no “right” path or action resulting from the deliberative process.

As a result of participating in deliberative forums, individuals might:

- Make personal use of ideas generated during the forum.
- Adopt the deliberative process in other areas of life.
- Work to articulate the public voice on the problem and distribute this information to the wider community including public decision makers; or
- Make a commitment to act together with other citizens or groups.
Sizing Up America: Public Policy Deliberation Guide

Sixty-five percent of U.S. adults are either overweight or obese (CDC). Among children, 15% are overweight (Hedley). Being overweight means that a person has a body mass index of 25 or more, while a person who is obese has a body mass index of 30 or more.

Introduction

Just turn on the television or radio or look at a newspaper or magazine and you will be sure to find something about obesity and Americans’ struggle with being overweight. In 2002, our national obesity epidemic linked to diabetes, heart disease and other conditions accounted for an estimated annual U.S. medical expenditure of $93 billion. The economic cost of obesity to business, including health, life and disability insurance and paid sick leave by private sector firms was estimated to be at least $15.4 billion (DHHS).

Addressing both of these situations presents serious and challenging public policy questions.

According to the authors of the book Generation Extra Large, “In this as in so many global trends, the United States...the country behind such innovations as chili dogs, cheese stuffed pizza crusts and sixty-four ounce servings of soda....is leading the way.” Although genetic influences may be a factor in childhood obesity, environmental factors and behaviors may greatly increase the risk for experiencing obesity and its negative impacts or outcomes.

Yes, busy families may consume more fast food and take-out, and fewer home cooked meals. It doesn’t help that the advertising industry is aiming some 40,000 ads toward us and our children. Kids see about 11 food commercials per hour of TV and advertisers sure aren’t marketing for the hottest new apples or carrot sticks. United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) spent $1 million (1999) in advertising while McDonalds spent $572 million and Burger King spent $407 million (1998). Our school lunches are heavy on pizza, burritos, French fries and the vending machines (which are big business) are filled with candy and soda. “Super sizing” or “value marketing” has not helped.

Poverty can be especially conducive to obesity. Low-income parents stretch their food dollars by choosing high-density foods that tend to be fattening, and fresh fruits and vegetables may not be readily available or affordable in low-income neighborhoods.

The obesity epidemic is not just a U.S. problem. Obesity has created a “double burden” of disease in many parts of the developing world still struggling to overcome undernutrition and its consequences for future generations. Childhood and adolescent overweight and obesity already present massive problems in many parts of the developing world, which are already on the fast track to a massive explosion in type 2 diabetes. The economic burden from an obese and overweight population will act as a brake on development, which depends on having a healthy and productive workforce.
In 2005, the New England Journal of Medicine reported the average life expectancy of today’s adults, roughly 77 years, is at least four to nine months shorter than it would be if there was no obesity. That means that obesity is already shortening average life spans by a greater rate than accidents, homicides and suicides combined. Olshansky et al. (2005) says that because of obesity, the children of today could wind up living two to five years less than they otherwise would, a negative effect on life span that could be greater than that caused by cancer or coronary heart disease. “Obesity is such that this generation of children could be the first basically in the history of the United States to live less healthful and shorter lives than their parents,” according to Dr. David S. Ludwig, director of the obesity program at Children’s Hospital Boston.

Drug makers seem to be in a race to “cash in” on the obesity epidemic. Some drug makers say they are tackling fat in response to public health warnings of a national obesity epidemic, however, many drug industry analysts see a potentially even bigger market if such a weight-loss drug also catches on among the more than 60 percent of adults in this country who are categorized as overweight. Industry forecasters say that an effective weight-loss drug could have annual sales far surpassing the current best-selling drug, the cholesterol treatment Lipitor, which reached $12 billion last year. This is especially relevant now that Medicare says it will pay for “effective” obesity treatments.

There does seem to be some political recognition of the problem. In 2005, Iowa Senator, Tom Harkin, secured funds for a landmark report, “Preventing Childhood Obesity: Health in the Balance.” The report calls for a major comprehensive plan to address the emerging childhood obesity epidemic. Harkin plans to reintroduce the Healthy Lifestyles and Prevention (HeLP) American Act to comprehensively promote healthy lifestyles and prevent chronic disease. In 2005, former President Clinton and the American Heart Association have announced a new joint initiative to tackle childhood obesity by targeting areas with potential for reversing rising rates of childhood obesity in the United States. The Administration on Aging has been promoting good nutrition and activity for older Americans. Even USDA is looking at putting a physician in a food safety post.

*With all the negative effects of being overweight or obese, is there hope that we can turn this trend around?*

Maria Golan, a nutritionist at the School of Nutritional Sciences at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, believes that “even in the face of all the unhealthy influences in the world, parents have an astonishing power to shape their kids eating habits.” Community pressures can help schools take responsibility for providing nutritious food and an environment where healthy choices are possible.

*What can we, as concerned citizens, do personally, as a community, and as a nation, to fight this debilitating epidemic?*
Offer healthier options, put nutritional values of food on menus and serve smaller portion sizes in restaurants.
- Eliminate advertising for non-nutritious foods and increase advertising for healthy living.

Concerns about this approach:
- Many kids won’t get parental support to stick with a healthy lifestyle program.
- Our country is based on free choice... advertisers have to make a living also.
- Do you invade people’s rights to make their own lifestyle choices when you tell them they shouldn’t be overweight or obese?
- Not everyone can afford fresh fruits and vegetables and other foods that would help them eat healthier because they just don’t have the money.

Likely Tradeoffs:
- I am willing to allow government to provide guidance on weight even if I give up some freedom.
- I support the efforts of business and industry to improve health through lifestyle changes even if this means passing on the costs to consumers.

Approach Three
Protect Your Pocketbook

The World Bank’s Worldwatch Institute has estimated the cost of obesity in the U. S. at 12 percent of the national health care budget. Six years ago that was $102.2 billion dollars, so one can imagine what it would be today. The obesity epidemic equates to millions of dollars being spent on health care, worker compensation, fast food, etc. It’s time we started giving monetary incentives to people who ARE healthy!

What can be done?
- Hold people accountable for their lifestyle choices, increasing insurance premiums and costs for health care for those considered obese.
- Give health care premium incentives for being healthy and not obese.
- Have work place incentives for exercising and living healthy.
- Offer grants for walkable, healthy lifestyle communities.
- Fund government research on obesity.
- Fund government parks and public exercise areas.

Concerns about this approach:
- You discriminate against overweight people if you raise insurance costs.
- Why doesn’t government spend more money to cure cancer and AIDS...forget obese people.
- You discriminate against overweight people if you raise insurance costs.
- Government should not be involved in telling people what to eat...it’s my choice.
- The drug companies will be the ones to “cash in” on the obesity epidemic with their pills for weight loss.
- Who determines who gets paid what for being “healthy”...and what is the definition of healthy?

Likely Tradeoffs:
- Support rewards for healthy lifestyle choices such as reduced health care premiums even if taxes increase to subsidize the health care industry.
- Spend money on obesity research even if we take money away from other life-threatening diseases.
Recommended Reading:


For additional policy materials see:

Tool Kit on Trends and Policy Solutions for Adult Obesity and Youth Obesity
http://www.healthystates.csg.org/Public+Health+Issues/Nutrition+and+Physical+Activity/Obesity+Resources.htm

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Copies of this guidebook and accompanying forum guide are available at www.aafcs.org
Sizing Up America
A Guide to Conducting Deliberative Forums

Thank you for agreeing to serve as a convener, moderator and/or recorder for a forum on the important public issue of overweight and obesity facing our nation, states and local communities. The American Association of Family Consumer Sciences (AAFCS), in partnership with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, created a guidebook for public deliberation, which will serve as the basis for forums to be held around the country. This accompanying guide is intended to help you plan for, conduct and report on the forum(s) you convene and/or moderate.

Conveners

GETTING READY FOR A FORUM

Prepare a “working contract” with groups and organizations who may want to share in convening and facilitating a forum. This helps to assure broader representation in planning and a broader diversity in forum participation. In the “working contract” identify the specific purpose of the forum and potential partner’s responsibility. An organizational partner may be responsible for any of the tasks below as well as to communicate with their members and/or clientele. Minimal responsibility would be helping market the forum in their in-house communications. Maximum responsibility would be to execute all details and to provide funds for the forums. Outlining specific responsibilities in a working contract provides “quality control” for the forum. Include space for the signature of key people authorized to represent the potential partner organizations if a signed agreement best meets your needs.

Involves the planning group in establishing goals, planning and implementing the forum. This includes:

- Establishing forum date(s).
- Completing a task list with deadlines and responsible partners.
- Identifying funding and/or in-kind support and funding source.
- Acquiring deliberation guides.
- Obtaining meeting space, equipment and materials: i.e. flip charts, paper, pens and masking tape.
- Providing care giving (adult and/or child).
- Conducting registration and providing name tags.
- Providing refreshments.
- Marketing, such as individual and organizational mailings, the purchase of postage, targeted and/or public interviews, announcements and brochures.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TASK</th>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
<th>RESPONSIBLE PARTIES</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confirm the location, room, date, and time of the event. Reserve any needed equipment.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Invite participants and confirm the number committed to attending.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inform appropriate persons of date, time, location, number attending, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obtain forum materials (guidebook &amp; feedback form) from <a href="http://www.aafcs.org/">http://www.aafcs.org/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Send participants a reminder about the event a few days before it is scheduled to occur.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Plan for forum needs such as:**

- Greeters.
- Room and equipment set-up.
- Sign-in and name tags.
- Moderator and Recorders.
- Distribution and collection of feedback forms from participants and moderators.

**Plan for forum follow-up actions:**

- Thank you notes.
- Reports to sue.williams@okstate.edu or Dr. Sue Williams, 333 HHS, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-6111.
- Reports to involved organizations and the public through the media.
- Reports to local, state and congressional public policy makers.
- Handling of interest among participants in acting upon ideas that emerge from the forum.

**Tips:**

- Pre-forum refreshments often help to get people there.
- Holding forums in a “real community setting” helps to make forums accessible.
- Recruiting a diverse group of partners to share in the leadership and planning for the forum will help identify and recruit a diverse group of participants.
- Additional information about planning for and conducting forums can be found at the National Issues Forum website: [http://www.nifi.org/](http://www.nifi.org/).

**Note to AAFCS Members Only**

The Public Policy Committee is prepared to consult with you on a limited basis as you plan for your forum(s). Please notify Sue Williams at sue.williams@okstate.edu of your intent to conduct a forum(s) and to ask questions. Reports of the forum(s) conducted by AAFCS members, including participant feedback forms, should be sent to Sue Williams immediately following the forum at: **333 HEW, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-6111.** Results will be compiled and shared with AAFCS members, the Kettering Foundation and members of Congress.

*Thank you*
Moderators

When doing an issue forum, it is very important to use your time wisely so that all approaches can be discussed and adequate time is left for the reflections. Following is a suggested guide for conducting a forum.

