SHARED LEADERSHIP IN VOLUNTARY MULTIPARTY COMMUNITY COLLABORATIVES: PUTTING THE PIECES TOGETHER

by

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(Under the Direction of Thomas P. Holland)

ABSTRACT

A three stage multi-method exploratory study of voluntary multiparty community collaboratives in Georgia investigated shared leadership and the psychometric properties of the Shared Leadership Scale (SLS). Item and factor analysis produced a 25-item unidimensional shared leadership scale (SLS) with strong internal consistency. Significant correlations were detected between the SLS and both the Bowers and Seashore Peer Leadership Scale and Tannenbaum's Control Graph Questionnaire. Significant correlations were not detected between the SLS and a 13-item short version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale or length of membership in the collaborative. Findings from all three stages indicated that shared leadership is based on a reciprocal relationship in which all collaborative members share their individual resources through an open communication process to produce comprehensive goal-oriented outcomes. These outcomes tend to promote future involvement in collaborative efforts.

INDEX WORDS: Shared leadership, Community collaboratives, Collaboration, Leadership

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DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my family whose persistent encouragement helped me to see the light at the end of the tunnel. They believed in me and that made all the difference.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

"...there is always a well-known solution to every human problem–neat, plausible, and wrong." (Mencken, 1920 p. 158)

Today, communities are facing a myriad of complex problems. Poverty, teenage pregnancy, child abuse, domestic violence, homelessness, gangs and truancy are plaguing communities at an alarming rate (Allen Guttmacher Institute, 1995; Berman, 1996; Borden, 1997; Children's Defense Fund, 2000; Family Violence Prevention Fund, 2001; Mullis, 1997; National Coalition for the Homeless, 1999; National Council on Child Abuse & Family Violence, 2001; Planned Parenthood Federation of America, 2000; Schorr, 1997; Tapper, Kleinman, & Nakashian, 1997; US Department of Education, 1996; Waide, 1999; Yon, Mickelson, & Carlton-Laney, 1993). These *human problems* are coupled with rapid growth and the need for expanding and improved infrastructure, declining communities with deteriorating facilities, environmental issues, and a host of other problems and issues (Frazier, 1993; Gray, 1989; Reilly, 1998). According to Gray:

> The pace at which new problems are generated is rapid, and individual organizations are hard pressed to make effective or timely responses. As a result, problems are piling up; new problems are cropping up daily, while yesterday's problems often go unsolved. Problems range in scope from local (such as allocating water rights for local development) to global (such as preventing deterioration of the ozone layer, which shields our planet from ultraviolet radiation). (p. 1)

This pileup of problems forces organizations to become interdependent because they cannot act unilaterally without creating unintended consequences for others or encountering unexpected constraints from others (Gray, 1989). Solo practices and reliance on individual effort alone are no longer sufficient for addressing the complex problems of modern society (Bennis & Biederman, 1997; John-Steiner, 2000). Increasingly, voluntary, multiparty community collaboration is being promoted and pursued as a way to utilize this interdependence by bringing community members together to solve complex problems (Berman, 1996; Borden, 1997; Markwood & Kyle, 1997; Melaville & Blank, 1993; Ray, 2002; Reilly, 1998; Rubin, 1998; White & Wehlage, 1995).

Statement of the Problem

Although multiparty community collaboration is emerging as a necessary approach to addressing community-wide problems, there is not a comprehensive theory to explain collaboration and how it works. One particular aspect of the collaborative process that must be addressed is leadership. Lambert et al. (1995) noted that failure to understand leadership may be the missing link in change efforts.

Traditionally, leadership studies have focused on an individual and his or her relationship to followers. More recently, scholars have begun to focus on leadership as a distributed or shared phenomenon within a group or organization. "Yet our understanding of the dynamics and opportunities for shared leadership is still quite primitive" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. xi). The need for a greater understanding of shared leadership is especially true as the concept applies to voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. This study will contribute to the development and refinement of a comprehensive theory of collaboration, and, more specifically, leadership within community collaboratives.

Complex Issues

Chrislip and Larson (1994) identify three major challenges facing communities today: 1) how to deal with complex issues; 2) how to engage frustrated and angry citizens; and 3) how to break legislative and bureaucratic gridlock. These challenges set the stage for shared leadership within voluntary multiparty community collaboration.

Communities, and human service providers in particular, are facing increasingly complex problems that are beyond the ability of single agencies to solve (Berman, 1996; Borden, 1997; Rubin, 1998). In this era of specialization and division of labor, multiple agencies often share responsibility for different parts of problem identification and resolution. Problems and solutions cross jurisdictional lines (Kordesh & Constable, 2002). School failure, including truancy and school dropout, are good examples of the complexity of problems facing communities.

Although school failure is often thought of as a school and family issue, it is often grounded in a system of complex social, economic and emotional problems (Hare & Rome, 2002). Many factors affect a student's success in school. "More often than not, poorly achieving truants do not have just one problem; their problems are multidimensional" (Allen-Meares, Washington & Welsh, 2000, pp. 100-101). Some students develop physical or emotional problems which may limit their ability to participate fully in school. Chronic health problems, fear of school and lack of food or clothing sometimes prevent children from attending school on a regular basis. A number of other issues are associated with a student's potential for risky behavior, including income level and educational level of parents. Level of parental involvement in a child's life and the amount of other adult support available to a student are also major factors in a student's decision to dropout or become involved in truancy (Allen-Meares,

1995; Allen-Meares et al., 2000; Hare & Rome, 2002). The list of possible sources of school truancy and dropping out of school grows exponentially as students expand their social networks (Allen-Meares et al., 2000). Other factors that impact the ability of students to succeed in school include teenage pregnancy, substance abuse, and violence (Hare & Rome, 2002). These factors affect each student differently. There is no straight-line causal effect between any single or combination of factors and school failure. The picture is much too complex.

In the same way that multiple factors contribute to the development and identification of a problem, many people and agencies contribute to a solution. School staff, including school social workers, rely on specialized help from outside agencies to address the issues noted above (Kordesh & Constable, 2002). School teachers and administrators are responsible for providing a challenging and inviting school culture that will attract and motivate students. School personnel are also responsible for monitoring the attendance and behavior of students and informing parents when potential problems arise. Parents are responsible for ensuring that students attend school regularly and seeking appropriate help when problems arise. Mental health professionals may be called upon to address such issues as school phobia or depression. Medical personnel may be needed to treat chronic health problems and to help families and school personnel develop methods for managing chronic medical problems and determining when absence from school is necessary. They may also direct efforts aimed at promoting health and preventing illness through immunizations and public awareness campaigns.

School social workers are often the first professionals, other than the teacher, to become involved in assessing problems and working with parents, mental health and medical personnel to develop solutions to these problems. If these efforts are not successful, law enforcement and legal professionals from various departments are required to enforce truancy laws with both

students and adults. The problems of truancy and school dropout are very complex with no single source or trigger. The more extensive and complex the problem the greater the need for complex, supportive resource systems (Kordesh & Constable, 2002).

In order to solve complex problems such as the ones described above, multiple parties, including those most affected by the problem, must work together (Allen-Meares, 1995; Ford & Sutphen, 1998; Hare & Rome, 2002; Kordesh & Constable, 2002). Chrislip and Larson (1994) classify these types of problems as Type III problems. Whereas, Type I problems are readily definable and have known solutions and Type II are readily defined but require action on the part of those affected, Type III problems are neither easily definable nor easily solved. Since the problem is not easily defined, solutions are unknown or difficult to enact. Type III problems require the expertise and actions of more than one party to solve. In the example of truancy given above, one expert may address medical contributors, another mental and emotional contributors, another social contributors, yet another expert may assess academic contributors to the problem. Students and parents are themselves experts regarding their own experiences and resources. Together, these experts explore the problem and develop solutions that take into account the full range of factors impacting the problem (Chrislip & Larson, 1994).

Disengaged Citizens

The necessity of joint action from multiple parties can be problematic in itself especially in community efforts. Community members, including service providers and recipients, may be disengaged, cynical, frustrated and even angry (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Rubin, 1998; Schorr, 1997). Americans share a growing cynicism about public service that is based on the gap between good intentions and failed outcomes (Rubin, 1998). Schorr points out that in the mid 90s “citizens certain that nothing works, or that nothing done by government works, were

turning into reluctant taxpayers and noisy cynics" (p. xvi). The inability to act alone to solve a problem is especially difficult in a society built on the pioneer spirit of rugged individualism. This emphasis on individualism leads to skepticism over collaborative efforts (Gray, 1989). Problems continue because of the difficulty of engaging the necessary parties to act. Citizens are often not engaged in the problems of their community even though they are both affected by the problem and necessary for the solution. Even joint initiatives may fail if they do not engage the people most affected by the problem as key resources in the solution of their own problems (Melaville & Blank, 1993).

Political and Bureaucratic Gridlock

Special interests and resistance to change adds to the problem. Sometimes this is simply a resistance to or fear of change. Other times, this resistance is due to a special interest that was not adequately considered in the solution to a problem. Chrislip and Larson (1994) characterize this problem as legislative and bureaucratic gridlock. Special interest groups tend to focus on one or two narrowly focused sides of an issue. When parties choose sides on an issue the ability to mutually solve the problem is limited. Single agencies become so focused on the single most important issue or the single best solution that they compete rather than partner with colleagues to solve the underlying problem. By competing, single agencies seek to elevate their own positions and disprove or diminish the importance of other issues (Rubin, 1998).

Even advocacy, which has an important place in working with clients with little power, can become problematic if it oversimplifies problems and solutions. Overly simple problem definitions and solution proposals tend to polarize an issue (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Although single agencies rarely can secure all the resources needed to solve complex problems, single parties can often muster the resources to disrupt and prevent comprehensive efforts from getting

off the ground. The power to hinder the progress of a joint effort may come from everything from legal wrangling to simply failure to implement required actions.

The Necessity of Collaboration

Due to the complex nature of community problems and the need for action from multiple parties to solve these problems, collaboration is necessary. Hank Rubin (1988) puts it this way,

> We tried big government and learned that it can't solve our problems by itself; the private sector shouldn't; and schools and nonprofits (separately, and in the many combinations we've tried) haven't. If our future education and social service problems are to be solved, our arts and culture preserved, the health and quality of life improved, then we must set about building, nurturing, and managing new combinations - new collaborations. (p.12)

Chrislip and Larson (1994) add "when nothing else works, people begin to collaborate" (p. 5).

Barbara Gray (1989) describes benefits of collaboration for solving complex multiparty problems. Collaboration has the potential to provide a broad and comprehensive analysis of the problem as each stakeholder's interests are considered. The potential to discover a creative or novel solution is enhanced by a more diversified response capability realized from the diverse areas of expertise brought to the table. Rubin (1998) describes this benefit as adding tools to the tool box. Participation in the definition of the problem and the creation of the solution enhances acceptance of the solution (Delbecq, 1974). Also, collaborative partners enjoy working on a project that is bigger than oneself (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993; Senge; 1990).

Another benefit of collaboration is increased access to resources. Increasingly, funding sources are recognizing the problem of fragmented approaches to solving complex problems and

are giving preference to proposals that give evidence of community support and collaboration (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

Since 1991, the state of Georgia has been developing and promoting a collaborative process for engaging community members in meeting the needs in their communities. The process, known as Family Connection, provides training, technical support and funding to assist communities in their efforts to collaborate (Georgia Policy Council for Children and Families, 2000). Broad involvement from multiple stakeholders is a prerequisite to receiving Family Connection status and support. The premise behind community-level coalitions such as Georgia's Family Connection is that "social problems are embedded in and their solutions are inextricable from the fabric of society" and the accompanying belief that "community level efforts offer mechanisms frequently overlooked but often most appropriate for solving social problems" (Erickson, 1999, p. 43).

The Importance of Leadership in Collaboration

One particular aspect of the collaborative process that must be addressed is leadership. In an annual evaluation report of the Atlanta Project (1998), it was concluded that the "three main success factors are leadership, leadership, leadership" (p. 21). Collaborative efforts demand a unique type of leadership that is very different from traditional conceptualizations of leadership. Traditional views of leadership that focus on characteristics and behaviors of a single charismatic, powerful or expert leader do not capture the full essence of collaborative leadership (Harmon & Toomey, 1999). Leadership and leader, when understood as holder of a leadership position, are not the same. "What if leadership is not something that an individual can provide but is available only through co-creation, that is, in concert with others - and not always others of like mind?" (Harmon & Toomey, 1999, p. 255).

In a recent study of Georgia's Family Connection Collaboratives, Erickson (1999) noted that many important leadership functions are undeniably embodied in participants other than coordinators and executive chairs. He concluded that leadership in community collaboratives is an "elusive construct, more likely embodied in a group than an individual, at least in terms of noticeable effects at the organization level" (p. 205). The type of collaborative leadership to which Erickson refers was labeled shared leadership in this study. The concept of shared leadership combines the contributions of each stakeholder into a comprehensive group-wide leadership phenomenon. For this study *shared leadership* was defined as the active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal.

Although multiparty community collaboration is emerging as a necessary approach to addressing community-wide problems, there is not a comprehensive theory to explain collaboration and how it works. One particular aspect of the collaborative process that must be addressed is leadership. Traditionally, leadership studies have focused on an individual and his or her relationship to followers. More recently, scholars have begun to focus on leadership as a distributed or shared phenomenon within a group or organization. "Yet our understanding of the dynamics and opportunities for shared leadership is still quite primitive" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. xi). Currently there is not a suitable measure for shared leadership within voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. This study will contribute to the development of the comprehensive theory of collaboration, and, more specifically, leadership within community collaboratives.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to conceptualize a model of shared leadership and develop and test a measure of shared leadership within voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives. The objectives of the study were three-fold:

1. To examine the essential characteristics of leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives.
2. To conceptually define shared leadership and develop a model of the concept.
3. To develop a measure of shared leadership within collaborative enterprises that produces valid and reliable data.

The following questions guided the investigation of the proposed construct of shared leadership:

1. What are the essential characteristics of leadership that must exist to move a collaborative toward its goal?

The rationale for this question is that there are many different characteristics of leadership that have been identified over the last 75 years but not all of these leadership qualities may be essential for successful community collaboratives. This study attempts to tease out the most essential characteristics of leadership for producing success through community collaboration.

2. How are these leadership characteristics shared in multiparty community collaboratives?

The rationale for this question is based on the premise that within voluntary community collaboratives leadership is a shared group-wide phenomenon. In order to better understand shared leadership it is important to determine how it is demonstrated and utilized by multiple members of collaborative groups.

3. How can the group concept of shared leadership be measured in a way that is valid, reliable and useful in future research?

The rationale for this question is based on the premise that in order to study shared leadership one must be able to measure the construct in a way that produces valid and reliable data. By investigating this question, one will be better prepared to operationally define the construct in a way that will guide future research.

Significance of the Study

Conceptualizing a model of shared leadership in multiparty community collaboratives has several implications for social work education, practice and research. Social work has been defined as the "professional activity of helping individuals, groups or communities to enhance or restore their capacity for social functioning and creating societal conditions favorable to this goal" (Barker, 1987, p. 154). The focus of this professional activity is on the person-in-environment (Sheafor, Horejsi, & Horejsi, 1997). This focus places the social worker at the forefront in addressing complex social problems. To be effective the social worker must fully understand methods of large scale intervention into community-level problems.

Although community collaboration is emerging as a necessary and even preferred approach to addressing complex community-wide problems, there is not a comprehensive theory to explain collaboration and how it works. In recent years, a growing number of case studies and a few survey studies have begun to frame a grounded theory of collaboration. However, even though leadership has been proclaimed as a crucial factor for success of collaborative efforts, no study to date has examined the issue of shared leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives. This study will contribute to the development and refinement of a

comprehensive theory of collaboration and, more specifically, leadership within collaboratives in order to aid social workers in better understanding community-level intervention opportunities.

Secondly, social work ethics directs the social worker to maximize client participation and self-determination (National Association of Social Workers, 1999). "It is the responsibility of the social worker in guiding the process to be sure that, as far as possible, all relevant persons participate in identifying the problem, formulating a plan of action, and implementing that plan" (Sheafor et al., 1997, p.78). Social workers should help clients discover ways to solve their own problems. This not only empowers clients but prevents or, at least, reduces client dependence on the social worker. By understanding community collaboration and the process of shared leadership within those collaboratives, social workers are better prepared to help one's clients more fully participate in broad-based and prevention-oriented solutions to complex problems.

Finally, one of the many roles of a social worker is that of change agent (Sheafor et al., 1997). As a change agent, the social worker is involved in the identification of community problems, mobilization of support and resource development. It was noted earlier that community problems are generally complex problems and beyond the scope of any single profession to resolve. A thorough assessment of community problems involves input from many experts including community members themselves. According to Chrislip and Larson (1994), many community initiatives "miss the mark because they fail to engage the people who live in the most troubled and despairing neighborhoods as key resources in the solution of their problems" (p. 31). Resource development involves creating or securing new resources, extending existing resources, reducing unnecessary duplication of services in order to free resources for re-allocation, and increasing the efficiency of existing resources by removing barriers to their use. But resource development alone will not solve community problems.

Communities must also have the capacity to manage these resources effectively. By understanding shared leadership, social workers are better able to work with multi-disciplinary teams to identify community problems, develop resources to address the problems and increase the capacity of communities to effectively use the resources for problem solution and prevention.

Definitions

The following definitions were used for key terms throughout the study:

Collaboration - an outcome that occurs when two or more autonomous stakeholders constructively combine their varied resources and jointly work toward identifying and achieving common goals that could not be achieved by acting alone.

Collaborative - a group of autonomous stakeholders working together to achieve a common goal.

Leadership - those acts, interactions and processes that motivate, equip and guide the group to accomplish a common goal.

Shared Leadership - the active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal.

Summary

This study was designed to improve broad-based, community-level change efforts by clarifying our understanding of shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. Chapter Two presents a review of the literature on collaboration and leadership. Chapter Three describes the methodology used to develop and test the measure. A three-stage process was employed. Key aspects of leadership were drawn from the literature in the first stage. In stage two, the conceptual model was refined through the use of focus groups with two

diverse community collaboratives. Finally the measure was tested in stage three. Chapter Four presents the results of the three-stage study and the final version of the measure. Chapter Five presents a discussion of the development of the model and measure. Implications for practice, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature on leadership and community collaboration is presented in this chapter. The review is multi-disciplinary as collaboration, by definition, is beyond the purview of any single discipline. This literature review will demonstrate that the study of collaboration has not yet produced a widely accepted comprehensive theory of collaboration although many consistent dimensions are beginning to emerge. One particular dimension that needs further explication is leadership. The review of the literature on the study of leadership will demonstrate that leadership studies have been primarily concerned with the concept as it applies to a single individual within an organization. Little attention has been paid to shared leadership especially as a concept related to community collaboration. The literature is very limited on the subject of shared leadership with voluntary multiparty community collaboratives.

Background

Bergstrom et al. (1995) identify five levels of working together. The first level is networking. The primary purpose of networking is to share information. A network maintains a loose and flexible structure with minimal decision-making ability and informal communication. The next level is cooperation. Cooperation maintains the informal structure of the network. There is no commonly held mission and authority for decision-making is retained at each agency. Cooperation differs from networking in the joint use of the shared information. For example, cooperating agencies may set up information or fund raising booths at a community festival planned by another organization.

If the community festival had been planned by more than one organization, the level of working together would have been coordination. Coordination is the third level of working together (Bergstrom et al., 1995). Mattessich and Monsey (1992) describe coordination as having more formal relationships and compatible missions. Some planning and division of roles are required, and communication channels are established yet authority still rests with the individual organizations. Resources are available to participants, and rewards are mutually acknowledged.

While coordination involves joint decision making and planning, coalition, the fourth level of working together, involves a more formalized decision-making structure involving all partners (Bergstrom et al., 1995). Coalition partners share some resources and acknowledge a sense of interdependence. One example of a coalition would be when multiple service providers and citizens pool their resources to lobby for a governmental policy change. The coalition may hire a staff member to direct lobbying efforts.

The final and most comprehensive level of working together is collaboration. This level brings previously separated organizations into a new structure with full commitment to a common mission. Each member of the collaborative contributes its resources and reputation. Resources are pooled or jointly secured, and the products are shared (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). Due to the heightened risk inherent in such a close relationship, collaboration also requires high levels of trust and leadership.

Collaboration

Collaboration has been defined as a relationship, an outcome and a process. Lawrence, Phillips, and Hardy (1999) describe collaboration as "a cooperative, interorganizational relationship that...is...negotiated in an ongoing communication process" (p. 481). Chrislip and

Larson (1994) also describe collaboration as a relationship when they define collaboration as a "mutually beneficial relationship between two or more parties who work toward common goals by sharing responsibility, authority and accountability for results" (p. 5). These types of relationships are important elements of collaboration, but these definitions fail to adequately capture the purpose of collaboration. Others describe collaboration as an outcome that results when "autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain" (Gray & Wood, 1991, p. 146). The most significant contribution of this definition is the recognition that the collaborative is composed of autonomous stakeholders. The stakeholder's participation is voluntary and independent. In a true collaborative effort no single stakeholder controls the process.

An earlier definition by Gray (1989) describes collaboration as "a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited view of what is possible" (p. 5). This definition more fully describes collaboration as a process with a purpose. Without a purpose collaboration is little more than a social event. Gray's definition also points to a critical aspect of collaboration. Collaboration produces results that cannot be achieved by any of the partners acting alone (See also Bennis & Biederman, 1997; Bruner, 1996; Ray, 2002; Winer & Ray, 1994). By combining the most significant aspects of the definitions presented above *collaboration* may be more fully defined as an outcome that occurs when two or more autonomous stakeholders constructively combine their varied resources and jointly work toward identifying and achieving common goals that could not be achieved by acting alone. This

process relies upon a mutually beneficial relationship in which stakeholders share responsibility, authority and accountability for results.

Organizational Theory for Collaboration

Much of what was originally known about collaboration was borrowed from organization theory. Wood and Gray (1991) identify several organizational theories that have potential for explaining collaboration. Resource Dependence Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Logsdon, 1991) seeks to explain an organization's drive to secure and control needed resources without becoming overly dependent on other organizations. The theory recognizes the inevitability of interorganizational relationships but explains that organizations seek to minimize the impact of these relationships on autonomous control of resources. This theory is most useful in explaining pre-conditions for collaboration (Logsdon, 1991).

Social Ecology Theory (Astley, 1984; Astley & Fombrun, 1983; Gray & Wood, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991) seeks to explain the pre-conditions and results of collaboration. This theory explains environmental threats to an organization and the results of taking advantage of opportunities in the environment to increase organizational success. It also emphasizes the benefits of collective action among organizations with common problems. The real weakness of both of these theories is the lack of information on the process by which results occur (Gray & Wood, 1991).

Corporate Social Performance Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Wood, 1991a; Wood, 1991b) and Microeconomic Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Williamson, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991) each examine relationships between the organization and its stakeholders including other organizations. Corporate Social Performance Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Wood, 1991a; Wood, 1991b) views the organization at the center of a stakeholder network. Microeconomic

Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Williamson, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991) explains organizational relationships as bilateral arrangements between the focus organization and one other organization without taking into account the environment and myriad of other relationships the external organizations manage. Both of these theories have potential but must broaden their focus to the complex array of simultaneous multiple stakeholder relationships rather than the bilateral relationships that are currently explained (Gray & Wood, 1991).

Negotiated Order Theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Nathan & Mitroff, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991) addresses the question: "What are the patterns of institutionalized thought structures that link parties in a domain, and how are those patterns developed, sustained and changed" (Gray & Wood, 1991, p. 10). This theory assumes multiple relationships among parties in a domain. It focuses on the creation of shared understandings among stakeholders. Negotiated Order Theory proposes that collaboration is more likely in a crisis or when organizations realize that they cannot achieve their goals acting unilaterally (Nathan & Mitroff, 1991). Barbara Gray (1989) adopted this theory as the basis of her work on collaborating.

Each of these theories, borrowed from the larger body of organizational theory, offers some valuable insights into the process of organizations working together but each fails to capture the richness and diversity of voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. Organizational theory may point toward some important areas of research but it focuses too much on internal organizational relationships and processes or bilateral relationships with one other organization. This is too limited for voluntary multiparty community collaboration which involves voluntary relationships among stakeholders from multiple segments of a community.

Emerging Elements of a Theory of Collaboration

Within the past decade there has been growing attention given to community collaboration. Much of the recent writing and research has been case study examinations of collaboratives to tease out factors influencing successful community-based collaboration. However, to date there has been no widely accepted, comprehensive theory of community collaboration. The most frequently cited reference on community collaboration has been Barbara Gray's 1989 work entitled Collaborating: Finding Common Ground for Multiparty Problems. In this book, Gray outlines a process for breaking through barriers to solve apparently unsolvable problems facing communities. Drawing heavily on Negotiated Order Theory, Gray described the collaborative process as having three stages.

The first stage of the collaborative process is the problem setting stage. During this stage, stakeholders of a problem domain are found and a common definition of the problem is created. A convener is necessary to get the collaborative going and stakeholders must commit to working together on the problem. A key component of this stage is enlisting all the key stakeholders as active participants (Gray, 1989). Delbecq (1974) found that acceptance of any solution is enhanced when those who must abide by it are included in designing the solution. To be successful, the collaborative group must be broadly representative of all stakeholders (Gray, 1989). For example, when seeking to increase the rate of school completion it is important to involve students, including those who have dropped out of school, parents, teachers, employers and other human service providers in creating an accurate description of the causes and results of school dropout.