Suggested timeline for issues forums:

- **15%** for opening.
  - Welcome – The convener or moderator introduces the NIF program.
  - Ground rules – Participants review desired outcomes of the forum.
  - Personal stake – Connect the issue to people’s lives and concerns.
- **65%** for deliberation.
  - Deliberation – Participants examine all the choices.
- **20%** for discovering the shared sense of purpose and ending the forum/study circle.
  - Ending the forum – Reflect on what has been accomplished.
  - Feedback questionnaire – Participants complete post-forum questionnaire.

Welcome and Introductions

Welcome and thank people for coming, thank the sponsors and/or those providing the facility, introduce others on your team and yourself. Explain what the recorder will be doing and ask people to correct any recording during the forum that they feel misrepresents what they said. Invite people to make themselves comfortable, orient them to location of restrooms, food, etc. Unless the group is quite small, it usually takes up too much time to have every participant introduce themselves. Having participants introduce themselves with information about their profession, etc., can also sometimes interfere with establishing a level playing field for everyone at the forum.

Ground Rules (or Guidelines)

Presenting the group with a minimum list of ground rules can help to set the tone for the deliberation. A list of basic ground rules is included in this guide. Print on an 8½ x 11 handout or prepare a poster. A word of caution about asking the group if they want to add more rules: deliberation can become time consuming on its own. Adding rules, some of which may not be appropriate for deliberation, could reduce the effectiveness of the forum. Also keep in mind that, in general, the more rules there are, the more controlling you (or the group) have to be.

The moderator and participants will work together to make sure that:

- Everyone is encouraged to participate.
- No one or two individuals dominate.
- The discussion focuses on the approaches.
- All the approaches on the issue are considered.
- An atmosphere for dialogue and analysis of alternatives is maintained.
- People listen respectfully to each other.
- All cell phones and pagers are off.
- The moderator guides the deliberation yet remain neutral.

Charge

Explain that this will be a deliberative forum that will make use of a discussion framework intended to help the group look at the issue from several perspectives and to grapple with the consequences (costs or benefits) and trade-offs inherent in each approach. Charge the group with doing the work of examining this issue as if they have responsibility for reaching a shared understanding of the issue and with moving toward a shared judgment about what approach would be best, even though it may have some negative consequences.

Ask the group to commit itself to this task. If a group has no sense of working toward a common goal, the discussion may tend to be random and disconnected and the forum will wander.

Overview of the Issue and the Approaches

Give an overview of the issue and a brief summary of each of the three approaches. Do not assume that participants read the guide prior to the forum.

Personal Stake

Tell participants that before they begin to examine the approaches you are asking them to take a few moments to think about ways that they may feel any personal connection to this issue. Ask for two or three people to share an experience or story that makes this issue more personal to them rather than an abstract problem. You could ask: “How has this issue affected you or someone you know personally?” or “Within your family or circle of friends, in what way are people concerned about this issue?” or “What is it about this issue that worries you the most?”
The Forum Deliberation

A moderator’s main job during this part of the forum is to promote deliberation as the participants focus on each approach in turn. There are a number of questions that can help the moderator do this:

What Appeals to Others, or Us, about this Approach and Why?

This question helps people to “try on” the perspectives of others or to identify what it is that they, themselves, value about this approach. Some ways to ask this type of question are:

- What is appealing about this approach?
- What might others find appealing about this approach even if you don’t?
- What is most valuable to people who support this approach?
- What makes this choice a good idea—or a bad idea?

What Are the Consequences (Benefits or Costs) Associated with This Approach?

This kind of question pushes people to get beyond the cliché and sound-bite way of talking about an issue. You are asking them to envision not only the positive things that will happen if this approach is followed but also to confront the inevitable downsides that accompany making choices about what to do about complex and difficult issues that will affect many people in very different situations. Some ways to ask this type of question:

- Who will be most affected by this approach, and how?
- What might be the consequences of following this approach?
- Who will be affected negatively? Who will be affected positively?
- Can you give an example of what you think would happen?
- How would someone make a case against what you just said?
- How might your concerns differ if you were poor, wealthy, etc.?
- Who might think the costs and consequences of this approach are too much to pay?

What are the Tensions, or Dilemmas, in this Issue that We Have to Work Through?

Moderators can help participants explore areas where there are tensions between and within approaches and when a dilemma arises. (For example: “So, you are saying that we should have smaller class sizes in our schools, but you are firmly against any increase in taxes or cutting other programs—is there some way to reconcile those two desires?”) Often at different times during a discussion a person, or a whole group, might express ideas or desires that are in conflict but never put the conflicting ideas together in a way that makes the conflict or tension obvious. This is a kind of “wishful thinking” or work avoidance that we all do until we spend enough time working on a problem to see that we can’t have it all and recognize that we need to make some difficult choices.

Some questions to ask include:

- What makes this a difficult issue?
- Are there any conflicts or dilemmas that grow out of what we’ve said we want to do about this issue?
- What do you see as the tensions between (or within) these approaches?
- Do you see any gray or fuzzy areas in this issue that make it especially difficult?
- Are there any consequences that make the most attractive approach(es) hard to imagine living with?
- If that is such a good idea (or approach) what has kept it from being done already?

Other General Questions

Some very simple, but powerful questions that may be useful throughout the forum are:

- Why? Or Why Not? When someone makes what seems like an obvious and straightforward statement, sometimes it can be very helpful for the purposes of deliberation to ask “why?” or “why not?”. For example, if someone says, “In our community we want to be able to rely on the media to report about good things that happen too,” when you respond simply with the question “Why?” you are stimulating deeper consideration of what is important and valuable behind what the person had said. You, as moderator, can try it out on all kinds of statements that are usually never questioned such as: “It’s a good thing to live in a community where people value a good education for all children.” The moderator could ask... “Why?” or “We don’t want a health care system where the rich get one kind of care and everybody else gets another kind.” The moderator might say... “Why not?”

- How? This is another question that can be very effective in pushing people to think more deeply. For example if someone says, “We need to do a better job of educating school students about being good citizens.” The moderator might ask... “How?” or “Everyone should know what their rights and responsibilities are.” The moderator might respond... “How could that be accomplished?”
Reflections—Ending the Forum

This is a very important part of the forum to provide some closure to the forum and to help people get an overview of the deliberative work that has been done. Be sure to leave some time for this even if the discussion is going so well that people don’t want to stop talking about the last approach. Part of the reflections portion of a forum is trying to see if the group identified any common ground for action. For this reason, the reflecting should be rooted in the discussion the group has just had.

Common ground for action is not the same as consensus or taking a vote to identify what the majority wants. Common ground for action is that area where people may still not completely agree but find that they have enough in common—perhaps certain values or priorities—that they can move toward some actions or policies without first having to come to complete agreement. Common ground is the area between “total agreement” and “total disagreement.”

During the time for reflections, participants may be prone to start deliberating about the approaches again. Point it out to them if that is what is happening and reframe them on the work of reflecting on what happened during the forum.

It can be helpful if, during the forum, the moderator jots down key concerns, questions or things that people (or the whole group) seemed to be struggling with—things that seem to keep coming up. The moderator can then help the group reflect on these if they need help doing that. They may struggle a bit with this work—that’s fine—and a good reason to leave enough time for the reflections.

There is only so much a group can accomplish in a two or two and a half-hour forum. Help the group be realistic about what they can do in one forum. Remind them of the work that they were charged with at the beginning of the forum. Every forum functions as a small part of the puzzle and is very important in working toward a solution that the public can support and live with.

Questions for Reflecting on the Forum

A poster available from NIF (free, 800-600-4060) is “Reflections.” It lists the following questions for the group to consider. You can use these questions to guide your closing reflections. (Depending on time available you may want to have the participants only respond to one or two sections.)

1. **Individual Reflections**
   How has your thinking about the issue changed?
   How has your thinking about other people’s views changed?

2. **Group Reflections**
   Can we detect any shared sense of direction or common ground for action?
   What did you hear the group saying about tensions in the issue?
   What were the trade-offs the group was willing or not willing to make?

3. **Next-Step Reflections**
   What do we still need to talk about?
   How can we use what we now know?

Reflections at the end of the forum are a very important part of the forum. While the purpose is always to draw out individual and group reflections, you may find you prefer to use questions other than those listed above. The following are an alternative set of questions that may help a group reflect on their deliberations. (Some of these are also listed previously as questions that may push people to deliberate during consideration of an approach.)

- What makes this a difficult issue?
- Are there any conflicts or dilemmas that grow out of what we’ve said we want to do about this issue?
- Are there any costs and consequences that make the most attractive approach(es) hard to imagine living with?
- If that is such a good idea (or approach) what has kept it from being done already?
- Are there unanswered questions that are standing in the way of our reaching a better understanding of this issue and/or approach?

Another set of closing questions is on the next page - “Reflections on where we are - as we end this forum.” These questions are drafted with the intent of encouraging participants to 1) consider whether they individually and as a group worked through the consequences of each approach and 2) to begin to think about ways of taking action on the issue.
Recorders

Recording can be an integral part of a successful forum, but good recording requires thought and planning. How you choose to record may depend on several factors, including the size and purpose of the forum, the size of the room, etc. At a minimum, you will want to record the final portion of the forum (Close) to give the group a way to create their shared perspective and produce a tangible product of the deliberation.

The Benefits of Recording – Recording can:
- Help keep the group on task.
- Allow people to revisit key thoughts as they deliberate during the forum.
- Provide a record of what points have been covered.
- Be a tool to ensure that balanced views are surfacing.
- Serve as a reference document for future forums, reports and action strategies.
- Inform stakeholders who were not at the forum, or at times even a wider audience, of discussion, decisions, and actions.

Different Styles of Recording:
- Collecting comments in pro and con columns side by side.
- "Straight recording" (possibly switching pen colors for different speakers).
- Highlighting the things held most valuable in any format – and/or the key tensions.
- Others?

Qualities of Effective Recording:
- Legible, clear, accurate, and well-organized.
- Uses active verbs.
- Captures the tensions, trade-offs, and common ground for action.

Organizing Information at the End of a Forum
- Remove the recordings from the walls, and number the sheets.
- Review each page to check titles and section headings; make sure writing is legible and makes sense.
- Fold the papers; label the outside with the group name and date.

Tips for Effective Recording:
- Read the issue guide before the forum. It is important that the recorder is familiar with the material. The recorder’s knowledge of the issue and the possible approaches being deliberated will aid in listening for key points—appeals, concerns, consequences, values, conflicts, tensions and trade-offs.
- Keep in mind that the recorder is capturing key points; not every comment made.
- Determine a strategy for recording—consult with the moderator and convener team prior to the deliberative forum to address such things as:
  - Sections of the forum that will be recorded.
  - Purpose of the forum and essential information needed.
  - Question sequence the moderator plans to use.
  - Recorder participation.
    - In the deliberation.
    - Asking clarifying questions.
    - Other.
  - Recorder introduction (self or moderator).
  - Positioning of recorder and easel.
  - Writing up flip chart notes—who takes responsibility for this task and when?
  - Materials—who provides easel, flip chart paper, markers, tape, etc?
  - Posting recordings—will they be posted and if so where?
  - Other roles for the recorder such as distributing materials.
- Prepare flip charts in advance.
  - 1-3 sheets for each approach.
  - Trade-offs.
  - Tensions.
  - Common ground for action.
  - Others.
- Work with the moderator and convener to prepare notes for public deliberation after the forum.
Sizing Up America: A Guide to Conducting Deliberative Forums

A Companion to
Sizing Up America: Public Policy Deliberation Guide

Available at: http://www.aafcs.org/

Produced by:
American Association of Family & Consumer Sciences
Funding from The Charles Kettering Foundation

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Jan Hartough, M.S., Michigan State University
Sue Miles, Ph.D. (Professor Emeritus), West Virginia & Cornell Universities
Bonnie Braun, Ph.D., University of Maryland, College Park

October, 2005

FOR MORE INFORMATION
National Issues Forums website: http://www.nifi.org/
Examining Health Care: What’s the Public’s Prescription website:
http://www.nifi.org/examining_healthcare.html

For citation:
APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP INTEGRATED CURRICULUM LESSON PLANS
PROJECT OVERVIEW

LEARNING OUTCOMES ASSOCIATED WITH THE "SIZING UP AMERICA" PROJECT

AS A RESULT OF THE LEADERSHIP MINILESSONS, STUDENTS WILL BE BETTER ABLE TO:

1. UNDERSTAND THE SPECIFIC BEHAVIORS AND ACTIONS OF EXEMPLARY LEADERSHIP RELATING TO A CURRENT SOCIAL ISSUE.
2. IDENTIFY THEIR PERSONAL STRENGTHS AS LEADERS IN LIFE SITUATIONS.

3. IDENTIFY AREAS FOR IMPROVING THEIR LEADERSHIP PRACTICES.
4. DETERMINE ACTIONS FOR BECOMING BETTER LEADERS BY INCREASING THE FREQUENCY AND COMFORT (SKILL) WITH WHICH THEY ENGAGE IN VARIOUS LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN VARIOUS SETTINGS RELATING TO LIFE ROLES (FAMILY, WORKPLACE, COMMUNITY MEMBER, ETC).
5. PLAN HOW TO SHARE THEIR RESULTS AND LEARNING FROM THE INTEGRATED LEADERSHIP OPPORTUNITY INTO A FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES CLASSROOM WITH OTHERS IN FAMILY, COMMUNITY, ETC.
6. UNDERSTAND THE IMPACT AN INDIVIDUAL VOICE CAN MAKE IN REGARDS TO PUBLIC POLICY AND SOCIAL ISSUES IMPACTING INDIVIDUALS, FAMILIES AND COMMUNITIES THROUGHOUT THE WORLD.

MINILESSONS

OVERVIEW & ORIENTATION 2
FIVE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES 3
LEADERSHIP: MODEL THE WAY 4.6
LEADERSHIP: INSPIRE A SHARED VISION 5.7
LEADERSHIP: CHALLENGE THE PROCESS 8.10
LEADERSHIP: ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT 11.13
LEADERSHIP: ENCOURAGE THE HEART 14.15
PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER 16
WE LEAD FROM THE ESSENCE WE ARE AS A PERSON.
LILAS BROWN, UNIV. OF SASKATCHEWAN

YOU HAVE TO BELIEVE IN SOMETHING FIRST, BEFORE YOU CAN GET OTHERS TO BELIEVE.
ASHRAF SEDDEKEK, ORACLE CORPORATION

LEADING MEANS YOU HAVE TO BE A GOOD EXAMPLE AND LIVE WHAT YOU SAY. ONLY THEN CAN YOU PERSUADE PEOPLE HONESTLY.
ICAN YAO, SHARK LEADERS

WHAT MADE THE DIFFERENCE WAS THE VISION OF HOW THINGS COULD BE AND CLEARLY PERSUADING FOR ALL TO BE A VISIONARY.
MARK DAUTCH, MARSH

I AM DRIVEN BY CONCERNS FOR THE LEGACY I AM LEAVING MY CHILDREN.
GAIL RAYEHL, IBM

OVERVIEW & ORIENTATION TO PROJECT LESSONS

LESSON DELIVERY


1. PROVIDING OPPORTUNITY FOR CLASSROOM DISCUSSION USING THOUGHT-CHALLENGING QUESTIONS.
2. PROMOTING PEER TEACHING WHERE STUDENTS THINK THROUGH TOPIC AND THEN TEACH IT TO OTHER STUDENTS.
3. COLLABORATIVE LEARNING STUDENTS SHARE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SOMETHING AND ORGANIZE THEMSELVES AND TOPIC.

LESSON TOPICS

LESSON ONE-TWO:
MODEL THE WAY
- FOCUS YOUR VISION: CLARIFYING VALUES, EXPRESSING SELF
- SET THE EXAMPLE: ALIGN ACTIONS WITH VALUES
- WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

LESSON THREE-FOUR:
INSPIRE A SHARED VISION
- ENVISION THE FUTURE IMPORTANCE OF HAVING A VISION
- ENLIST OTHERS

LESSON FIVE-SIX:
CHALLENGE THE YEOMING PROCESS
- SEARCH FOR OPPORTUNITIES: SEE THE MOMENT
- EXPERIMENT AND TAKE HEALTHY RISKS: INNOVATIVE WAYS TO CHALLENGE GROW, AND IMPROVE

LESSON SEVEN-EIGHT:
Encourage others to act
- FOSTER COLLABORATION, CREATE A CLIMATE OF TRUST, POSITIVE INDEPENDENCE
- STRENGTHEN OTHERS, GENERATE POWER AROUND THROUGH SHARING AND COMMITMENT

LESSON NINE-TEN:
Encourage the heart
- RECOGNIZE CONTRIBUTIONS, EXPECT THE BEST, PAY ATTENTION
- CELEBRATE VALUES AND VICTORIES, SPIRIT OF COMMON MATILITY
FIVE PRACTICES & TEN COMMITMENTS OF LEADERSHIP

Committed to…

MODEL THE WAY
1. Find your voice by clarifying your personal values

INSPIRE A SHARED VISION
3. Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities

CHALLENGE THE PROCESS
5. Search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve.

ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT
7. Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust.

ENCOURAGE THE HEART

9. Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence.

10. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

Developed by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 121)
WE LEAD FROM THE ESSENCE OF WHO WE ARE AS A PERSON.

LILLAS BROWN

MODEL THE WAY

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Leaders have a philosophy, a set of core standards by which choices are made, a set of values about how others should be treated, and a set of principles that make the individual unique and distinctive (Krueger & Posner, 1998, p. 15). It is through his/her actions that leaders stand up for what they believe and show by their own example how others ought to behave. Leaders build their credibility by watching words and actions.

To convince others of something good, leaders focus on the fact that the impossible is possible by taking the first step through setting an example. In order to be successful, a leader will break a larger challenge or problem into smaller manageable pieces avoiding feelings of being overwhelmed.

In this lesson, students will explore what being a leader means to them, while comparing identified leadership characteristics with personal characteristics.

OPENING

With the word leadership on the board, using the star provided, have students fill in the stars provided with words they associate with leadership (characteristics of leaders, qualities, etc.). Use this activity to begin a class discussion on what characteristics are essential to leadership.

STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Once the board is full, and a mini discussion has taken place, have students put into groups of 3-5

   (whatever works best for the classroom situations)

2. Hand each group a list of qualities. Each group should add other characteristics or qualities they see as

   important as they can.

3. Using the starter list for inspiration, each group should add other characteristics or qualities they see as

   important as they can.

4. Next, have students identify one person they admire. Someone who possesses the characteristics in

   the list above. Have them list a list of characteristics that particular person.

5. Students will then rank which characteristics from the list they think are most important in a leader and

   why.

6. To connect to the individual reflection activity, students should identify which attributes they already

   possess and which ones they need to develop more strongly. Discuss possible ways to develop each attribute.

ENDING/CLOSURE:

Grounds for conversation and activities of the day with students. What did they learn about themselves and being a

leader. Then introduce the individual reflection assignment. Show example to inspire students.

INDIVIDUAL REFLECTION

Assignments:

Responding to the following questions or statements, students will choose a concept using words, pictures, or both.

1. Who do you believe is an effective leader?

2. What character traits best represent you?

3. Identity strengths and weaknesses.

4. Creativity, originality, and neatness are essential.

LESSON ONE

MODEL THE WAY

The aim of this lesson is for students to:

1. Understand the specific behaviors and actions of exemplary leadership

2. Identify personal strengths and weaknesses

Students will accomplish the goals of the lesson by:

CLASS DISCUSSION

Students will respond to the statement "What character traits are essential to leadership." Using the provided starter list of leadership characteristics, students will add other appropriate traits.

GROUP REFLECTION

Each group will choose a leader, and explain how that leader displays characteristics listed on the starter list.

INDIVIDUAL REFLECTION

Using self-reflection, students will use words, pictures, or both to answer the question: "Who do you believe is an effective leader?" By creating a CD cover that represents them as an individual.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEADERSHIP QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERS</th>
<th>WHAT CAN YOU ADD TO THE LIST?</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. COURAGE: The mindset that enables a person to face difficulty. Courage is not the absence of fear but rather the willingness to do something in spite of fear.</td>
<td>5. PERSISTENCE: The ability to remain steady in a course of action. Having tenacity and endurance despite hardship or discouragement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. VISIONARY: The ability to see the bigger picture in a situation or organization, and dream of possibilities that would be more beneficial. A visionary is one who imagines possibilities.</td>
<td>9. SELF-DISCIPLE: The ability to control your actions and order your behavior appropriately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. CHANGE AGENT: The ability to not only move people and things in a new direction, but also to accept, handle and thrive in the midst of change. A change agent is one who can create a sense of urgency for a new direction, and guide a group down the path of that new direction.</td>
<td>10. HONESTY: Having truthfulness and integrity in your actions and dealings with others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. DECISIVE: Having the willingness and ability to make a decision, judgment call, or resolution. Leaders would openly rather take the wrong decision than no decision at all.</td>
<td>11. SENSE OF HUMOR: The ability to see the lighter side of a situation or circumstance. Key to having a sense of humor is having the ability to not take yourself too seriously. Leaders can laugh at themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. CREATIVITY: The ability to use originality, innovation, and imagination to solve problems or dream dreams. A creative leader thinks &quot;outside the box.&quot;</td>
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LESSON TWO
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
FROM KOZES & POSNER, 2006, P. 1-2
THE MOST IMPORTANT PERSONAL QUALITY PEOPLE LOOK FOR AND ADMIRE IN A LEADER IS PERSONAL CREDIBILITY. CREDIBILITY IS THE FOUNDATION OF LEADERSHIP. IF PEOPLE DON'T BELIEVE IN THE MESSENGER, THEY WON'T BELIEVE THE MESSAGE. TITLES MAY BE GRANTED, BUT LEADERSHIP IS EARNED. STUDENT LEADERS MODEL THE WAY BY FINDING THEIR VOICE AND SETTING AN EXAMPLE.