The second stage involves direction setting. Elements of this stage include getting organized by setting ground rules, agreeing on an agenda, organizing subgroups and searching

for information and options. This is also the stage for reaching agreement on the solution to the problem. Solutions emerge by dealing constructively with differences brought to the table by a diverse group of interdependent stakeholders. In order for the collaborative effort to be successful the decisions must be jointly owned by all the participants (Gray, 1989).

To deal constructively with differences, collaborative partners must first agree on a set of communication ground rules. Partners must also accept that difference does not necessarily mean opposition (Gray, 1989). Due to life experiences and professional training, diverse partners will view the same set of circumstances from different angles. A physician may initially interpret circumstances from a medical standpoint while a developer may interpret the same circumstances from a dramatically different position based on his/her background. Collaboration requires the expression and consideration of both points of view in an effort to find common ground (Gray, 1989; Nathan & Mitroff, 1991). For example, when considering procedures for the effective management of communicable diseases, a community health physician may propose that all swimming pools in a community should be maintained by a specified set of standards and inspected annually to insure acceptable water quality. A developer may view the annual inspection of pools as an unnecessary and expensive burden for homeowners. Together, the physician and developer may constructively manage their differences by working together to develop water quality guidelines and resources for pool operators, mandatory inspections for public pools and voluntary inspections for private pools.

The final stage of the collaborative process is the implementation stage (Gray, 1989). This is called the structuring stage in Negotiated Order Theory (Nathan & Mitroff, 1991). This is the stage for implementing joint plans. The implementation stage is a time for building external support, monitoring the agreement and ensuring compliance. Stakeholders assume

collective responsibility for the future of the domain (Gray, 1989). Stakeholders may submit progress reports and evaluation results to a common repository for sharing among all partners. The problems and solutions addressed by the collaborative are no longer "their" problems but become "our" problems and solutions.

Collaboration is an emergent process that is constantly changing. Shared understandings of problems, rules and relationships are being renegotiated continuously (Gray, 1989). Gray identified some additional factors enhancing success. There must be a timely and important issue. Stakeholders must agree on the scope of the problem, and they must negotiate in good faith. Finally, stakeholder representatives must maintain good relationships with constituents in their home organizations (1989).

In 1994, Chrislip and Larson published their research on community-based collaboration. Their purpose was to study successful collaborative efforts in order to identify the most important elements of successful collaboration. Their approach was the opposite of Gray. Whereas Gray used a deductive approach by applying negotiated order theory to collaborative groups, Chrislip and Larson used an inductive approach by starting with the successful collaborative efforts and attempting, through extensive interviews, to determine common elements in all of these collaboratives. They started with extensive interviews with six collaboratives that met specific criteria for results, stakeholder inclusion, complexity of the problem and "widespread acknowledgment and recognition of the collaboration's success" (p. 16).

Chrislip and Larson (1994) found 40 common components of collaboratives that can be grouped into 5 conceptual categories. The five categories are: context, structure, members, process and results. The original factors were tested on an additional sample of 46 collaborative

groups. Two representatives from each collaborative were questioned about the presence of each of the factors in the collaborative they represented. Factors were confirmed "when they were present a statistically significant number of times in the forty-six cases" (Chrislip & Larson, 1994, p. 173). These factors will be discussed in greater detail below.

Sandwiched between the publication of Barbara Gray's (1989) work and the presentation of the findings of Chrislip and Larson (1994) was the first effort to identify a comprehensive list of factors related to successful collaboration based on previous research. Mattessich and Monsey (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of research on collaboration across the fields of health, social sciences, education and public affairs. From an initial pool of 133 articles, only 18 case studies that met the author's definition of collaboration were utilized in the study. The excluded studies were predominantly "how-to manuals" (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). The results of the Mattessich and Monsey study yielded 19 factors spread across 6 categories. The six categories were: environment, membership characteristics, process/structure, communication, purpose and resources.

There is a great deal of overlap in the findings of these two studies although factors are not always grouped together in the same categories. Both studies found similar factors related to membership characteristics. Like Gray, both Chrislip and Larson (1994) and Mattessich and Monsey (1992) discovered that collaborative membership must be broadly inclusive of all stakeholders or stakeholder groups thus creating a cross-section of the community. The relationships between members must be based on mutual respect, understanding and trust and members must be trustworthy. Members must be able to communicate effectively and maintain productive relationships with a variety of stakeholders. Collaborating partners should be able to compromise. While noting the importance of involving highly talented people in collaborative

efforts, Bennis and Biederman (1997) note that "not every genius works well with others. Certain tasks can only be performed collaboratively, and it is madness to recruit people, however, gifted, who are incapable of working side by side toward a common goal" (p. 202). Their work focused on the efforts of non-voluntary groups in which participant recruitment was controlled. This is not always the case in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives in which many, if not most, participants are self-selected. However, the ability to work together is critical in collaborative efforts regardless of the type.

In successful collaboratives, members see collaboration as serving their own self-interests. Mattessich and Monsey (1992) suggest that collaboratives "build in incentives for individual organizations to get and stay involved. Monitor whether those incentives continue to motivate members" (p. 21). The most important factor, based on the number of times a factor was reported in the research, is bringing the right partners together and building the right attitudes and spirit among them (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

The most important category according to Chrislip and Larson (1994) is process. The process must be credible and open. This requires the involvement of all the key stakeholders as well as the involvement (but not control) of key power holders. Divergent opinions must be heard and handled constructively. Mattessich and Monsey (1992) made similar findings but grouped them into different categories. They noted, in the category of communication, that for successful collaboration to occur communication must be open and frequent. There must also be both formal and informal communication links established between collaborative members. For example collaboratives may use technology such as web pages, email Listserv and broadcast fax transmissions to keep partners informed on the work of the collaborative. This type of communication allows the process to be open and credible and lessens the ability of a single

party to control the process. In the category of process, they found that in successful collaboratives members share a stake in both process and outcome. The process of decision making involves multiple layers designed to encourage participation from all levels of member organizations (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

The structure of the collaborative is another important category of factors. Chrislip and Larson (1994) include in this category factors related to the collaborative's access to the necessary resources, including information, expertise and facilities, ground rules, and organization. This category also includes the active participation of key stakeholders and an avoidance of domination by a single party. True collaborative decisions are not made by a single party, such as a major funding contributor, and simply agreed to by fund recipients. Mattessich and Monsey (1992) add that the collaborative structure must allow for flexibility in communication and sharing of ideas. The collaborative should also remain adaptable to changing conditions in the environment.

Finally, clear roles are needed. "Members' true interests and strengths should be considered when making assignments. Ultimately, people will gravitate towards their interests" (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992, pp. 24-25). Collaborative members should be allowed the freedom to perform the role in the collaborative most suited to their expertise and interests (Bennis & Biederman, 1997). Through its members successful collaboratives have access to critical resources including sufficient funds and a skilled convener (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

A skilled convener has good process skills and knowledge of the subject area. The convener must also be able to balance process and task activities. A skilled convener is the person who has earned the respect of the various stakeholders and who is able to get them to the

table, keep them there because they feel they are important to the process and get them to contribute to the work of the collaborative (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). Although it would be easy to do so, they avoided describing this convener as the leader of the collaborative. Another key role is that of one who will "institutionalize the worry" (Rubin, 1998, p. 105). This is the person who pays attention to the details and deadlines for getting things done but not necessarily the identified leader.

Context (Chrislip & Larson, 1994) and environment (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992) are important also. Successful collaborative efforts are commissioned to solve a specific and pressing problem. Stakeholders are ready to work together to solve the problem (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). A successful collaboration tends to have a history of collaboration or cooperation in the community. The collaborative group is recognized as a leader in the community and the political/social climate is conducive to collaboration (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

The final categories of factors are labeled results by Chrislip and Larson (1994) and purpose by Mattessich and Monsey (1992). These factors primarily relate to the collaborative's vision, mission and goals. Successful collaboratives have concrete, attainable short and long-term goals with periodic reports made on progress toward goal attainment. A shared vision is another important factor for successful collaboration. Collaborative efforts are engaged for a purpose. The purpose identifies a sphere of activity that is unique from the sphere of any member organization (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). A workplace safety collaborative may be engaged for the purpose of bringing together resources in the community to train workers from various industries on workplace safety procedures developed by the collaborative.

The factors discovered by these two studies fit nicely with and enhance the stage model presented by Gray. All three point to the necessity of involving all stakeholders as essential resources in an open and credible collaborative process. The factors discussed above facilitate movement through the stages of collaboration. In 1995, Bergstrom and his colleagues published a framework to assist communities in forming and enhancing collaborative efforts. The "Collaboration Framework has been developed through the collaborative efforts of eleven Land Grant Universities and the Cooperative States Research Education and Extension Services (CSREES). It utilizes knowledge and expertise of specialists who have researched collaborations and experienced sustaining collaborations within communities" (Bergstrom et al., 1995, p. 2). Bergstrom et al. take a comprehensive approach in an effort to fully capture the complex nature of collaboration. The framework (see Figure 1) incorporates many of the factors discussed above and expounds on these.

According to Bergstrom et al. (1995), collaboration must be grounded in diversity. The collaborative process must honor the uniqueness, gifts and talents of all stakeholders. All stakeholders, including those most affected by the actions of the collaborative, must have an equal say in decisions. This respect for diversity "opens the door to gaining an understanding of how the elements fit together and how each is important to the whole." (Bergstrom et al., 1995, p. 5). This grounding creates a climate of respect for each other's ideas and perspectives on current reality and future actions. Respect for diversity is a prerequisite for the entire process and is initially demonstrated by recruiting all affected stakeholders to join the collaborative. Once diverse stakeholders join the collaborative, diversity is celebrated by encouraging the expression of different ideas, appropriately considering suggestions based on merit, and

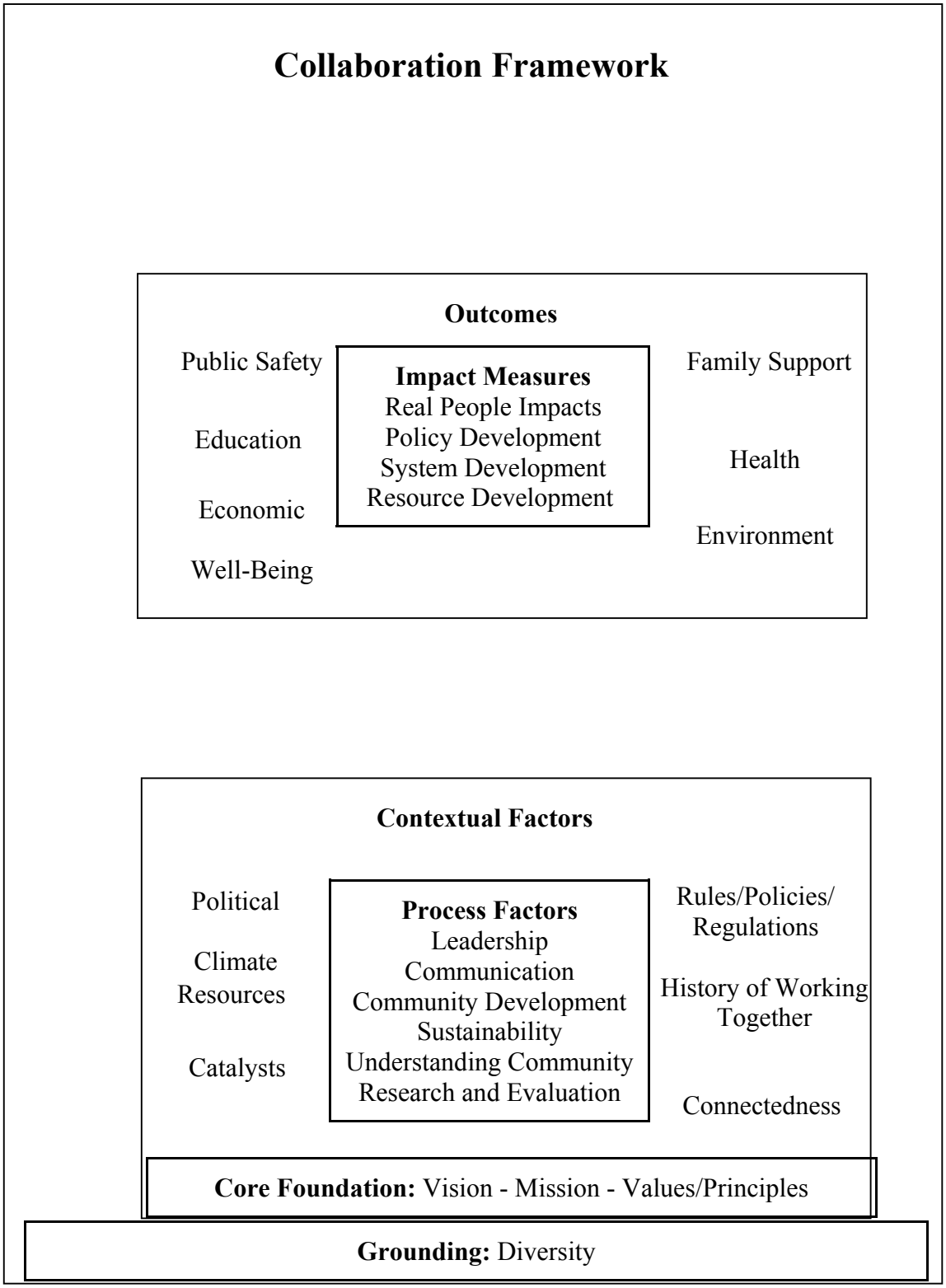

Figure 1. The Collaboration Framework. Source: National Network for Collaboration

assigning important tasks based on interests and expertise (Bergstrom et al., 1995). Diversity provides depth of experience for the collaborative and creates the context for members to learn from one another in complementary fashion (John-Steiner, 2000).