LEADERS SHOULD STAND UP FOR WHAT THEY BELIEVE, WHICH REQUIRES ONE TO HAVE BELIEFS TO STAND UP FOR IN THE FIRST PLACE. LEADERS MUST BE CLEAR ABOUT THEIR GUIDING PRINCIPLES, FIND THEIR OWN VOICES AND CLEARLY GIVE VOICE TO THEIR VALUES. THROUGH ENGAGING OTHERS, LEADERS CAN MODEL THE WAY FIRST BY CLARIFYING PERSONAL VALUES AND BUILDING AND AFFIRMING SHARED VALUES THAT ALL CAN EMBRACE. NOT ONLY WORDS, BUT BEHAVIOR EARN LEADERS RESPECT. LEADERS SET AN EXAMPLE AND BUILD COMMITMENT THROUGH SIMPEL, DAILY ACTS THAT CREATE PROGRESS AND BUILD MOMENTUM.

AS A FINAL ACTIVITY FOR THE CURRENT RESEARCH STUDY, YOUR CLASS WILL HOST A PUBLIC FORUM ON CHILDHOOD OBESETY. A PUBLIC FORUM REQUIRES INDIVIDUALS TO DISCUSS AND DIALOGUE ABOUT AN ISSUE OF IMPORTANCE TO INDIVIDUALS, FAMILIES AND COMMUNITIES. TO PREPARE YOU FOR THIS EXPERIENCE, COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITY USING MUSIC TO PRACTICE USING YOUR VOICE TO MODEL THE WAY FOR POSITIVE CHANGE IN OUR SOCIETY.

OPENING
THROUGH MUSIC, AN INDIVIDUAL CAN EXPRESS AND COMMUNICATE THEIR PERSONAL PREFERENCES AND BACKGROUND. ALSO, POWERFUL FEELINGS, EMOTIONS AND VALUES CAN BE CONVEYED THROUGH MUSIC. THIS EXPERIENCE IS DESIGNED TO PROVIDE STUDENTS WITH THE OPPORTUNITY TO THINK ABOUT AN ISSUE THAT IS IMPORTANT TO THEM AND TO INCORPORATE THEIR OWN MUSICAL PREFERENCES TO CREATE A SONG. THIS SONG WILL ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO FIND THEIR VOICE AND TO SET AN EXAMPLE USING MUSIC. STUDENT ACTIVITY.

STUDENT ACTIVITY
1. SELF-EXPRESSION CAN TAKE PLACE THROUGH MUSIC AND SONG. IN VARIOUS SITUATIONS INDIVIDUALS CHOOSE TO LISTEN TO VARIOUS SONGS AND ARTISTS TO BE COMFORTED, INSPIRED OR ENCOURAGED. IDENTIFY MUSICAL ARTISTS WHOM YOU WOULD CHOOSE TO LISTEN TO WHEN EXPERIENCING THE FOLLOWING EMOTIONS.
   * Joyfulness
   * Fear
   * Amusement
   * Grief (mourning)
   * Anger
   * Nervousness
   * Frustration
   * Disappointment
   * Depression
   * Enthusiasm

2. BEFORE EXPRESSING YOUR THOUGHTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION RELATED TO CHILDHOOD OBESETY,
LESSON THREE-FOUR BACKGROUND INFORMATION
FROM KOZES & POSNER, 2006, P. 2-3

WHEN STUDENTS DESCRIBE THEIR PERSONAL-BEST PROJECTS, THEY TOLD OF TIMES DURING WHICH THEY IMAGINED AN EXCITING, HIGHLY ATTRACTIVE FUTURE FOR THEMSELVES OR SOCIETY. LEADERS ARE DRIVEN BY THEIR CLEAR IMAGE OF POSSIBILITY AND WHAT THEY CAN BECOME OR ACCOMPLISH. STUDENT LEADERS INSPIRE A SHARED VISION BY ENVISIONING THE FUTURE AND ENLISTING OTHERS IN A COMMON VISION.

LEADERS PASSIONATELY BELIEVE THEY CAN MAKE A DIFFERENCE. THEY HAVE A DESIRE TO MAKE SOMETHING BETTER THAN IT IS TODAY, CHANGE THE WAY THINGS ARE, AND CREATE SOMETHING THAT NO ONE ELSE HAS EVER PRODUCED. YET VISIONS SEEN ONLY BY LEADERS ARE INSUFFICIENT TO CREATE AN ORGANIZED MOVEMENT OR SIGNIFICANT CHANGE IN A PRODUCT, LET ALONE SOCIETY. LEADERS CANNOT COMMAND COMMITMENT; THEY CAN ONLY INSPIRE IT. WHAT MAY BEGIN AS “MY” VISION EMERGES AS “OUR” VISION.

TO ENLIST OTHERS IN A VISION, LEADERS MUST GET TO KNOW OTHERS AND PRACTICE DIALOGING WITH THEM. LEADERS CREATE A UNITY OF PURPOSE BY SHOWING OTHERS HOW THE ACTIVITY IS FOR THE COMMON GOOD. LEADERS BREATHE LIFE INTO VISIONS THROUGH VIVID LANGUAGE AND EXPRESSIVE STYLE. THEIR OWN ENTHUSIASM AND EXCITEMENT ARE CONTAGIOUS AND SPREAD FROM THE LEADER TO OTHERS. THEIR BELIEF IN AND ENTHUSIASM FOR THE VISION ARE THE SPARKS THAT IGNITE THE FLAME OF INSPIRATION. LEADERS UPLIFT PEOPLE’S SPIRITS WITH A PERSPECTIVE ABOUT WHY THEY SHOULD STRIVE TO BE BETTER THAN THEY ARE TODAY.

ARE YOU READY TO CREATE A MISSION THAT WILL INSPIRE OTHERS TO WORK WITH YOU IN ADDRESSING THE ISSUE OF CHILDHOOD OBESITY?
A LEADER NEVER LOSES THEIR BearinG ON THE FUTURE AND YET GIVES Their GREATEST ATTENTION TO THE PRESENT.

BRIAN SCHUBING

INSPIRE A SHARED VISION

THE AIM OF THIS LESSON IS FOR STUDENTS TO:
- Improve understanding of leadership vision and goal setting for various life roles as an individual, community member, and in the workplace.

PARTICIPANTS WILL:
- Expand their thinking: understand the concept of vision, begin to form their own visions as leaders, understand how goals relate to vision.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:
- Square the sights; defining vision; on a mission window on the future; sharing stories; wear your challenge.

LESSON 3/4 PREPARATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

PREPARATION

1. Create a square diagram large enough for the total group to see. This might be on a transparency, display board or newspaper. You will need something to cover it up before and after students look at it. If it is important that all shapes be actual squares.

2. Present a copy of school or district mission, if possible, wcc mission if applicable.

3. Ask students to come prepared with blank paper and a pen or pencil.

LESSON OUTLINE

SQUARES SIGHTED IS MIND. AFTER STUDENTS HAVE A DRAWER AND TAKEN THEIR PLACES, EXPLAIN THAT THIS SESSION’S FIRST ACTIVITY IS A VISION TEST. MEASURE SQUARES FOR STUDENTS TO SHUTTLE COUNT AS MANY SQUARES THEY SEE. COVER THE DIAGRAM AFTER 30 SECONDS. ASK STUDENTS TO TELL HOW MANY SQUARES THEY COUNTED. HAVE A STUDENT WHO SPOTTED THE HIGHEST NUMBER OF SQUARES USE THE DIAGRAM TO EXPLAIN HIS OR HER COUNT, IF NEEDED POINT OUT OTHER SQUARES THAT NO STUDENTS COUNTED. HINT: THERE ARE AT LEAST 16 SQUARES.

ASK HOW MANY STUDENTS DO NOT COUNT THE HIGHEST-OFFER SQUARES. EXPLAIN THAT IT IS NOT UNUSUAL TO MISS “THE BIG PICTURE.” SOMETIMES WE GET SO BUSY COUNTING THE LITTLE THINGS IN LIFE THAT WE MISS HOW THEY FIT TOGETHER INTO A WHOLE. LEADERS SEE THE BIG PICTURE. THEY HAVE A VISION THAT INSPIRES THEM TO SET AND REACH GOALS.

DEFINING VISION IS MIND. ASK STUDENTS WHAT THE WORD “VISION” MEANS TO THEM. MOST ORGANIZATIONS, SCHOOLS, ETC. HAVE VISION STATEMENTS OR MISSION STATEMENTS. REVIEW THE SCHOOL’S VISION STATEMENT, IF POSSIBLE. SHARE THE FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES VISION STATEMENT AND FCC MISSION STATEMENT IF APPLICABLE. MAKE THE FOLLOWING POINTS:

1. A VISION IS AN ESSENTIAL PART OF A LEADER’S MISSION. IT IS WHAT THEY SEE. A VISION STATEMENT CLARIFIES YOUR DIRECTION.

2. A SUCCESSFUL LEADER DEVELOPS A CLEAR PICTURE OF WHAT THEY WANT. “IF YOU WANT TO DO SOMETHING SIGNIFICANT, ACCOMPLISH SOMETHING NO ONE ELSE HAS YET ACHIEVED AND PERSONALITY BELIEFS IN SOMETHINGS AND BE INSPIRED BEFORE THEY CAN EFFECTIVELY INSPIRE OTHERS.” (KOZLES & POSNER, 2002, P. 1131).

3. SPEAKER AND TRAINER MIKE HENDRICKSON SAYS, “LEADERS HAVE TWO CHARACTERISTICS. FIRST, THEY ARE GOING SOMEWHERE. SECOND, THEY ARE ABLE TO PERSUADE OTHER PEOPLE TO GO WITH THEM.” THE VISION WHERE WE ARE GOING IS An IMPORTANT FIRST STEP IN LEADERSHIP. IT’S HOW LEADERS MOVE OTHERS FORWARD.

4. LEADERSHIP CONSULTANT GARY GOODMAN SAYS, “YOU WILL NEVER SEE GREATNESS IN A VISION THAT GUIDES YOU.” WHAT DOES THAT TELL US ABOUT THE IMPORTANCE OF CREATING AN INSPIRED VISION?