Built upon diversity is the common purpose that binds people together. Collaborative members must articulate their common interests around vision, mission, values and principles in order to describe why the collaboration matters and how it fits into the larger world. This core foundation points to outcomes. Outcomes are the planned and unplanned results and impacts of the collaborative. Expected outcomes should be clearly stated in the beginning as measurable goals. Outcomes are the products or results of the collaborative. Some examples of outcome areas are education, public safety, and environment. Impacts are changes in the stakeholders themselves and relationships among the stakeholders. Impacts may involve policy development, systems development or resource development (Bergstrom et al., 1995).

Contextual and process factors are the intervening factors between the foundation and the outcomes. Contextual factors are characteristics of the larger community and environment that set the stage for collaborative action. These factors are typically beyond the direct control of collaborative members. Contextual factors include the degree to which people in the community are connected together through formal and informal networks. Well-connected communities set a more productive context for collaboration than do non-connected communities (Bergstrom et al., 1995). Communities that have demonstrated a desire and ability to solve difficult problems in the past by working together are more likely to work together again. The history and environment surrounding decision-making and power that sets the stage for what can and cannot happen is labeled political climate. The availability and diversity of resources is also important. "Collaborations that cooperate only to seek funding are more likely to fail than collaborations

that form as a comprehensive community-wide response to a problem… Human capital is the most important asset in a collaboration" (Bergstrom et al., 1995, p. 11). Catalysts refer to the reason for starting a collaborative in the first place. The reason, whether a problem or vision, must be viewed as needing a comprehensive response. A second catalyst is the convener who gets the ball rolling (Bergstrom et al., 1995).

Process factors are embedded within contextual factors. These factors occur within the collaborative and are under the direct control of collaborative members. Understanding the community requires understanding the people, culture, values and habits. Community development includes efforts to build teamwork, enhance trust and mobilize existing resources. Leadership includes those who impact change within their community, group or organization. One major responsibility of leadership is to insure the appropriate people have been brought to the table. Leadership also establishes norms of group protocol and behavior to facilitate team building and capitalize upon the diversity and strengths of participants and their agencies. Communication, both internal and external, must be open and clear to everyone. Research and evaluation are used to establish benchmarks and monitor progress. Sustainability refers to governance, membership, terms of office, and how decisions are made (Bergstrom et al., 1995).

Recent Studies of Collaboration

Two of the more recent studies of collaboration have returned to broader and more general theories of human behavior to explain collaboration and how it works. In her recent study of collaboration, Borden (1997) explained collaboration from a systems and ecological theory perspective. Erickson (1999) also identified systems and ecological theory as the theoretical foundations for his study. Many of the concepts of systems theory have been

incorporated and developed more specifically for collaboration in the work described above. Ecological theory does offer some additional insights that are important to consider.

Borden (1997) used ecological theory to explain the need for collaboration as a process to develop full-scale interventions that can be focused at multiple levels at once. Ecological theory is concerned with the environment at all levels. The smallest level is that of microsystem or the immediate setting including family and natural habitat (Balgopal & Vassil, 1983; Belsky, 1980; Pardeck, 1988). The next level is the exosystem or larger social units including neighborhood, and work settings (Belsky, 1980). The largest system is the macrosystem which includes overarching attitudes, values or patterns in the broader social context (Belsky, 1980; Greene & Ephross, 1991). Borden (1997) emphasizes that ecological theory explains how these levels, understood as concentric circles of influence surrounding an individual, have consequential and sometimes differential effects on the identified problem.

Narrowly focused solutions to complex problems are unable to capture the full range of factors impacting the problem. For instance, limiting a truancy prevention program to filing charges whenever a student reaches a set number of absences focuses attention primarily at the micro-level and assumes students, and sometimes parents, simply choose to skip school. This approach, when used alone, fails to consider the impact of the exosystems and macrosystems influencing truancy. At the exosystem level other factors affecting truancy may include transportation, classroom and neighborhood safety, availability of daytime jobs to students and access to affordable healthcare. Macrosystem factors may include a high rate of adults in the community without a high school education, a community emphasis on the values of personal and family freedom, and a distrust of public education.

Ecological theory forces a broader understanding of the problem and points to a fuller set of resources for problem resolution. By using ecological theory as a frame of reference, one is able to consider a problem from all sides. Ecological theory also helps collaborative partners to identify stakeholders from all system levels for membership in the collaborative.

Ecological theory also informs one's understanding of stakeholder involvement in a collaborative group. Every stakeholder in a collaborative can be understood within the context of person-in-environment. A key concept of ecological theory is that of mutual influence or reciprocal causality. This means that the person shapes or influences the environment and at the same time is shaped or influenced by the environment. (Brower, 1988; Libassi & Maluccio, 1982). This process occurs through exchanges known as transactions (Greene & Ephross, 1991; Pardeck, 1988). These transactions will often produce environmental stress.

Stress has been defined as "upsets in the usual adaptive balance or goodness-of-fit occurring in the transactions between people and environments" (Swaine & Flax, 1986, p. 19). Stress also occurs when there is an imbalance between three critical transactions. The needs-resources transaction refers to the availability of resources in the environment to meet individual needs for survival. The aspirations-opportunities transaction refers to opportunities within an environment for people to achieve their aspirations. Finally, the capacities-expectation transaction focuses on the expectations the environment places on an individual in relation to that individual's capacity to meet that expectation (Swaine & Flax, 1986). A good balance between the elements of these transactions across all three critical transactions may be referred to as goodness-of-fit (Pardeck, 1988).

Two of these transactions are particularly relevant to stakeholder involvement in collaboratives. Stakeholders participate in collaborative efforts because they have aspirations of

contributing to the work of the collaborative or benefitting in some other way through their participation. When opportunities exist for stakeholders to contribute to the process or otherwise benefit from their involvement stress is minimized. But when stakeholders do not have the opportunity to achieve their aspirations through the collaborative stress is heightened. The capacities-expectation transaction is also important to stakeholder involvement. Each stakeholder brings to the collaborative certain capacities in terms of expertise, time and energy. When the expectations placed on the stakeholder for the use of these capacities is congruent with the stakeholder's ability a goodness-of-fit situation is created. But when the expectations are too high or too low stress occurs.

Another concept closely related to transactions is adaptation. Adaptation is the continual series of actions undertaken by the person to produce and maintain wellness (Balgopal & Vassil, 1983). Adaption produces several types of responses to environmental stress. One response to stress is to resist or tolerate it. Another response is to yield or conform to the environmental stress. Yet another response is to change the environment. A final response is to change environments or leave the situation (Balgopal & Vassil, 1983; Swaine & Flax, 1986).

Stress and reactions to it are not always harmful. As a result of incongruent transactions, new views and ideas are brought to the table. Different views and opinions are expressed which serve to broaden the group's understanding of the problem or possible solutions (John-Steiner, 2000). New capacities may be created as stakeholders conform to the environment of the collaborative. However, stakeholders may resist the stress in a manner that is counterproductive to the collaborative process as described above by refusing to compromise or share needed information. An even worse adaptation would be for stakeholders to leave the collaborative altogether. The importance of stakeholder involvement has already been established. In order to

maintain goodness-of-fit between stakeholders and the collaborative group, opportunities and expectations must match the aspirations and capacities of the stakeholders.

Leadership

Leadership is a critical factor in the success of collaborative efforts (Atlanta Project, 1998; Bass, 1990; Bennis & Biederman, 1997; Bruner, 1996; Schorr, 1997). "As paradoxical as it might seem, leadership is *more* essential - not less - when collaboration is required" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 243, italics in original). But what exactly is leadership and how is it demonstrated in collaborative groups? Few researchers have operationalized or reported empirical findings about specific leadership functions or outcomes for community-based collaborative efforts.

Individual Leadership

The earliest studies of leadership examined individual traits of leaders that distinguished them from non-leaders. Initially trait studies produced limited results that could not be replicated (House & Aditya, 1997). However, more recent studies have revived the trait theory of leadership and contributed the following findings to our understanding of leadership. The influence of leader traits is situational. Situations with strong controls and behavioral norms tend to suppress the expression of natural leadership traits. Traits are predictive of an individual's behavior in select situations rather than as a stable predictor of behavior across all situations. The determining factor seems to be the relevance of the trait to the situation (Bass, 1990). There are some traits that consistently differentiate leaders from others. These are physical energy, intelligence, prosocial influence motivation, adjustment, self-confidence, achievement motivation, and motives of the leader (House and Aditya, 1997).

Another line of inquiry into leadership examined the behaviors of individuals in positions of authority and related those behaviors to various measures of leader effectiveness. This line of inquiry, led by researchers at the Ohio State Leadership Center, the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan and Robert Bales and his associates, led to two classes of behavior that were necessary for effective leadership. These are task-oriented behavior (initiating structure) and person-oriented (consideration) behavior (Bass, 1990; Halpin & Winer, 1957; House & Aditya, 1997).

These two classes of leader behavior can be linked in various combinations. Leaders that are high on task-oriented behaviors and low on person-oriented behaviors are considered "autocratic". Leaders high on person-oriented behaviors but low on task-oriented behaviors are labeled "laissez faire". Leaders high in both classes are labeled "democratic" leaders. In a study of autocratic, laissez faire and democratic styles of leadership with Boy Scouts, Lewin, Lippett and White (1939) concluded that leadership style had a powerful impact on productivity and morale. Autocratic led groups were productive but joyless and very dependent. Laissez faire leadership led to aimlessness and confusion. Democratic led groups were preferred by the boys and produced a more positive climate. Other studies of these two behavior classes have led to a complex pattern of interactions. Leaders with high consideration for the well-being of others had higher morale, lower turnover and reduced absenteeism rates. The most effective groups, in terms of long-term success, were those led by leaders high on both classes (Bass, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 2000).

Most modern theories of leadership adopt a contingency approach based on contextual factors of the situation. Contingency theories attempt to specify how leader traits and behavior interact with situational variables. Vroom and Yetton (1973) developed some rules for deciding

between the three types of leadership. Autocratic decisions are most appropriate and most likely to be efficient and effective when the leader has a clear task and the support of followers. More participation-oriented decisions will fare better when either support or clarity is absent (Bolman & Deal, 2000). Fiedler (1967) reported findings that leaders high on task-oriented behaviors perform best in high and low control situations, and person-oriented leaders perform best in moderate control situations. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) found that prescribed leadership style is contingent on the maturity of followers defined as the willingness and readiness to tackle the task. Examining contingencies from a trait perspective Fielder (1995 as cited in House & Aditya, 1997) determined that under conditions of high stress a highly intelligent person should rely on experience rather than intelligence to be effective. The opposite is true for low–stress situations. Directive leadership, based on leader intelligence, is only effective when the leader has total control of the followers (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

More recently, transactional and transformational leadership have been the focus of much research (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Transactional leadership is based on the use of reinforcement and rewards to influence positive performance (Bryant, 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003). A key feature of transactional leadership is the establishment of clear, specific goals as well as rewards for achieving performance goals (Bryant, 2003). On the other hand, transformational leadership is based on the use of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration to inspire extraordinary performance (Bryant, 2003). Studies have demonstrated that this type of leadership produces "a high-level of follower motivation and commitment and well-above -average organizational performance, especially under conditions of crisis or uncertainty" (House & Aditya, 1997, p. 441). Both types of leadership are encouraged for effective organizational performance. Transformational leadership tends to enhance creativity

and innovation, while transactional leadership tends to enhance goal achievement and efficiency (Bryant, 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Manz and Sims (2001) coined the term superleadership to describe another type of leadership. Superleadership empowers followers to self-leadership. This type of leadership is based in the belief that the only real control that can be levied in a situation is self-control. Leadership success is measured by "the ability to maximize the contributions of others by helping them to effectively guide their own destinies, rather than the ability to bend the will of others" (Manz & Sims, 2001, p. 4). Superleadership may be described as a process of transforming followers into self-leaders. Self-leadership is the "key to tapping the intelligence, the spirit, the creativity, the commitment, and most of all the tremendous, unique potential of each person" (p. 229). Gordon (2002) classifies superleadership as a theory of dispersed leadership because of its emphasis on self-leadership. This emphasis moves followers out of the role of simply following and empowers them for self-control in work situations. He notes the problem with this approach is the gap between the work relationships described by the theory and the situations that exist in reality. In reality, deep seated power structures may interfere with the real transference of power in a traditionally hierarchical organization.