5. MINI-SESSION: DIVIDE PARTICIPANTS INTO SIX WORK GROUPS. GIVE EACH GROUP ONE OF THE SHEETS WITH COPIES OF VARIOUS MISSION STATEMENTS. EACH WORK GROUP MUST WRITE A MISSION STATEMENT THAT RELATES TO THE CONCEPT AND POINTS TOWARD A SUCCESSFUL FUTURE. FIRST GROUPS SHOULD DISCUSS WHAT THEIR PHRASE MEANS. THEN THEY SHOULD WRITE A RELATED MISSION STATEMENT THAT FITS IN THE BLANKS ON THE CARPET. IF TIME ALLOWS, GROUPS MAY THINK OF A CREATIVE WAY TO SHARE THEIR MISSION STATEMENTS WITH THE TOTAL GROUP. FIFTEEN MINUTES FOR GROUP WORK. HAVE WORK GROUPS PRESENT THEIR MISSION STATEMENTS TO THE TOTAL GROUP. AFTER ALL HAVE SHARED, REVIEW THE PROVIDED MISSES.

WINDOW ON THE FUTURE

HAVE STUDENTS CREATE THEIR OWN WINDOW. ASK THEM TO WRITE A PERSONAL VISION STATEMENT IN EACH WINDOW. IN EACH WINDOW, IN THE LABELLED AREAS, THEY SHOULD WRITE THEIR VISIONS FOR THE LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOL, FAMILY, COMMUNITY, AND CAREER. EXPLAIN THAT VISIONS SHOULD BE:

1. POSITIVE FOR THEMSELVES AND OTHERS.

2. BIG ENOUGH TO BE MOTIVATIONAL.

3. CLEARLY EXPRESSED, VIVID AND COLORFUL.

4. SIMPLE YET DESCRIPTIVE ALLOW 4-5 MINUTES. ASK STUDENTS TO SHARE THEIR VISION STATEMENTS.
LESSON OUTLINE CONTINUED

STEPS TO VISION: (1) EXPLAIN THAT VISION IS THE FIRST STEP TOWARD DYNAMIC LEADERSHIP AND GOALS ARE THE NEXT STEPS. DYNAMIC LEADERS WORK TOWARD THEIR VISION BY SETTING AND REACHING GOALS. GOALS WILL BE STEPPING STONES TO YOUR VISION. IMAGINE USING A MAP TO PAVE THE WAY TO THE VISION IN YOUR "WINDOW ON THE FUTURE".

LEAD THE TOTAL GROUP THROUGH AN EXERCISE TO BRAINSTORM AND PLACE "STEPPING STONE" GOALS. ASK FOR A SAMPLE VISION IN ONE OF THE KEY AREAS OF LIFE: FAMILY, COMMUNITY, AND CAREER. DISPLAY SAMPLES PROVIDED. ASK STUDENTS TO BRAINSTORM THINGS THEY WOULD NEED TO DO TO ACHIEVE THAT VISION. HAVE THEM OFFER THE STEPS AS GOALS.

EMPHASIZE "THE STRONGEST" GOALS ARE SPECIFIC YOU CAN TELL WHAT WHEN IT IS DONE. FOR EXAMPLE, YOUR GOAL MIGHT BE TO TAKE OFFICIAL MINUTES FOR EVERY MEETING OF THE COMMUNITY SERVICE COMMITTEE IN THE NEXT THREE MONTHS. WRITE THE GOALS ON A "STEPPING STONE" CUT OUT PROVIDED. THEN HAVE STUDENTS DETERMINE THE ORDER IN WHICH TO PLACE THE STONES.

IF TIME ALLOWS, DIVIDE STUDENTS INTO THREE WORK GROUPS TO BUILD STEPPING STONE PATHS TOWARDS VISIONS IN THE VARIOUS AREAS.

WRAP UP AND CHALLENGE

DISCUSS "THE BIG PICTURE". REVIEW THE SESSIONS KEY POINTS: IT IS IMPORTANT TO FOCUS ON THE "BIG PICTURE" OF LIFE. DYNAMIC LEADERS HAVE A VISION OF WHAT THEY WANT TO ACHIEVE. VISION IS IMPORTANT IN FAMILIES, CAREERS, AND COMMUNITIES; DYNAMIC LEADERS SET AND REACH GOALS TO ACHIEVE THEIR VISION. SHARE WITH STUDENTS AN INSIGHT FROM SPEAKER AND TRAINER PATY YENKIN, "VISION IS TO INDIVIDUALS AND ORGANIZATIONS WHAT SUNLIGHT IS TO A PLANT. THE PLANT GROWS TOWARD THE SUN, WE GROW TOWARD THE VISION. CHALLENGE STUDENTS TO CREATE A VISION FOR THEIR OWN DYNAMIC LEADERSHIP.

BEGIN TO INTERACT WITH THE PUBLIC FORUM DOCUMENTS CREATED BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES TO HELP IN THE CREATION OF A VISION, VISION, ETC.
LESSON 5-6
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
FROM KOUZES & POSNER, 2006, P. 34

LEADERS VENTURE OUT. THOSE WHO LEAD OTHERS TO GREATNESS SEEK AND ACCEPT CHALLENGES. EVERY SINGLE PERSONAL BEST LEADERSHIP CASE KOUZES AND POSNER (2006) COLLECTED INVOLVED SOME KIND OF CHALLENGE. NOT ONE PERSON SAID HE OR SHE ACHIEVED A PERSONAL BEST BY KEEPING THINGS THE SAME. STUDENT LEADERS CHALLENGE THE PROCESS BY SEARCHING FOR OPPORTUNITIES BY EXPERIMENTING, TAKING RISKS, AND LEARNING FROM MISTAKES.

THE CURRENT RESEARCH STUDY REQUIRES YOU TO DO JUST THAT...CHALLENGE THE PROCESS ASSOCIATED WITH CHILDHOOD OBESITY. HOW CAN THIS ISSUE BE RESOLVED, THE IMPACTS ON SOCIETY DIMINISHED, ETC?

LEADERS ARE PIONEERS, THEY ARE WILLING TO STEP OUT INTO THE UNKNOWN. THE WORK OF LEADERS IS CHANGES, AND THE STATUS QUO IS UNACCEPTABLE TO THEM. THEY SEARCH FOR OPPORTUNITIES TO INNOVATE, GROW, AND IMPROVE. THIS IS YOUR OPPORTUNITY, BUT LEADERS NEED NOT ALWAYS BE THE CREATORS AND ORIGINATORS. IN FACT, IT'S JUST AS LIKELY THAT THEY'RE NOT. SOMETIMES A DRAMATIC EXTERNAL EVENT THRUSTS A GROUP OF PEOPLE INTO A RADICALLY NEW SOLUTION. THEREFORE, LEADERS MUST REMAIN OPEN TO RECEIVING IDEAS FROM ANYONE AND ANYWHERE. THE LEADER'S PRIMARY CONTRIBUTION IS IN RECOGNIZING AND SUPPORTING GOOD IDEAS AND IN BEING WILLING TO CHALLENGE THE SYSTEM TO GET NEW PRODUCTS, PROCESSES, SERVICES, AND IDEAS ADOPTED.

IN TAKING ONE STEP AT A TIME, LEADERS STRENGTHEN COMMITMENT TO THE LONG-TERM FUTURE. EXTRAORDINARY THINGS DON'T GET DONE IN HUGE LEAPS FORWARD.
LESSON 5.6

CHALLENGE THE PROCESS

As stated by Rouleau & Roseman (2002, p. 177) to search for opportunities to do extraordinary things done, leaders make use of four essentials:

1. SEIZE THE OPPORTUNITY
2. MAKE CHALLENGE MEANINGFUL
3. INNOVATE AND CREATE
4. LOOK OUTWARD FOR FRESH IDEAS

Further, Rouleau & Roseman (2002, p. 177) explain how leaders take charge of change through instilling a sense of adventure in others. They look for ways to break away from the status quo and continuously scan their surroundings for new and fresh ideas. Leaders always search for opportunities for ways to do what has never been done.

The aim of this lesson is for students to:

1. TEACH PARTICIPANTS A FIVE-STEP PLANNING PROCESS THAT THEY CAN USE TO TURN IDEAS INTO ACTIONS IN SCHOOL, FAMILIES, CAREERS, AND COMMUNITIES.

WE ALL HAVE TO ASK Ourselves, "How do I go from today and do something that will move the enterprise and myself another step in the right direction?"

ELAINE PORTER
ACTIVITY ONE: CREATING GROUP TEAMWORK RULES

WHOLE GROUP:
1. Talk about the importance of working together as a group and ask students to think of a time when rules helped a group or team they were part of.
2. Read the following passage to the students:
   
   If you make a mess, clean it up. If you borrow something, return it. If you make a promise, keep it. If you start something, finish it. If you hurt someone, apologize. The only person who can take responsibility for your actions is you. No one else can make you do your homework; it’s up to you. It’s up to you, and you alone. Whenever you find yourself about to make an excuse or blame someone else for a problem, ask yourself: “Did I really do the right thing? Is there something I should be fixing?” If the answer is yes, step up and fix it. It takes a big person to accept responsibility without blaming you. What to do? You’re ready, and you can do it.

3. Have students brainstorm rules that they are familiar with and that they think would help their group work together. Write their suggestions on the whiteboard or chart paper.

   Examples might include:
   - Be on time
   - Respect others’ opinions
   - Respect others’ beliefs
   - Try to listen carefully to all points of view
   - No put-downs
   - What is said here stays here, everyone gets a turn before someone gets a second turn to listen
   - Share and everyone has the right to pass

4. Work with the group to identify and agree to a set of rules for the group.

   SMALL GROUP:
   1. Have each group design a pennant and write their group’s rules. Then display the pennants. How can the rules be a source of pride?

   ACTIVITY TWO:

   WHOLE GROUP:
   1. Introduce the students to this activity by explaining the following:
   - This activity is about working together as a group.
   - Be open to new ideas without criticism.
   - Everyone should be allowed to express their ideas.
   - Everyone should stand and shoulder in a straight line.
   - Everyone should be able to speak with others.
   - The goal is to make a triangle as a group.
   - At no time are you to stop the rope or change places.
   - Sound easy? Oh, I forgot to tell you that you will be blindfolded.

   LESSON SEVEN

   ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT

   THE AIM OF THIS LESSON IS FOR STUDENTS TO

   1. Develop shared rules for working together in the group.
   2. To engage students in a group activity that emphasizes cooperation, trust, and leadership.


   COOPERATION IMPROVES PERFORMANCE.
   “Collaboration is the critical competency for achieving and sustaining high performance, especially in the Internet Age. It won’t be the ability to merely compete but the ability to harmoniously cooperate that will determine success.” (P. 241)

   CREATE A CLIMATE OF TRUST.
   “Trust is at the heart of collaboration and teamwork. The central issue in human relationships within and outside a group is trust.” (P. 244) “Without trust you cannot get extraordinary things done.” (P. 244)

   FACILITATE POSITIVE INTERDEPENDENCE.
   “Nothing is more constructive than collaboration between individuals.” (P. 244) “Understanding others means understanding how to work together.” (P. 244) “The goal is to make a triangle as a group.” (P. 244)
TEAM MEMBERS FELT STRONG AND CAPABLE BECAUSE THEIR INPUT MADE A DIFFERENCE. SUPPORT OTHERS, AND THEY ARE MORE LIKELY TO SUPPORT YOU.