The majority of the research on leadership to date has focused attention on a single leader usually in a position of authority over his followers (Pearce & Conger, 2003). A few studies have examined the follower side of the leader-follower relationship (Greene, 1975; Sanford, 1980; Yukl, 1971). Even dispersed leadership theories, such as superleadership, maintain the emphasis on actions of individuals rather than the interactions among individuals that generate group leadership. "Leadership is not a solo act, it's a team effort" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 242). In voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives there simply isn't just one primary

leader (Ray, 2002). This traditional approach to leadership, including all of the leadership themes noted above, fails to adequately address leadership as a group-wide phenomenon within a collaborative.

Distributed Leadership

Breaking from the idea of leadership as a quality of a single individual, Bowers and Seashore (1966) compared the effects of supervisory leadership and peer leadership on organizational performance. They conceptualized leadership as a four factor behavioral construct consisting of support, interactions facilitation, goal emphasis, and work group facilitation. Leadership, they proposed, could be "provided by anyone in a work group setting for anyone else" (p. 249). They reported statistically significant correlations in 7 of 28 pairwise correlations between peer leadership measures and organizational effectiveness. Six of 28 supervisory-effectiveness pairings were statistically significant. Measures of peer leadership were the best predictors of effectiveness in six of nine tests (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). Although peer leadership measures were the best predictors of effectiveness in the majority of tests, one must be careful not to conclude that peer leadership was the only predictor of effectiveness. In most of the pairwise correlations, the relationship between peer leadership and organizational effectiveness was not significant. However, while peer leadership is not the only factor related to organizational effectiveness, this data indicate that it is a factor and often more directly related to organizational effectiveness than supervisory leadership.

In a series of studies in a variety of organizations, Tannenbaum (1968a) and his associates also examined leadership as a function of multiple individuals in an organization. They addressed what they identified as two common misconceptions of leadership. The first misconception is that one either leads or follows. The second is that there is a limited or fixed

amount of leadership in an organization and, in order to increase the leadership of some individuals, leadership from others would have to be decreased. They conceptualized leadership as the amount of control or influence individuals at various levels of an organization have over how things are decided in the organization. Tannenbaum (1968a) defines control as "any process in which a person or group of persons or organization of persons determines, that is, intentionally affects, the behavior of another person, group or organization" (p. 5). The total amount of control[1] is related to the level of participation in the organization. Tannenbaum reported that productivity is related more strongly to total control than to the distribution of control across different levels of an organization. Distribution of control tends to be associated with satisfaction and loyalty. The most notable discovery by Tannenbaum was that control can increase and decrease within an organization.

More recently, Pounder, Ogawa and Adams (1995) resurrected Tannenbaum's control graph in their study of leadership as an organizational quality. In a survey of administrative, professional and clerical staff at over 60 schools, they found that the total amount of leadership did vary across schools and that the total amount of leadership in schools is positively correlated with school performance. They concluded that many different people can lead and thereby affect the performance of their school. However, not all people should be expected to lead in all areas but only those most pertinent to their roles.

Although the studies noted above make an important contribution to our knowledge of leadership by shifting the focus away from leadership as a quality of a single individual, the contributions are limited in their ability to inform us about leadership for voluntary multiparty

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[1] The words leadership, control and influence are used interchangeably in the work of Tannenbaum and his associates.

community collaboration. The majority of the studies cited above were conducted on non-voluntary organizations. None of the studies were conducted with multiparty community collaboratives which are designed to bring together a diverse group of autonomous stakeholders. The voluntary and diverse nature of broad-based community collaboratives presents a unique context for leadership.

Collaborative Leadership

By its very nature, collaboration needs a specific kind of leadership. Leadership as authority implies that leaders can mandate follower response. This will not work when involving community partners in collaborative efforts (Bolman & Miles, 1993). If this type of authoritative leadership were possible, collaboration would be unnecessary. By definition collaboration is an outcome that occurs when two or more *autonomous* stakeholders constructively explore their differences and work toward identifying and achieving common goals that *could not be achieved by acting alone*. As discussed above there is some evidence to suggest that concentration of leadership in a single individual may be less optimal than shared leadership among two or more individuals. Furthermore, Campbell and Goold (1999) have noted that the presence of a positional superior may stifle collaborative decision-making between peers.

Astin and Astin (1996) report that a leader is not necessarily a person who holds some formal position of leadership or who is perceived as a leader by others. They define a leader as one who is able to effect positive change for the betterment of others, the community and society. All people are potential leaders (Astin & Astin, 1996). Lambert et al. (1995) go one step further by describing leadership as a feature of the organizational climate. "Leadership, like energy, is not finite, not restricted by formal authority and power. It permeates a healthy school

culture and is undertaken by whoever sees a need or an opportunity" (p. 33). For the purposes of this study, *leadership* was defined as those acts, interactions and processes that motivate, equip and guide the group to accomplish a common goal.

A critical factor to the success of a collaborative endeavor is the involvement of all the key stakeholders (Bergstrom et al., 1995; Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Gray, 1989; Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). Collaboratives are composed of autonomous stakeholders. Chrislip and Larson describe a stakeholder as one who is affected by or affects a particular problem or issue. Stakeholders include those who are affected by a problem, those responsible for solving the problem and those with the resources, including expertise, power and money, to impact the problem. Stakeholders are assembled because they are believed to have a legitimate stake in the work of the collaborative. They have something to offer or stand to gain from the resulting products and programs.

Success in collaborative efforts is often contingent upon the degree to which collaborative members share resources (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Leadership within collaboratives should draw on the strengths and interests of all stakeholders by honoring their diversity (Mumford, Zacarro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). Bolman and Deal (2000) put it this way:

> Though leadership is essential, it need not come from only one person. A single leader focuses responsibility and clarifies accountability. But the same individual may not be equally effective in different situations. Groups often do better with a shared and fluid approach (p. 157).

Peck (1987) portrays a true community as a group of all leaders. Traditional leaders are free to not lead and the traditional followers are free to step forward and use their leadership

abilities. Members feel free to express themselves and offer their insights and abilities at just the right moment. One member gives part A of the solution and another offers part B at just the right moment. In this way, collaborative members are both leaders and followers depending on the need for knowledge or expertise at a particular moment (Frydman, Wilson & Wyer, 2000).

To illustrate, shared leadership is like a group of people putting together a jigsaw puzzle. Each person has a piece of the puzzle. Each person contributes to the whole by discovering the correct location for her/his puzzle piece. Rarely does a single person direct the assembly of the puzzle. That would not usually hold the attention of the group. If one person tells everyone else where to put all the pieces, it is likely the people being directed will lose interest in the project after a while. It is also likely that they will not make their unique and personal contribution.

In this example, leadership must be shared. It must also be accepted. The puzzle will never be complete if each person does not insert one's unique piece of the puzzle. Shared leadership exists when the opportunity and the commitment to be involved exist simultaneously.

> Shared leadership occurs when the leadership is diffused throughout the collaboration, becoming a holistic property shared to some degree by all persons and groups involved in the collaboration. Although one person or group may rise to prominence in a given situation, such prominence is temporary and nonthreatening to leadership distribution (Kagan, 1999, p. 53).

Earlier leadership was defined as those acts, interactions and processes that motivate, equip and guide the group to accomplish a common goal. The concept of shared leadership adds to this definition the elements of broad-based participation of collaborative participants through the contributions of expertise and interests. In this study *shared leadership* was defined as the

active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal.

A Model of Shared Leadership

Although shared leadership is not mentioned as a distinct construct in the growing body of literature on collaboration theory and has not been adequately addressed in leadership theory, it should be an important concept in both. The concept of shared leadership builds on existing leadership theory and clarifies stakeholder involvement and the process of goal identification and attainment as presented in collaboration theory. If Lambert et al. (1995) are correct in their assertion that failure to understand leadership is the missing link in change efforts, this study was designed to improve change efforts by clarifying our understanding of shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives.

Shared leadership builds upon the cumulative findings of leadership research. Research into leadership traits has demonstrated that certain leadership traits are common to effective leaders although situations with strong controls and behavioral norms tend to suppress the expression of natural leadership traits. The traits most commonly found in effective leaders are physical energy, intelligence, prosocial influence motivation, adjustment, self-confidence and achievement motivation (House & Aditya, 1997). These traits are expected to be present among collaborative partners. When leadership is shared in an open and fluid process, these leadership traits can emerge and serve to move the group toward its goal. For instance, an intelligent person can take information from diverse perspectives and assimilate it into an understandable whole. An energetic, collaborative member can motivate or inspire stakeholders to take action. When leadership is shared, stakeholders are less likely to be constrained by role and position expectations.

Research into leadership behavior has demonstrated that effective leaders engage in certain behaviors. These behaviors are generally classified into task-oriented and person-oriented behaviors (House & Aditya, 1997). Bowers and Seashore (1966) further divide this scheme into the four classifications of leader behavior discussed earlier. The full range of these behaviors is needed in collaborations as well. The concept of shared leadership proposes that these behaviors need not come only from a recognized leader but can flow from any member of the collaborative. In fact, as Bowers and Seashore (1966) found, peer leadership behavior is a strong predictor of success.

Continency theory directs the leader to select his/her style of leadership based on the situation including follower characteristics and desired outcome. Different styles produce differential outcomes depending on the situation. However, leaders utilizing a more participative approach generally produce groups with higher morale, lower absenteeism and lower turnover (Bass, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 2000). Absenteeism and turnover are especially important factors in collaboratives because of the need to have all stakeholders involved in decision making. According to Cognitive Resource Theory, a specific contingency theory, autocratic leadership is only effective when the leader has total control of the follower group (House & Aditya, 1997). Total control of the group by a single party is never present in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. Therefore, a more participative approach to leadership is indicated by the theory.

Transactional and transformational leadership may also be exercised by members of voluntary collaboratives toward one another. Collaborative members may use approval and other forms of social praise as rewards for collaborative member performance. In a similar manner, transformational leadership may be exercised through appeals to working on ground

breaking projects or opportunities to participate in intellectually or emotionally stimulating activities (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Although recognized leaders may exhibit characteristics of each type of leadership, individuals tend to emphasize one style more than the other (Bryant, 2003). Through the use of a shared leadership approach, these qualities may be expressed by multiple members of a collaborative allowing both styles to be emphasized as needed by the group.

Ecological theory also provides insights into the importance of shared leadership. Two of the three person-environment transaction areas are important here. The aspirations-opportunities transaction addresses the ability of the environment, in the case of community collaboratives the collaborative group, to provide opportunities for the person to achieve his/her aspirations. As stated earlier, stakeholders get involved in collaboration because they have a contribution to make. If the opportunity does not exist in the collaborative for the person to contribute based on one's interests and expertise stress is produced. Similarly the capacities-expectation transaction may produce stress if more or less is expected of the person than one is prepared to provide. If leadership rests in a small number, it is possible for the leaders to feel overburdened and the followers to feel left out. Either situation produces stress. Although stress may be the impetus to constructive change, it may also cause the stakeholder to stop attempting to contribute or worse to leave the collaborative. Stakeholders leaving the collaborative is an especially problematic condition. Every emerging theory of collaboration identifies stakeholder participation as a critical component for success (Bergstrom et al., 1995; Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Gray, 1989; Mattessich & Monsey, 1992) . Mattessich and Monsey (1992) indicate that stakeholder involvement may be the most critical component.

A model of shared leadership has three basic components (see Figure 2 on page 47). The first component is the active involvement of all participants. Ideally, participants would include all relevant stakeholders as has been addressed previously. Active involvement simply means doing something to move the collaborative closer to identifying or achieving the common goal. Through active involvement stakeholders use their expertise and interests, whether it be character traits or behavioral skills, to make their unique contribution. Active involvement increases the competence of the collaborative to achieve the common goal. It may involve both task-oriented and people-oriented contributions.

The second component of shared leadership is an open process of working together. Without using the term shared leadership, Chrislip and Larson (1994) point to the critical importance of an open and credible process to the success of a collaborative. They describe a process in which all relevant stakeholders, including key power holders, have a say but not control of the process. Divergent opinions must be heard and handled constructively. Bergtrom et al. (1995) propose that all stakeholders have an equal say in decisions. While it is not possible or even desired for every individual stakeholder to be directly involved in all decision-making processes, it is important that each stakeholder have adequate representation to present his/her interests and needs to the collaborative. The process must also allow a willing participant to become actively involved by making a significant contribution to the success of the collaborative (Finch, 1977; Mumford et al., 2000). According to Gray (1989) solutions to problems addressed by collaboration emerge through a process of dealing constructively with the contributions of a diverse group of autonomous stakeholders.