MAUREEN RANE

ACTIVITY TWO CONTINUED...

2. BEGIN THE ACTIVITY. THE STUDENTS WILL LEARN THAT BY LISTENING TO ONE ANOTHER AND COOPERATING THEY CAN COME UP WITH STRATEGIES TO DIVIDE THE LINE, TO COME TOGETHER, ETC. THEY’RE LIKELY TO DISCOVER THAT SUCCESS DEPENDS UPON CHOOSING AND FOLLOWING A LEADER.

3. END THE ACTIVITY BEFORE THERE IS TOO MUCH FRUSTRATION OR WHEN THEY ACHIEVE THE GOAL. ALLOW ENOUGH TIME FOR A VARIETY OF STRATEGIES TO BE SUGGESTED AND TRIED.

4. LEAD A DISCUSSION BASED ON THE FOLLOWUP QUESTIONS BELOW. SHARE WITH STUDENTS WHAT WAS SAID AND WHAT YOU OBSERVED DURING THE ACTIVITY.

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:
1. WERE THERE LEADERS IN THE GROUP? WHAT DID THEY DO OR SAY TO LEAD?
2. WHAT GROUP BEHAVIORS WERE HELPFUL, WHICH WERE NOT?
3. OVERALL, WHAT DID YOU LEARN FROM THIS EXPERIENCE?

NOTE TO TEACHER

WHILE THE STUDENTS DO THIS ACTIVITY, TAKE NOTES ABOUT THEIR ACTIONS AND COMMENTS WHILE THEY WORK TOGETHER TO FIGURE OUT HOW TO ACCOMPLISH THE GOAL. THIS WILL BE HELPFUL DURING THE DISCUSSION AFTER THE ACTIVITY.

ON LEADERSHIP

ELEANOR ROOSEVELT

YOU GAIN STRENGTH, COURAGE AND CONFIDENCE BY EVERY EXPERIENCE IN WHICH YOU REALLY STOP TO LOOK FEAR IN THE FACE. YOU MUST DO THE THING YOU THINK YOU CANNOT DO.

COCO CHANEL

IT IS AMAZING HOW MANY CARES DISAPPEAR WHEN YOU DECIDE NOT TO BE SOMETHING, BUT TO BE SOMEONE.

KAREN KAISER CLARK

LIFE IS CHANGE. GROWTH IS OPTIONAL. CHOOSE WISELY.

RALPH NADER

I START WITH THE PREMISE THAT THE FUNCTION OF LEADERSHIP IS TO PRODUCE MORE LEADERS, NOT MORE FOLLOWERS.

ADMIRAL ARLEIGH A. BURKE

LEADERSHIP IS UNDERSTANDING PEOPLE AND INVOLVING THEM TO HELP YOU DO A JOB. THAT TAKES ALL OF THE GOOD CHARACTERISTICS, LIKE INTEGRITY, DEDICATION OF PURPOSE, SELFLESSNESS, KNOWLEDGE, SKILL, IMPLICABILITY, AS WELL AS DETERMINATION NOT TO ACCEPT FAILURE.

MARGARET MEAD

NEVER DOUBT THAT A SMALL GROUP OF THOUGHTFUL, COMMITTED CITIZENS CAN CHANGE THE WORLD. INDEED IT IS THE ONLY THING THAT EVER HAS.
LESSON 8
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
FROM Kouzes & Posner, 2006, P. 4-5
LEADERS KNOW THEY CAN'T DO IT ALONE. LEADERSHIP IS A TEAM EFFORT. STUDENTS ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT BY FOSTERING COLLABORATION AND STRENGTHENING OTHERS.

COLLABORATION IS THE MASTER SKILL THAT ENABLES TEAMS, PARTNERSHIPS, AND OTHER ALLIANCES TO FUNCTION EFFECTIVELY. SO LEADERS ENGAGE ALL THOSE WHO MUST MAKE THE PROJECT WORK AND, IN SOME WAY, ALL THOSE WHO MUST LIVE WITH THE RESULTS. COOPERATION CAN'T BE RESTRICTED TO A SMALL GROUP OF INDIVIDUALS. LEADERS MAKE IT POSSIBLE FOR EVERYONE TO DO EXTRAORDINARY WORK.

AT THE VERY HEART OF COOPERATION IS TRUST. LEADERS HELP CREATE A TRUSTING CLIMATE. THEY UNDERSTAND THAT MUTUAL RESPECT IS WHAT SUSTAINS EXTRAORDINARY EFFORTS. WHEN LEADERSHIP IS UNDERSTOOD AS A RELATIONSHIP FOUNDED ON TRUST AND CONFIDENCE, PEOPLE TAKE RISKS; MAKE CHANGES; AND KEEP PROGRAMS, ORGANIZATIONS, AND MOVEMENTS ALIVE. WITHOUT TRUST AND CONFIDENCE, PEOPLE DO NOT TAKE RISKS. WITHOUT RISKS, THERE IS NO CHANGE.

CREATING A CLIMATE IN WHICH PEOPLE ARE INVOLVED AND FEEL IMPORTANT IS AT THE HEART OF STRENGTHENING OTHERS. IT'S ESSENTIALLY THE PROCESS OF TURNING OTHERS INTO LEADERS THEMSELVES.

EXEMPLARY LEADERS USE THEIR POWER IN SERVICE OF OTHERS; THEY ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT, NOT BY HOARDING THE POWER THEY HAVE, BUT BY GIVING IT AWAY.

A FOODS AND NUTRITION LAB OPPORTUNITY
BY CREATING AND INFUSING A LABORATORY FOODS EXPERIENCE INTO THE SERIES OF LESSONS, STUDENTS WILL HAVE THE OPPORTUNITY TO PRACTICE THEIR TEAMWORK SKILLS AND ABILITIES BEFORE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PUBLIC FORUM. THIS IS A TEACHER CHOICE LESSON, WHERE YOU CAN DESIGN A FOODS LAB THAT IS APPROPRIATE FOR YOUR STUDENTS AND CLASSROOM SETTING.
LESSON 9
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
FROM KOUZES & POSNER, 2006, P. 5-6
Genuine acts of caring uplift the spirits and draw people forward. Student leaders encourage the heart by recognizing contributions and celebrating values and victories. Exemplary leaders set high standards and have high expectations of their organizations. Leaders also expect the best of people and create self-fulfilling prophecies about how ordinary people can produce extraordinary results. By paying attention, offering encouragement, personalizing appreciation, and maintaining a positive outlook, student leaders stimulate, rekindle, and focus people's energies.

Part of the leader's job is to show appreciation for people's contributions and to create a climate of celebration. Encouragement can come from dramatic gestures or simple actions. Caring is at the heart of leadership.

CONNECTIONS TO THE CULINARY WORLD
Many chefs across the nation, and the world, have used their fame and finances to contribute to various social issues impacting our society.

Through taking a virtual tour, explore some of the different leadership practices various chefs have participated in...

SHARE OUR STRENGTH
www.strength.org
FIGHTING HUNGER & POVERTY
http://www.strength.org/response/people/

EMERIL LAGASSE FOUNDATION
www.emeril.org

TASTE OF THE NATION
http://www.tasteofthenation.org/site/PageServer?pagename=homepage

OPERATION FRONTLINE
http://www.strength.org/what/operationfrontline/

A TASTEFUL PURSUIT
http://www.strength.org/atastefulpursuit/

THE GREAT AMERICAN BAKE SALE
http://www.strength.org/gabs/about/

HUNGER HEROES
http://www.strength.org/response/people/
# Lesson 9

## Encourage the Heart

### Heroes

1. A person noted for feats of courage or nobility of purpose, especially one who has risked his/her life
2. A person noted for special achievement in a particular field

### Mentors

1. A wise and trusted counselor or teacher, especially in work settings

### Role Models

1. A person who serves as an example to be imitated
2. An ideal, a standard for comparison

## Lesson 9 Activities

### Whole Group:

1. Put the above terms and their dictionary definitions on the white/chalkboard or chart paper leaving room to list examples under each.

2. Ask students to suggest people that fit each category. You might want to supply them with a few suggestions to get them thinking, such as: Martin Luther King, Jr., parents or other caregivers, volunteer tutors, firefighters, Mother Teresa

3. Ask what these people have in common. Do they all show characteristics of a leader?

### Individual Reflection:

1. Have each student list all of the individuals they can characterize as heroes, mentors, and role models.

2. Each student should choose one person for each category from the list and write a short narrative explaining how that individual is a hero, mentor, or role model.

3. Create an award certificate, write a letter, honor each individual identified in some way. If the leader is a local person, the certificate, letter, etc. can be presented to the leader in person.

### Journal Entry:

1. Students should document a personal story about a time when they were (or could be) a hero, mentor, or role model.
PUBLIC DELIBERATION
A MEANS FOR CITIZENS TO MAKE TOUGH CHOICES ABOUT THE BASIC PURPOSE AND DIRECTION FOR THEIR COMMUNITIES AND COUNTRY.A WAY OF REASONING AND TALKING TOGETHER. IT IS NEITHER A PARTISAN ARGUMENT WHERE OPPOSING SIDES TRY TO WIN, NOR A CASUAL CONVERSATION CONDUCTED WITH POLITE CIVILITY.

DELIBERATIVE FORUMS
A SAFE NON-PARTISAN VENUE FOR CITIZENS TO STRUGGLE WITH CHALLENGING ISSUES FACING THEIR COMMUNITIES AND NATION. THESE FORUMS ARE BASED ON THE IDEA THAT IN A DEMOCRACY CITIZENS HAVE A RESPONSIBILITY TO GET TOGETHER TO TALK THROUGH THEIR COMMON CONCERNS, TO WEIGH POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS TO ADDRESS THESE PROBLEMS AND EVENTUALLY SEND SIGNALS TO OFFICEHOLDERS AND OTHERS ABOUT THE DESIRED DIRECTION FOR PUBLIC ACTION. THIS IS HOW A PUBLIC PUTS ITS SOCIAL CAPITAL TO WORK.

DELIBERATIVE ACTION
OCCURS WHEN PARTICIPANTS GAIN A SENSE OF WHAT STEPS MAY BE TAKEN ON AN ISSUE AS A RESULT OF THE FORUM. MANY “PRODUCTS” OR ACTIONS CAN RESULT FROM FORUMS; SOME CAN BE READILY OBSERVED AND MANY CANNOT.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION
ABOUT 655 MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES (AAFCS) RESPONDED TO A SURVEY TO DETERMINE IF THEY BELIEVE THAT OBESITY IS A PROBLEM, TO GATHER INSIGHTS REGARDING THE CAUSE OF THE PROBLEM AND TO GATHER IDEAS REGARDING WHAT SHOULD BE DONE TO ADDRESS THIS PROBLEM.