The process of shared leadership requires the opportunity for each stakeholder to have an equal say in decisions but shared leadership is more than simply each stakeholder getting an

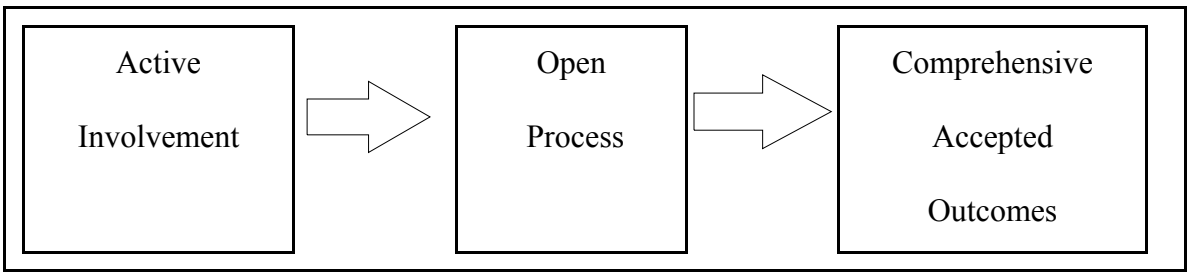

Figure 2. Initial Model of Shared Leadership in Voluntary Multiparty Community Collaboratives

equal vote. Instead shared leadership involves trust, mutual respect and a recognition of the importance of diversity. Shared leadership involves a process in which each stakeholder is free, encouraged and motivated to share his/her ideas and have those ideas considered and integrated into the whole. In other words, shared leadership is not a democratic process in which the majority rules. Instead, it is a process through which the contributions of stakeholders are cumulative; each adding to the pool of solution resources.

The final component of shared leadership is outcomes. It is expected that shared leadership produces positive outcomes in at least three areas. The first outcome is a higher rate of acceptance of collaboratives decisions. Acceptance of any solution is enhanced when those who must abide by it are included in its design (Delbecq, 1974). Even the best plans are useless if they are not implemented. Shared leadership, through the process described above, produces solutions that are owned by the collaborative and jointly owned by each stakeholder. Another outcome of shared leadership is a more comprehensive solution to problems. Comprehensive solutions go beyond the ability of any single party. These solutions have been derived after examining the issue from multiple perspectives and bringing every available resource to the mix. Finally, shared leadership leads to systems change. No longer are problems and solutions considered to be client problems, or Department of Family and Children Services problems or school system problems. Instead, problems and solutions become "our" problems and solutions. Examples of system changes include such common solutions as joint intake forms and co-location of services.

To understand the process of shared leadership better, let's return to the illustration of the jigsaw puzzle. Each stakeholder holds pieces to the puzzle. The puzzle pieces can be understood to be a variety of things related to the success of a collaborative. The puzzle pieces

may be leadership traits such as intelligence, or physical energy. The puzzle pieces may be general or specialized knowledge including knowledge of the community and professional knowledge from a variety of disciplines. Skills are another type of puzzle piece. Some stakeholders may have skills in group facilitation or writing. Others may have fund raising skills or public relations skills. The puzzle pieces represent the expertise, interests and strengths of each stakeholder/stakeholder group.

Any jigsaw puzzle has at least two types of pieces. Border pieces are necessary to create the frame for the puzzle. In a collaborative, these pieces may be represented by person-oriented, support or interaction facilitation behaviors. Several of these type pieces are necessary to fully construct the frame of the puzzle. Interior pieces are also necessary. The interior pieces actually come together to create the picture in the puzzle. In a collaborative, multiple task-oriented, goal emphasis and work facilitation behaviors as well as content specific information and behaviors come together to form the solution sought by the collaborative.

It is important to have all the relevant stakeholders present. Otherwise, the missing pieces will make it impossible to complete the puzzle. Not only must the pieces be present; they must be inserted into the correct place in the puzzle. In other words, the collaborative resources must be used appropriately to be effective. Border pieces should be used in the frame and interior pieces should be used to create the picture. It is only the cumulative effect of adding each piece that produces the picture. One or two pieces, no matter how beautiful, will not complete the puzzle. Puzzle pieces that are unintelligible when examined alone begin to have meaning when combined with other pieces.

There is a fundamental premise-we call it the collaborative premise-that undergirds these efforts: there is a belief that *if you bring the appropriate people together in constructive*

> *ways with good information, they will create authentic visions and strategies for addressing the concerns of the organization or community* (Chrislip & Larson, 1994, p. 14, italics in original).

Summary

Collaboration is the most comprehensive level of working together. For this study, *collaboration* was defined as an outcome that occurs when two or more autonomous stakeholders constructively combine their varied resources and jointly work toward identifying and achieving common goals that could not be achieved by acting alone. This outcome relies upon a mutually beneficial relationship in which stakeholders share responsibility, authority and accountability for results. It involves the full commitment of stakeholders in pooling resources and joint-decision-making. Due to the heightened risk inherent in such a close relationship, collaboration also requires high levels of trust and leadership.

Currently, there is no widely accepted comprehensive theory of collaboration. Much of the early work on community collaboration was drawn from organizational theory. Organizational theory may point toward some important areas of research but it focuses too much on internal organizational relationships and processes or bilateral relationships with one other organization. This is too limited for voluntary, multiparty community collaboration.

Other theories of collaboration are emerging, generally through case study approaches, to identify the key factors in successful collaboratives. Most identify the critical importance of bringing all the relevant stakeholders to the process in a meaningful way (Gray, 1989; Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). Bergstrom et al. (1995) assembled key factors to collaborative success into a framework that demonstrates how the factors fit together. Recent

studies of collaboration have returned to ecological theory and systems theory as foundations for collaboration.

One particular aspect of collaboration that must be addressed in greater specificity is leadership. Leadership theory has taken many twists and turns over the years. Fortunately, each of these turns has contributed to the cumulative gain of what we know about leadership. We now better understand the traits and behaviors that are necessary for effective leadership and when to use each. The problem with much of the research on leadership has been that it is focused on a single identified leader who has authority over his/her followers. A few studies have examined leadership as a group quality (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Pounder, Ogawa & Adams, 1995; Smith, 2001; Tannenbaum, 1968a). Although these studies make an important contribution to our knowledge of leadership by shifting the focus away from leadership as a quality of a single individual, the contributions are limited in their ability to inform us about leadership for multiparty voluntary community collaboration. The majority of these studies were conducted on non-voluntary organizations. None of the studies was conducted with multiparty community collaboratives which are designed to bring together a diverse group of stakeholders. The voluntary and diverse nature of broad-based community collaboratives presents a unique context for leadership.

A more participative form of leadership is required for community collaboratives. In community collaboratives leadership must flow from the total group as a quality of the entire organization. Collaborative leadership should draw on the strengths and interests of all stakeholders by honoring their diversity. This special type of leadership may be described as shared leadership. Shared leadership is the active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal.

A model of shared leadership was proposed as an explanation for leadership in successful collaboratives. Shared leadership encompasses the three components of active involvement of all stakeholders, an open process in which each participant is able to contribute to the success of the collaborative, and jointly shared outcomes. Simply stated, shared leadership is a process in which each relevant stakeholder contributes from his/her expertise and that contribution is accepted and used by the group to produce outcomes that are owned by the entire group. Finally, a jigsaw puzzle was used as an analogy to illustrate shared leadership.

The present study was undertaken to conceptualize a model of shared leadership within voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives and test a measure of this concept. The study will build upon key aspects of collaboration and leadership drawn from the literature review discussed above. Chapter three describes the methodology used to develop the model and test the measure.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

The purpose of this study was to more fully explicate a model of shared leadership and develop a valid and reliable measure of the construct. A three-stage, multi-method investigation was employed to examine shared leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives. A model of shared leadership, including a measure of the concept, was developed in the initial stage. The second stage consisted of focus group interviews to refine the model and measure. Finally, the measure was tested to determine its utility as a measure of shared leadership. This study is limited to model development and scale testing and did not examine the impact of shared leadership on specific outcomes for children and families.

Design

This study employed a three-stage, multi-method approach to examine shared leadership. A multi-method approach that combines qualitative and quantitative methods is an acceptable and sometimes preferred approach to research. Rubin and Babbie (1993) advise that methods should be chosen to match the research questions and conditions of research. In this study, the combination of qualitative and quantitative data allowed the researcher to develop a more comprehensive understanding of shared leadership as it is enacted in the field. "The triangulation made possible by multiple data-collection methods provides a stronger substantiation of constructs and hypotheses" (Eisenhardt, 1995, p. 73).

Qualitative methods provide the researcher the opportunity to gather in-depth information from the perspective of a smaller number of people (Patton, 1987). It allows new ideas to emerge through the use of open-ended questions. Rubin and Babbie (1993) propose that

qualitative methods are particularly well-suited for situations involving the study of new phenomenon where flexibility is needed. This approach to research allows the researcher to gather data in order to "make sense out of an ongoing process that cannot be predicted in advance" (Rubin & Babbie, 1993, p. 359) and explore "subjective meanings of complex phenomena in order to advance our conceptualization of them" (Rubin & Babbie, p. 30). Shared leadership in voluntary, multiparty collaboratives is a new and complex concept about which little is known. By using qualitative methods the researcher was able to explore themes as they developed without limiting data collection to that which fit a pre-defined model. This approach was particularly relevant to the first two research questions proposed for this study. Qualitative methods allowed the researcher to discover necessary leadership functions, and how these functions are shared in collaborative groups even if these functions and their application differ from applications of leadership in other circumstances. These findings contributed to the refinement of the shared leadership measure.

Quantitative methods, on the other hand, provide the researcher the opportunity to use standardized questions and responses in order to increase the opportunity for meaningful comparisons. Once the concept can be organized and predicted quantitative methods allow the researcher the opportunity to examine the accuracy of the prediction. This approach allows the researcher to survey a "great many people on a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of data. This gives a broad set of findings that may be generalized across a larger population" (Patton, 1987, p. 9). This approach is particularly well-suited for use in testing the psychometric properties of the shared leadership scale. A quantitative approach provides a means to test the findings of the qualitative interviews with a larger set of respondents.

Stage 1

This study was conducted in three stages. The first stage consisted of the initial development of the shared leadership model and accompanying measure. A preliminary shared leadership model and initial item pool of statements for the measure were derived from a review of the literature. Since collaboration, by definition, is multi-disciplinary the literature review was broad including literature from the fields of social work, education, management, organizational studies and health care. The search for information included both research findings, as well as concept development and explication publications in the areas of collaboration and leadership. This literature review is more fully documented in Chapter Two.

Stage 2

This second stage consisted of a pair of focus group interviews with members of local collaborative groups. The participants and questions for these focus groups will be discussed below. The purpose of these interviews was to explore those functions of leadership which are necessary to move a collaborative toward its goal. Open-ended questions were used to elicit data from focus group members on their perceptions of those functions which led to collaborative success. Probing questions were used to explore how these functions are performed by various collaborative members. This investigation led to the refinement of the initial item pool of essential leadership functions in multiparty community collaboratives. Furthermore, by combining the focus group data with information derived from the literature review, a more fully developed model representing the way these functions are shared throughout the collaborative was developed. This information was used to refine the shared leadership measure developed in the initial stage of the study.

Stage 3

The final stage of the study tested the measure developed and refined in the previous two stages. Data were gathered by including the measure in a survey administered to a sample of diverse collaborative groups across Georgia. The survey, which took about 15 minutes to complete, included the shared leadership measure as well as two other measures designed to gather information on group leadership and control. A fourth measure was added to measure social desirability. All measures included in the survey are described in detail below. The study sample is also discussed in greater detail below. The purpose of this stage was to test the concepts developed and refined in the previous stages. Indicators of reliability and validity were assessed to determine the utility of the scale in measuring the concept of shared leadership.

Although shared leadership is necessarily a group concept it cannot be assumed that the shared leadership measure actually produces a group score since the measure will be administered to individual collaborative members. Glisson (1987) cautions that too often researchers who report findings on a group unit of analysis actually inappropriately collect the data on the individual. This can be inappropriate when within group variation is greater than between group variation. In this case, reporting widely divergent individual data as an average group score may misrepresent the true presence or absence of the concept being measured. He advises the only way to collect individual data and report as group data is to check out variation within and between groups to make sure that all the relationships remain the same. Even this should be done with extreme care. In order to avoid this problem, within and between group variance was examined and interpreted with caution.

Sample

Shared leadership is a group concept and must be measured at the group level. Therefore, with the caution mentioned above firmly in mind, the sample for this study was drawn from voluntary, community-based collaborative groups. Since the focus of this study was on shared leadership within voluntary, community collaboratives, the sample was drawn from Family Connection Collaboratives which are located in nearly every county in Georgia.

Georgia's Family Connection collaboratives are located in 148 of Georgia's 159 counties. Family Connection is a community-based, collaborative planning process initiated by the state of Georgia and leaders from the Joseph B. Whitehead Foundation for improving results for children and families (Family Connection Partnership, 2002). It was begun in 1991 with an initial start-up of 15 counties (Georgia Policy Council for Children and Families, 2000). With the exception of fiscal year 1993, the Family Connection progress has grown by about 15 counties per year to its current size of 148 counties (Erickson, 1999).

Family Connection is a collaborative enterprise that brings together local public and private partners to make decisions about desired results, set priorities and allocate resources to achieve those results. Local collaboratives also develop plans to hold themselves accountable for the results (Georgia Policy Council for Children and Families, 2000). Although Family Connection is a state-initiated process, it is designed to be controlled at the local level and as such is considered a community-based collaborative enterprise.

> It was envisioned that the balance of authority between state level overseers and local leaders would be tilted enough toward local autonomy so that Family Connection could be termed authentically a community driven, bottom-up approach, albeit one infused with

> state level dissemination of the latest in strategic, administrative, fiscal, technical and evaluative models (Erickson, 1999, p. 3).

Family Connection collaboratives are made up of partners from all segments of the community including business, civic organizations, faith community, schools, service recipients, local elected officials, public and private service providers and other concerned citizens (Georgia Policy Council for Children and Families, 2000). These segments and others not specifically mentioned here represent the relevant stakeholders in the community. The mix of stakeholders actively involved in each collaborative is different in each county.

Two of the 148 Family Connection collaboratives were chosen to serve as focus groups in the refinement stage of the research. The collaboratives were selected from a nonprobability sample of collaboratives accessible to the researcher. Selection of the focus group collaboratives used maximum variation sampling to account for as much diversity as practical by taking into account the following factors: age of the collaborative and population type of the community. The two collaboratives were selected from among Family Connection collaboratives with a reputation for success in the northeast section of the state. Collaborative age and population type were determined from the classification system reported by Erickson (1999) which includes metropolitan, suburban, rural growth and rural decline areas (University of Georgia, 2003). Reputation for success was used instead of actual success because there are no standardized measures of success currently in use. Each county selects its own goal areas and develops its own evaluation plan.

In order to determine reputation for success, Family Connection regional community facilitators from regions 2, 3, 5 & 6 in north Georgia nominated collaboratives from their region that they believed had a track record of success. Regional community facilitators work closely

with each collaborative in their region and are knowledgeable of the accomplishments of each collaborative. In the context of this study, it was determined that regional community facilitators were in the best position to determine comparative success of each collaborative. From the list of nominated collaboratives, two were selected to participate in the focus group portion of the study based on the criteria outlined above. After selection, additional differences were noted between these collaboratives other than the selection criteria.

One of the collaboratives (Collaborative A) was among the first Family Connection communities in the first wave of implementation in 1992 (Erickson, 1999). This collaborative is based in a county classified as rural growth (University of Georgia, 2003). The racial makeup of the county in which Collaborative A is based is 97.2% white.

By way of contrast, Collaborative B is a relative newcomer to the Family Connection process. This collaborative began implementation in the 5th wave in 1997. It is based in a suburban county (Erickson, 1999; University of Georgia, 2003) just outside of Atlanta with approximately 42% of its residents living in an urban area of the county as compared to 0% for Collaborative A. This county has approximately 6 times as much racial diversity, although still predominantly white, and nearly 40% more families living in poverty than Collaborative A. The county in which Collaborative B is based is also larger and covers 54% more area in square miles than the county hosting Collaborative A (University of Georgia, 2003).

One final difference between the selected collaboratives that will be noted here is the composition of the group of participants in each interview session. The participant group for Collaborative A was composed entirely of collaborative board members, and the interview was conducted at the conclusion of a regularly scheduled board meeting. All board members in attendance (N = 9) voluntarily agreed to participate in the focus group interview. At the time of

the interview, the collaborative did not have a regular meeting of all collaborative members. Although Collaborative B has a governing board, focus group participants were self-selected after a regular meeting of the full membership (N = 15). Several board members chose to participate but not all. All participants signed the Focus Group Participation Consent Form (See Appendix A) as provided for in the University of Georgia, Institutional Review Board project approval (Project Number H2001-10599).

During the final stage, the survey instrument was sent to a nonprobability sample of Family Connection collaboratives across the state of Georgia. For the current study, 134 Family Connection Collaboratives in Georgia were ranked from high to low on level of collaboration using a three-step process. The Family Connection Partnership State Evaluation Team recommended that Self-Assessment data be used as an empirical basis for determining those community collaboratives operating most closely (higher rankings) and least closely (lower rankings) to the shared leadership definition stated in Chapter One (S. Erickson, personal communication, November, 6, 2002).

Family Connection collaboratives are required to complete a formal Self-Assessment questionnaire annually to assess progress of the collaborative. In the Self-Assessment, collaborative members were asked to select from a list of possible *Benchmarks of Systems Change* those benchmarks developed as a result of collaborative activities. *Benchmarks of Systems Change* was defined as "a standard that signals change in the ways that programs and activities are conceptualized, organized or delivered" (The Family Connection Partnership, 2002, p. 16). Collaborative members were also asked to identify the level of participation of each agency/organization type represented in the community (The Family Connection, 2002).

Data from the FY2001 Self-Assessment was used to arrive at initial rankings because FY02 data was not yet available at the time of the analysis. Three collaboratives were eliminated from the analysis due to missing data. Collaboratives were ranked from highest to lowest in terms of the collaborative's total "collaboration" score. The total score represents an average of two sub-scores: (1) participation T score and (2) systems change T score. Family Connection community facilitators from each region were given the empirical rankings and asked to review the findings for accuracy. The facilitators were given the following instructions: "If you think a score (and corresponding rank) for any collaborative in your region is more or less accurate, just leave it be. If, however, you think a score is too high or low, please make a note of it and suggest approximately where you think it belongs." The final rankings were determined by the Family Connection Partnership State Evaluation Team after all comments from community facilitators were evaluated (S. Erickson, personal communication, November, 6, 2002). This process represents expert opinion on collaboratives functioning most closely to the definition of shared leadership that was presented to State Evaluation Team members. The top 20 and bottom 20 collaboratives from this ranking were invited to participate in the study.

Table 1

Distribution of Participants across Study Conditions

Study Condition	Collaboratives	Participants
Stage Two Focus Group Interviews	2	24
Stage Three Survey	35	419

Data Collection

Multiple methods were used to collect data for this study. Qualitative methods were used extensively in stage two. Stage three consisted primarily of quantitative methods. The data collection methods included focus group interviews, and a survey instrument that includes scales of shared leadership, peer leadership, organizational control, and social desirability. Each of these are discussed separately below.

Focus Group Interviews

Focus group interviews were conducted with members of two of the 148 Family Connection collaboratives as discussed above. A semi-structured interview protocol was used to focus the interviews (see Appendix B for a list of interview questions). Questions for the interview protocol were developed to address the first two research questions guiding this study as well as to address each of the five component areas of the shared leadership definition. The researcher/interviewer used probing questions for deeper understanding as necessary. Also, while the interview protocol gave direction to the focus group interviews, the researcher exercised flexibility in adding additional questions in order to follow emerging themes not previously anticipated. This allowed for a richer accumulation of data covering the construct. Interviews were audio taped with the permission of the interviewees. The tapes were transcribed to produce a verbatim script of the interviews. Participation was voluntary with informed consent obtained prior to beginning the interview. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. At the conclusion of each interview a member check was conducted to get feedback from focus group members on the contents of the initial shared leadership measure. The focus group interviews were conducted one month apart in the Spring of 2002.

Survey Instrument

A telephone call was placed to the Family Connection Coordinator for each of the 40 nominated Family Connection collaboratives to describe the study and enlist participation. A packet of information including a description of the research, survey instruments with instructions, and attached survey cover letters (see Appendix C for a copy of the cover letter) was mailed to most coordinators who agreed to participate. Survey packets were delivered to three coordinators, and two coordinators requested an email version of the survey. A self-addressed stamped envelope was included in the coordinator's packet to facilitate a higher return rate. Additional envelopes were included for individual participant use. For the two collaboratives requesting email versions of the survey, an electronic version of the survey including cover letter was sent to the collaborative coordinator who then redistributed the surveys to collaborative members via email. Instructions were given in each email for returning the survey either electronically or via postal mail. All surveys were self-administered to collaborative members. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. These data collection procedures were approved by The University of Georgia, Instructional Review Board under project number H2001-10599.

The survey instrument contained five sections (See appendix D for the complete survey instrument). The first section (items 1-50) contained the Shared Leadership Scale (SLS) developed and refined during the first two stages of this study. The second section (items 51-61) contained the Peer Leadership Scale (PLS) created and used by Bowers and Seashore (1966). The social desirability scale was inserted in the third section (items 62-74). The next section (item 75a-g) contained Tannenbaum's (1968a) Control Graph Questionnaire (CGQ) used to measure the amount and distribution of influence (leadership) in an organization. The final

section contained two demographic questions (items 77 & 78) and a general question (item 76) on the perceived overall effectiveness of the collaborative. The first demographic question asked respondents "How long have you been a member of this collaborative?" A three-category response set including *less than 1 year*, *1-5 years*, and *More than 5 years* was used. The second demographic question was a short answer question asking "In what county is your collaborative based?" Item 76 stated "The overall effectiveness of this collaborative can be classified as:". Responses to this item were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (very poor) to 5 (excellent). The first four sections of the survey instrument are described in greater detail below.

Shared Leadership Scale (SLS). This scale was developed during the first two stages of the study. The development process is described in greater detail in Chapter Four. The fifty items in the original scale may be found listed in Appendix E.

Peer Leadership Scale (PLS). The peer leadership scale was developed by Bowers and Seashore (1966) for use in their study on Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership. This was one of the earliest and few empirical studies on shared leadership to date (Pearce & Conger, 2003). They defined leadership as "organizationally useful behavior by one member of an organizational family toward another member or members of that same organizational family" (Bowers & Seashore, 1966, p. 240). As such, leadership is an aggregation of separate behaviors. Bowers and Seashore (1966) conducted a review of the leadership research literature to determine various classification schemes used to describe leadership behavior. They concluded that four leadership behavior dimensions were consistently reported in the literature. These are: support, interaction facilitation, work facilitation and goal emphasis. A description of each follows:

1. *Support.* Behavior that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.

2. *Interaction facilitation.* Behavior that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.

3. *Goal emphasis.* Behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.

4. *Work facilitation.* Behavior that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge (Bowers & Seashore, 1966, p. 247 [italics in original]).

Bowers and Seashore (1966) report that they used pen and paper questionnaires to assess these leadership behavior dimensions but do not describe the measure or specific questions in detail. Neither do they report reliability or validity data. A more complete description of the measure has been presented by Taylor and Bowers (1972). The PLS consists of 11 questions each with five response choices. The response choices are: *to a very little extent*, *to a little extent*, *to some extent*, *to a great extent*, and *to a very great extent*. Total scale scores range from 11 indicating very little peer leadership to 55 representing high levels of peer leadership.

The data used to assess the psychometric properties of the measure were gathered from a questionnaire administered to all employees in 325 workgroups in a large oil refinery. Internal consistency was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. Alpha ranged from .70 for the Goal Emphasis dimension to .90 for Interaction Facilitation (Taylor & Bowers, 1972). Additional reliability data were gathered from a random sample of 1048 respondents drawn from the Organizational Development Program data bank. Spearman-Brown reliability coefficients

ranged from .78 to .95. All of these reliability coefficients are within acceptable limits (Taylor & Bowers, 1972).

Only one assessment of validity for the PLS has been reported. In an assessment of discriminant validity to determine if each of the four dimensions measured distinct factors of leadership, intercorrelations between the dimensions were higher than would be desired. Intercorrelations ranged from .56 to .71, leading the researchers to consider the possibility that the dimensions were simply interchangeable dimensions of a general factor of peer leadership. Upon further investigation involving multiple correlation and an analysis of shared variance Taylor and Bowers (1972) concluded that "*each of the four indices has enough variance to be considered a measure of some distinguishable aspect of leadership"* (p. 59 [italics in original]). Although not specifically discussed in either presentation face validity for the measure appears to be strong.

A major weakness for the measure is the lack of information on other indicators of validity. Even with these limitations, the PLS is an acceptable measure of leadership for this study. The questions have demonstrated stability over a large set of data. Furthermore the questions have face validity and fit well within the framework of the four-factor theory of leadership described by Bowers and Seashore (1966). These questions also fit well within the construct of shared leadership described above.

The construct of peer leadership as defined by Bowers and Seashore (1966) is very similar to the construct of shared leadership employed in the current study. Shared leadership is expected to incorporate leadership from both identified leaders and peers into an organization-wide leadership phenomenon. It was expected that the correlation between these two constructs

would be high and statistically significant. This measure was included in the survey instrument in order to assess convergent validity for the Shared Leadership Scale.

Control Graph Questionnaire (CGQ). Another set of questions for the survey was drawn from Tannenbaum's Control Graph and Questionnaire. These questions were included in the Survey of Organizations (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) and consequently were used extensively in research conducted by the Institute for Social Research. Tannenbaum (1968a) reports on uses of the CGQ in studies of a variety of organizations including labor unions and the League of Women Voters. Markham, Bonjean and Corder (1984) report the CGQ has been used in numerous studies in Europe and the United States with such groups as industrial plants, voluntary organizations, brokerage offices, and churches. More recently, Pounder, Ogawa and Adams (1995) used the CGQ as a measure of leadership in their study of leadership as an organization-wide phenomena.