SURVEY RESPONDENTS OVERWHELMINGLY EXPRESSED CONCERN FOR THE OBESITY EPIDEMIC FACING OUR COUNTRY. THEY OFFERED A VARIETY OF SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS FOR THE PROBLEM THAT HAVE IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC POLICIES THAT MIGHT BE IMPLEMENTED TO ADDRESS THIS COMPLEX AND CHALLENGING SOCIAL PROBLEM. NOW IT IS YOUR CHANCE TO CONTRIBUTE TO THE PROPOSED SOLUTIONS.

THE SIZING UP AMERICA: PUBLIC POLICY DELIBERATION GUIDE IS DESIGNED TO BE USED TO CONDUCT DELIBERATIVE FORMS ACROSS THE UNITED STATES. THESE FORUMS ARE DESIGNED TO DISCOVER A COMMON GROUND ON THE ISSUE OF OBESITY.

BEFORE LEGITIMATE ACTION PUBLIC ACTION CAN BE TAKEN, THE PUBLIC VOICE MUST BE HEARD. PUBLIC VOICE INCLUDES THE JUDGMENTS PEOPLE MAKE ABOUT THE PURPOSE AND DIRECTIONS OF THEIR COMMUNITIES, STATES, AND THE NATION. THE PUBLIC VOICE IS OBTAINED BY CAREFULLY CONSIDERING WHAT PEOPLE THINK ABOUT A GIVEN ISSUE AND FURTHER WHAT THEY WANT TO DO TO ADDRESS IT WITH ANY LOCAL, STATE, OR NATIONAL ACTION OR POLICY. MOVING CITIZENS TO COMMON GROUND OFTEN REQUIRES A POSITIVE CATALYST. YOU CAN BE THAT CATALYST.
APPENDIX C

STUDENT LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY-SELF
STUDENT LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY - SELF

Instructions

On the next two pages are thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then rate yourself in terms of how frequently you engage in the behavior described. This is not a test (there are no right or wrong answers). The usefulness of the feedback from this inventory will depend on how honest you are with yourself and how frequently you actually engage in each of these behaviors.

Consider each statement in the context of your student organization with which you are now (or have been most) involved. This organization could be a club, team, chapter, group, unit, hall, program, project, and the like. As you respond to each statement, maintain a consistent perspective to your particular organization. The rating scale provides five choices. Circle the number that best applies to each statement:

(1) If you RARELY or SELDOM do what is described
(2) If you do what is described ONCE IN A WHILE
(3) If you SOMETIMES do what is described
(4) If you OFTEN do what is described
(5) If you VERY FREQUENTLY or ALMOST ALWAYS do what is described

In selecting the response, be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in the behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you wish to see yourself or in terms of what you should be doing. Answer in terms of how you typically behave.

For example, the first statement is, "I set a personal example of what I expect from other people." If you believe you do this once in a while, circle the number 2. If you believe you do this often, circle the number 4. Select and circle only one option (response number) for each statement.

Please respond to every statement. If you can't respond to a statement (or feel that it doesn't apply), circle a 1. When you have responded to all thirty statements, please turn to the response sheet on the back page and transfer your responses as instructed.
# Student Leadership Practices Inventory - Self

How frequently do you typically engage in the following behaviors and actions? Circle the number to the right of each statement, using the scale below, that best applies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I set a personal example of what I expect from other people.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I look ahead and communicate about what I believe will affect us in the future.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I look around for ways to develop and challenge my skills and abilities</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I foster cooperative rather than competitive relationships among people I work with</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I praise people for a job well done.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I spend time and energy making sure that people in our organization adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed upon.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I describe to others in our organization what we should be capable of accomplishing.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I look for ways that others can try out new ideas and methods.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I encourage others as they work on activities and programs in our organization.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I follow through on the promises and commitments I make in this organization.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I talk with others about sharing a vision of how much better the organization could be in the future.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I keep current on events and activities that might affect our organization.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I treat others with dignity and respect.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I give people in our organization support and express appreciation for their contributions.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RARELY OR Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I find ways to get feedback about how my actions affect other people's performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I talk with others about how their own interests can be met by working toward a common goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>When things do not go as we expected, I ask, &quot;What can we learn from this experience?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I support the decisions that other people in our organization make on their own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I make it a point to publicly recognize people who show commitment to our values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I build consensus on an agreed-upon set of values for our organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I am upbeat and positive when talking about what our organization stands to accomplish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I make sure that we set goals and make specific plans for the projects we undertake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I give others a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I find ways to value and celebrate accomplishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I talk about the values and principles that guide my actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I speak with conviction about the higher purpose and meaning of what we are doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I take initiative in experimenting with the way we can do things in our organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I provide opportunities for others to take on leadership responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I make sure that people in our organization are creatively recognized for their contributions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transferring the Responses

After you have responded to the thirty statements on the previous two pages, please transfer your responses to the blanks below. This will make it easier to record and score your responses.

Notice that the numbers of the statements are listed horizontally across the page. Make sure that the number you assigned to each statement is transferred to the appropriate blank. Remember to fill in a response option (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) for every statement.

1. _____  2. _____  3. _____  4. _____  5. _____
26. _____  27. _____  28. _____  29. _____  30. _____
PART TWO

1. Gender  Male or Female

2. Number of work experiences

3. Number of memberships in student organizations

4. Number of leadership positions held
APPENDIX D

KOUZES & POSNER LETTER OF PERMISSION
April 30, 2006

Ms. Lindsey Shirley
219 Cherry Street
Moscow, Idaho 83843

Dear Lindsey:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

(1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
(2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivative of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2005 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission."
(3) That one (1) bound copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent promptly to our attention; and,
(4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

[Signature]

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) ___________________________ Date: ___________________________
APPENDIX E

IRB LETTER OF APPROVAL
DATE: September 12, 2006
TO: Dr. Lindsey Shirley
219 Cherry Street, Moscow, ID 83843
CC: Dr. Beverly Kruempel
30 E Mackay
FROM: Jan Canny, IRB Administrator
Office of Research Assurances
SUBJECT: IRB ID D9-394

Approval Date: 11 September 2006
Date for Continuing Review: 10 September 2007

The Co-Chair of the Institutional Review Board of Iowa State University has reviewed and approved the protocol entitled, "Leadership Development Integrated Curriculum for Middle School Family and Consumer Sciences Students." The protocol has been assigned the following ID Number: D9-394. Please refer to this number in all correspondence regarding the protocol.

Your study has been approved from September 11, 2006 to September 10, 2007. The continuing review date for this study is no later than September 10, 2007. Federal regulations require continuing review of ongoing projects. Please submit the form with sufficient time (i.e., three to four weeks) for the IRB to review and approve continuation of the study, prior to the continuing review date.

Failure to complete and submit the continuing review form will result in expiration of IRB approval on the continuing review date and the file will be administratively closed. All research related activities involving the participants must stop on the continuing review date. until approval can be re-established, except when necessary to eliminate immediate hazard to research participants. As a courtesy to you, we will send a reminder of the approaching review prior to this date.

Please remember that any changes in the protocol or consent form may not be implemented without prior IRB review and approval, using the "Continuing Review and/or Modification" form. Research investigators are expected to comply with the principles of the Belmont Report, and state and federal regulations regarding the involvement of humans in research. These documents are located on the Office of Research Assurances website or available by calling (515) 294-4969, www.compliance.iastate.edu.

You must promptly report any of the following to the IRB: (1) all serious and/or unexpected adverse experiences involving risks to subjects or others; and (2) any other unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.

Upon completion of the project, please submit a Project Closure Form to the Office of Research Assurances, 1138 Pearson Hall, to officially close the project.
APPENDIX F

INFORMED CONSENT AND INFORMED ASSENT
INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Title of Study: Leadership Development Integrated Curriculum for Middle School Family and Consumer Sciences Students

Investigators: Lindsey Shirley
219 Cherry Street, Moscow, ID 83843, 208-596-0332,
lshirley@uidaho.edu

Dr. Beverly Krusemp
Iowa State University
30th MacKay, Ames, IA 50011, 515-294-0864
bjkl@iastate.edu

This is a research study. Please take your time in deciding if you would like your son or daughter to participate. Please feel free to ask questions at any time.

INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this study is to respond to the need of the development of desirable leadership practices of adolescents through the implementation of a curriculum unit integrating leadership opportunities with emphasis on the social issue of childhood obesity (which directly impacts youth today). Your son or daughter is invited to participate in this study because of his/her enrollment as a current student in a Family and Consumer Sciences course, Teen Living within Idaho.

DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURES
If you agree to allow your son/daughter to participate in this study, his/her participation will last for two-weeks during scheduled class time. During the study your son or daughter may expect the following study procedures to be followed. He/she will be asked to complete a survey about current leadership practices; he/she will be asked to participate in experiential learning activities integrating leadership into the current Teen Living curriculum over a two-week span; he/she will be asked to conduct a public forum focusing on the issue of childhood obesity within your community with assistance and guidance from teacher and researcher; finally, he/she will be asked to take the Leadership Practices Inventory at final time as a posttest in regards to his/her leadership practices. Your son or daughter may skip any question that he or she does not wish to answer or that makes him or her feel uncomfortable.

RISKS
While participating in this study your son or daughter may experience the following risks: there are no foreseeable risks at this time from participating in this study that are not common within the secondary education setting and occur in the life of minors in daily life occurrences. All participants will be reminded to be sensitive to each other because of the nature of the social issue, childhood obesity, and the impact it has on young people within our society today.
BENEFITS
If you decide to allow your son or daughter to participate in this study there may be no direct benefit to him or her. A benefit is defined as an "anticipated outcome or advantage". It is hoped that the information gained in this study will benefit society by providing the results gained from this study to national initiatives developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences and the Kellogg Foundation: Sizing Up America's Public Policy Deliberation. The design of this research study allows for the funding of the issue of obesity in order to help combat the problem by placing research findings in the hands of citizens and public decision makers in a usable form. Open dialogue between policy makers and their constituents on an issue that has profound personal and societal implications on a number of outcomes, including health, psychological and economic well-being. An overarching benefit is the development of a usable curriculum for family and consumer sciences that utilizes teaching strategies that encourage students to think critically about issues that impact individuals, families, and communities across the nation.

ALTERNATIVES TO PARTICIPATION
An alternative to participation in the current study would be to complete an alternate curriculum, project or activity identified by classroom teacher during the two-week implementation period.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION
Your son or daughter will not have any costs from participating in this study. Your son or daughter will not be compensated for participating in this study.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS
Your son or daughter’s participation in this study is completely voluntary and he or she may refuse to participate or leave the study at any time. If he or she decides to not participate in the study, it will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which he or she is otherwise entitled.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your son or daughter’s records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: the data will only be available to the primary investigator and stored in a locked cabinet. Names and personal information of students will not be gathered in this research study. The only information gathered will be gender, work experience information, leadership positions held, and responses to the LFI. It will not be possible to connect the participant to the survey information due to the anonymity of responses. The personal information of students is not of importance in this study. If the results are published, your identity will remain confidential.

ORC 95:15
QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS
You are encouraged to ask questions at any time during this study.

- For further information about the study contact Lindsey Shirley, (208) 396-0332, lshirley@uidaho.edu or Dr. Beverly Kuenpel, (513)294-0864, bjk@biostate.edu.

- If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the IRB Administrator, (513) 294-4566, jsd@biostate.edu, or Diane Ament, Director, Office of Research Assurances, (513) 294-3113, danment@biostate.edu.

********************************************************************

PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE

Your signature indicates that you voluntarily agree to allow your son or daughter to participate in this study, that the study has been explained to you and your son or daughter, that you and your son or daughter have been given the time to read this document and that your questions have been satisfactorily answered. You will receive a copy of the written informed consent prior to your son or daughter’s participation in the study.

Participant’s Name (printed)

(Participant’s Signature) (Date)

(Signature of Parent/Guardian or Legally Authorized Representative) (Date)

INVESTIGATOR STATEMENT

I certify that the participant has been given adequate time to read and learn about the study and all of their questions have been answered. It is my opinion that the participant understands the purpose, risks, benefits and the procedures that will be followed in this study and has voluntarily agreed to participate.

(Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent) (Date)
INFORMED ASSENT DOCUMENT

Title of Study: Leadership Development Integrated Curriculum for Middle School Family and Consumer Sciences Students

Investigators: Lindsey Shirley
219 Cherry Street, Moscow, ID 83843, 208-896-9332, lshirley@uidaho.edu

Dr. Beverly Krueger
Iowa State University
306 MacKay, Ames, IA 50011, 515-294-0664
bik@iastate.edu

This is a research study. A research study is a way for professionals to look at something new, such as a new way to teach, learn, or complete a task to see how well it works. Research studies only include people who want to be in them. You are being asked to be in this study because you are taking a Family and Consumer Sciences course at school. Please take your time to make your decision. Please talk with your family about it and be sure to ask any questions that you may have.

INTRODUCTION
This study is being done to find out more information about the current leadership skills and abilities that you have. You will have the opportunity, if you choose, to participate in learning activities that focus on leadership-related information and a nutrition issue that directly impacts many young people today, childhood obesity.

DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURES
If you agree to participate in this study, your participation will last for two weeks during your scheduled class time. During the study you may expect to experience the following events.
1. You will be asked to complete a survey about your current leadership practices.
2. You will be asked to participate in learning activities involving leadership opportunities within your current Family and Consumer Sciences class over a two-week time frame.
3. You will be asked to plan a public forum/discussion focusing on the issue of childhood obesity within your community with assistance from teacher and researcher.
4. Finally, you will be asked to take the Leadership Practices Inventory a final time as a posttest asking you questions about your leadership practices. On the survey, you may skip any question that you do not wish to answer or that makes you feel uncomfortable.

RISKS
While participating in this study you may experience the following risks: there are no foreseeable risks at this time from participating in this study that are not common your everyday experiences in and out of school each day. All participants will be reminded to be sensitive to each other because of the nature of the social issue, childhood obesity, and the impact it has on young people within our society today.
BENEFITS
If you decide to participate in this study there may be no benefit to you (a benefit is defined as an "a desired outcome or advantage"). It is hoped that the information gained in this study will benefit society by providing the results from this study to a national project developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences and the Kellogg Foundation. Staying Up America Public Policy Deliberation. The design of this research study allows for you to investigate the issue of obesity in order to help combat the problem by giving decision makers the thoughts of your community on the issue. Open communication between policy makers and community members on an issue that impacts individuals and society in a number of ways, including health, psychological and economic will occur. An overall benefit is the creation of usable learning activities for family and consumer sciences that uses teaching strategies that encourage students to think critically about issues that impact individuals, families and communities across the nation.

ALTERNATIVES TO PARTICIPATION
An alternative to participation in the current study would be to complete an alternate curriculum, project or activity identified by classroom teacher during the two-week implementation period.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION
You will not have any costs from participating in this study. You will not be compensated for participating in this study.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS
Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may refuse to participate or leave the study at any time. If you decide to not participate in the study or leave the study early, it will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: the data will only be available to the primary investigator and stored in a locked cabinet. Names and personal information of students will not be gathered in this research study. The only information gathered will be gender, work experience information, leadership positions held, and responses to the Leadership Practices Inventory. It will not be possible to connect the participant to the survey information due to the anonymity of responses. The personal information of students is not of importance in this study, if the results are published, your identity will remain confidential.
QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS

You are encouraged to ask questions at any time during this study.

- For further information about the study contact Lindsay Shirley, (208) 396-0332, lshirley@uidaho.edu or Dr. Beverly Krummel, (515)294-0864, bk@iastate.edu

- If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the IRB Administrator, (515) 294-4566, jes1959@iastate.edu, or Diane Ament, Director, Office of Research Assurances (515) 294-3115, dament@iastate.edu

******************************************************************************

PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE

Your signature indicates that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study, that the study has been explained to you, that you have been given the time to read the document and that your questions have been satisfactorily answered. You will receive a copy of the written informed consent prior to your participation in the study.

Participant's Name (printed) ____________________________

(Participant's Signature) __________________________________ (Date) __________________________

(Signature of Parent/Guardian or Legally Authorized Representative) __________________________________ (Date) __________________________

INVESTIGATOR STATEMENT

I certify that the participant has been given adequate time to read and learn about the study and all of their questions have been answered. It is my opinion that the participant understands the purpose, risks, benefits and the procedures that will be followed in this study and has voluntarily agreed to participate.

(Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent) __________________________ (Date) __________________________

OBC 05/05
APPENDIX G

TEACHER INFORMED CONSENT FORM
INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT: Teacher

Title of Study: Leadership Development Integrated Curriculum for Middle School Family and Consumer Sciences Students

Investigators: Lindsey Shirley
219 Cherry Street, Moscow, ID 83843, 208-886-0232, lshirley@uidaho.edu

Dr. Beverly Kruebner
Iowa State University
Job MacKay, Ames, IA 50011, 515-294-0864
bjk@iastate.edu

This is a research study. Please take your time in deciding if you would like your family and consumer sciences class to participate in this study. Please feel free to ask questions at any time.

INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this study is to respond to the need of the development of desirable leadership practices of adolescents through the implementation of a curriculum unit integrating leadership opportunities with emphases on the social issue of childhood obesity (which directly impacts youth today). Your family and consumer sciences class is invited to participate in this study because of your current facilitation of secondary family and consumer sciences courses in Idaho.

DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURES
If you agree to allow your students to participate in this study, their participation will last for two weeks during scheduled class time. During the study your students may expect the following study procedures to be followed. They will be asked to complete a survey about current leadership practices; they will be asked to participate in experiential learning activities integrating leadership into the current curriculum over a two-week span; students will be asked to conduct a public forum focusing on the issue of childhood obesity within your community with assistance and guidance from you and the researcher; finally, students will be asked to take the Leadership Practices Inventory as a part of the study. Your students may skip any question that they do not wish to answer or that makes them feel uncomfortable.

The researcher is responsible for the development of the leadership opportunity that will be integrated into nutrition and foods curriculum. Students will be responsible for the implementation of the public forum, a leadership opportunity, with assistance from the researcher and under the supervision of the teacher. As the teacher, you will provide supervision to assist with the classroom management of students during their investigation of leadership integrated into a curriculum unit. The researcher will assist students in the process of learning and discovery related to the current research study.

ORC 0308
RISKS
There are no foreseeable risks associated with participating in this study that are not common in the daily life occurrences. All participants will be reminded to be sensitive to each other because of the nature of the social issues, childhood obesity, and the impact it has on young people in our society today.

BENEFITS
If you decide to allow your students to participate in this study there may be a direct benefit to them (a benefit is defined as an “undesired outcome or advantage”). It is hoped that the information gained in this study will benefit society by providing the results gained from this study to a national initiative developed by the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences and the Kettering Foundation: Sizing Up America Public Policy Deliberation. The design of this research study allows for the framing of the issue of obesity in order to help combat the problem by placing research findings in the hands of citizens and public decision makers in a usable form. Open dialogues between policy makers and their constituents on an issue that has profound personal and societal implications on a number of outcomes, including health, psychological and economic well-being. An overarching benefit is the development of usable curriculum for family and consumer sciences that utilizes teaching strategies that encourage students to think critically about issues that impact individuals, families, and communities across the nation.

ALTERNATIVES TO PARTICIPATION
An alternative to participation in the current study would be to complete an alternate curriculum, project or activity identified by classroom teacher during the two-week implementation period.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION
Your students will not have any costs from participating in this study. Your students will not be compensated for participating in this study.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS
Your students’ participation in this study is completely voluntary and he or she may refuse to participate or leave the study at anytime. If a student decides to not participate in the study or leave the study early, it will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which he or she are otherwise entitled. The right to be informed by you, the teacher. Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to participate or leave the study at anytime.
CONFIDENTIALITY

Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your students' records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: the data will only be available to the primary investigator and stored in a locked cabinet. Names and personal information of students will not be gathered in this research study. The only information gathered will be gender, work experience information, leadership positions held, and responses to the LPI. It will not be possible to connect the participant to the survey information due to the anonymity of responses. The personal information of students is not of importance in this study. If the results are published, your identity will remain confidential.

QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS
You are encouraged to ask questions at any time during this study.

- For further information about this study, contact Lindsey Shirley, (268) 596-0332, lshirley@alabama.edu or Dr. Beverly Knupfel, (515) 294-9864, bknu@iastate.edu.

- If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the IRB Administrator, (515) 294-4556, jneh@iastate.edu, or Diane Aman, Director, Office of Research Assurance, (515) 294-3115, daman@iastate.edu.

*********************************************************************************************

PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE

Your signature indicates that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study. The study has been explained to you, that you and your students have been given adequate time to read the document, and that your questions have been satisfactorily answered. You will receive a copy of the written informed consent prior to your participation in the study.

Participant's Name (printed) __________________________

(Participant's Signature) __________________________ (Date)

INVESTIGATOR STATEMENT

I certify that the participant has been given adequate time to read and learn about the study and all of their questions have been answered. It is my opinion that the participant understands the purpose, risks, benefits and the procedures that will be followed in this study and has voluntarily agreed to participate.

(Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent) __________________________

(Date)

OEC 0505