The CGQ is designed to measure the amount and distribution of control/influence in organizations. The control graph consists of two axes, one representing the hierarchical structure of the organization and the other representing the amount of control. A curve generated along these two axes describes the distribution of control in the organization. The area under the curve describes the total amount of control in the organization. According to Tannenbaum and Cooke (1979), the measure provides an organizational level measure and not a description of individuals. They promote it as a measure of leadership stating, "leadership itself can be understood as a function of the distribution of control represented by the curve" (p. 184).

The CGQ actually consists of a single question. That question has taken many parallel forms in various studies. The nature of the question demands that it be reworded to fit the situation of the particular group being studied. The basic question is, "In general, how much

say or influence does each of the following groups of people have on what goes on in your department?" (Smith & Tannenbaum, 1968, p. 75). The question is usually presented in tabular form with hierarchical levels down the left side of the table and response choices across the top. Hierarchical levels and the last word of the question are customized to the organization. A five-point response scale usually includes the following choices: *no influence at all*, *very little influence*, *some influence*, *quite a bit of influence*, and *a great deal of influence* (Price & Mueller, 1986). Some studies have varied these choices (Tannenbaum, 1968b; Tannenbaum, 1968c; Tannenbaum & Cooke, 1979). Higher total scale scores represent more total control/influence in the organization.

The CGQ, although widely used, is not without problems. Very little data have been reported on the psychometric properties of the scale. Reliability has only been reported in a few studies with mixed results. Markham, Bonjean and Corder (1984) noted that of four studies they reviewed one reported marginal to satisfactory reliability results, one reported good reliability coefficients, one reported unsatisfactory coefficients and one had mixed results. In their own study, the reliability coefficients were marginal at best. With unsatisfactory reliability findings, they did not attempt to gather data on the validity of the Control Graph and urged that caution be used when employing the CGQ as a research measure. In spite of its weaknesses, Markham et al. (1984) encouraged the continued, yet cautious, use of the CGQ because it does seem to accurately describe the power structure of the typical organization.

There is very little information reported on the validity of the control graph. Tannenbaum and Cooke (1979) state the following:

> With rare exception, organizations show a hierarchical distribution of control according to the control graph method; persons and groups at the top are reported to exercise more

> control than groups at the bottom. This result is entirely predictable and it would seem to suggest, therefore, some degree of validity of the measures at least at this gross level (p. 185).

They note that the only exceptions to these findings were four small local trade unions and 13 of 112 local branches of the League of Women Voters. It would seem that these voluntary organizations may likely be less hierarchical in leadership structure than larger more formal organizations.

Some evidence for discriminant validity may be found in Taylor and Bowers (1972) assessment of the Survey of Organizations. In the Survey of Organizations, the CGQ questions (in this case four separate questions instead of a single tabular question) were analyzed as part of the organizational climate items. The data for their analysis were drawn from the data bank of the Institute for Social Research's Organizational Development Research Program which contains approximately 4,500 individual respondents from all levels and functional areas of organizations. With two exceptions, all of the reliability coefficients for the organizational climate items were positive and highly significant. One of the two exceptions were the CGQ questions which produced lower or negative coefficients. Taylor and Bowers concluded that those four questions indicated a different domain from organizational climate and thus the data provides some evidence of discriminant validity. Price and Mueller (1986) agree with Markham et al. (1984) that caution should be used in employing the CGQ but conclude that use and research on the CGQ should continue.

This measure fits well with the concept of shared leadership. Control/influence within an organization corresponds to the active involvement aspect of shared leadership. Total scale scores range from 6 to 30 with higher scores representing higher levels of total control/influence

within the organization. It was expected that correlations between total scores on the CGQ and total scores on the SLS would be statistically significant. The CGQ was included in the survey instrument to assess convergent validity for the SLS.

Social Desirability Scale (MCSD). The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability (MCSD) scale is one of the two most commonly used measures of social desirability. The other most commonly used measure is the Edwards Social Desirability scale. Use of the MCSD has been reported in at least 1069 articles (Beretvas, Myers, & Leite, 2002). Several short forms of the MCSD have been developed to make the measure more practical and useful in research (Ballard, 1992; Beretvas et al., 2002; Fraboni & Cooper; 1989). The original 33-item scale was developed in an effort to measure social desirability without the ambiguities in interpretation present in the Edwards Social Desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

Crowne and Marlowe (1960) defined social desirability as the need of a subject to "obtain approval by responding in a culturally appropriate and acceptable manner" (p. 353). Items for the scale were derived from a universe of items that are culturally sanctioned but improbable in occurrence. Judges were asked to rate items which fit the definition and avoid pathological implications regardless of the direction of scoring. Thirty-three items using a true-false response set made the final scale with 18 items keyed true and 15 key false. Internal consistency, initially assessed on a sample of 120 college students using the Kuder-Richardson formula, was .88. Test-retest reliability was assessed at .89 (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). In other studies, primarily using college students as subjects, internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged from .70 to .88 (Crino & Svoboda, 1983; Fraboni & Cooper, 1989; Holden & Fekken, 1989; O'Grady, 1988; Paulhus, 1991).

Validity of the MCSD is adequate for the current purpose. The scale has strong face validity. Convergent validity has been assessed with several behavioral indicators including a significant relation between scoring high on the MCSD and preferring approval and avoiding risk. Evidence of discriminant validity has been documented in low correlations with the Edwards Social Desirability Scale especially those dimensions most associated with pathology (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Paulhus, 1991).

At least ten short forms of the MCSD have been developed. Reliability coefficients for the short forms range from .63 to .70 (Ballard, 1992; Fraboni & Cooper, 1989). Correlations between the short forms and the full scale suggest that shortened scales are adequately measuring the construct of the full scale (Fraboni & Cooper, 1989). The short form that was used in the present study is a 13-item scale developed by Ballard through a principal components analysis from a sample of 399 college students. Items that had factor loadings of .390 or higher on the primary factor were retained. These items were directionally balanced with eight items keyed false and five keyed true. The internal consistency reliability in the development study was .70 (Ballard, 1992). The total scale score for the MCSD ranges from 0 to 13 with higher scores representing higher levels of socially desirable responding.

The MCSD was included in the survey instrument to allow the researcher to control for a social desirability response bias. Social desirability is a response bias based on responding to items in the most socially desirable manner and not necessarily truthfully (Beretvas et al., 2002; Crino & Svoboda, 1983; Holden & Fekken, 1989; O'Grady, 1988). A social desirability bias may confound the results of an analysis if a scale is significantly correlated with a measure of social desirability. By eliminating those items that correlated with the MCSD at the item level, the influence of a social desirability response bias was greatly reduced. The MCSD was also

used to assess discriminant validity for the SLS. If the SLS measures shared leadership it should not have statistically significant correlations with a measure of social desirability.

Data Analysis

Focus group interviews were taped with the written permission of focus group participants. These tapes were transcribed to produce a verbatim written script of the interviews. The constant comparison method was utilized to explore themes and patterns in the focus group transcripts. The constant comparison method is used to detect common patterns and themes across a set of interviews by comparing concepts emerging from later interviews against those coming from earlier interviews (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Rubin & Babbie, 1993). The most appropriate form of qualitative analysis focuses on both manifest, actual words in the text, and latent, interpreted meaning in the text, contexts (Rubin & Babbie, 1993; Sarantakos, 1998). The data were coded and classified by the researcher to reflect specific essential leadership functions in collaboratives and patterns of sharing these leadership functions. Following the focus group interviews and analysis, the shared leadership scale was modified to include the results of the interviews. Specific revisions are reported in chapter 4. The remaining analyses were performed on the revised version of the shared leadership scale. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 10.0 for Windows.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was used to explore the factor structure of the shared leadership measure. The purpose of a factor analysis is to account for the intercorrelations among items by grouping items on a smaller number of factors, thus achieving parsimony (Cureton & D'Agostino, 1983; Field, 2000; Kim & Mueller, 1978b; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Factor analysis is also used to reduce the number of items in a scale by eliminating those items

that do not correlate well with other items and thus have unsubstantial factor loadings (Netenmeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003). Exploratory factor analysis is used when the method of analysis is guided by hunches or simply an open question about the number and kinds of factors which might be derivable from a set of items (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Exploratory factor analysis is likely the most frequently used type of factor analysis in the social sciences (Kaiser, 1970; Kim & Mueller, 1978b; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987) and is a good approach for studying the dimensionality of a scale (Spector, 1992).

There are several methods available for factor analysis. Common-factor analysis analyzes the common variance among a set of variables but principal components analysis analyzes the total variance (Cureton & D'Agostino, 1983). Spector (1992) suggests that principal components is a reasonable factor analytic model to use for exploratory factor analysis. "The results from applying components analysis and common-factor analysis usually lead one to approximately the same conclusions about the number and kind of underlying variables in a problem" (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 332).

> Because the object is to make the variances of the later derived variables as small as possible, principal-component analysis is ordinarily the preferred procedure. By this method the proportion of the total variance accounted for by the first component is a maximum, the proportion of the remaining variance accounted for by the second variable is a maximum, and so on (Cureton & D'Agostino, 1983, p. 297).

Principal components may be harder to interpret because it does not separate out the unique variance (Cureton & D'Agostino, 1983). Principal components analysis is used more often than common-factor analysis for item reduction (Netenmeyer et al., 2003).

Item Analysis

Decisions to discard or retain items may also be based on correlations with other items of interest such as social desirability. This is done by correlating each item on the scale with a measure of social desirability (Spector, 1992). In the present study, statistically significant correlations with the MCSD was used as a criteria for eliminating items on the original SLS during item analysis.

Internal Consistency.

Internal consistency reliability coefficients, using Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951), were calculated for each measure used in the study. "The most common and powerful method used today for calculating internal consistency reliability is coefficient alpha" (Rubin & Babbie, 1993, p. 171).

Analysis of Scale Validity

Validity is important in scale construction as it represents how well the scale truly reflects the theoretical concept being measured (Ghiselli, Campbell, & Zedeck 1981; Netenmeyer et al. 2003). Specifically, "the term 'validity' denotes the scientific utility of a measuring instrument, broadly statable in terms of how well it measures what it purports to measure" (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 83). Although internal consistency, as described above, is critical to validity it is not sufficient.

Face Validity. Face Validity indicates that a measure seems to measure what it purports to measure (Sarantakos, 1994). This type of validity may be more important as a public relations issue than a measurement one. "Particular empirical measures may or may not jibe with our common agreements and our individual mental images associated with a particular concept" (Rubin & Babbie, 1993, p. 172). If a measure fails to have face validity respondents may be

suspicious of what it actually measures. It may be hard to convince people in applied settings to use a measure if it doesn't have face validity (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Respondents may be more willing to respond to measures that on the surface appear to measure what they purport to measure (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Netenmeyer et al., 2003) Thus, high face validity of a measure enhances its use in practical situations by inducing cooperation among respondents via ease of use, proper reading level, clarity and appropriate response formats" (Netenmeyer et al., 2003, p. 73).

Face Validity is assessed by subjective determinations made by the researcher or others that a scale measures what it purports to measure (Rubin & Babbie, 1993). In the present study, face validity was assessed by the researcher in development of the Shared Leadership Scale and by actual respondents during the focus group interviews in stage two of the study. Once each focus group interview was concluded, participants were asked to complete the original survey instrument. Upon completion of the survey, participants were asked for feedback on the shared leadership scale. Specifically, participants were asked about their opinions of the scale as a measure of shared leadership, items that seemed to be irrelevant or concepts that were missing. This feedback was sought for the purpose of gathering evidence of face and content validity, as well as identifying previously undetected problems with the scale.

Content Validity. Content validity should have face validity but face validity alone is not sufficient (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Content validity is established on the basis of judgements about whether the measure covers the universe of facets, range of meanings, or adequacy with which important content that make up the concept are included in the scale items (Netenmeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Rubin & Babbie, 1993). However, it becomes very difficult and complex to actually sample a domain because many times the domain

is not well-defined and even if the domain is well-defined simply sampling that domain does not take into account values which may differ between individuals (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Content validity is also achieved through a thorough and comprehensive development plan. "If it is agreed by most potential users of the test, or at least by persons in positions of responsibility, that the plan was sound and well carried out, the test has a high degree of content validity" (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 102).

Content validity was assessed in all three stages by the researcher. The initial scale was developed through an iterative process of reducing the pool of over 300 possible scale items gleaned from the literature review. The primary purpose of the focus group portion of the study was to explore the domain of shared leadership from a practical perspective to determine if members of successful collaboratives would add concepts or refine the meaning of leadership concepts as they applied to their experiences in achieving success for the collaborative. The aim was to determine if there were any possible shared leadership concepts that had been omitted. Finally, during item analysis, the researcher was careful to maintain items from each leadership/shared leadership category in the final version of the scale to ensure that the full range of items in the domain were sampled.

Criterion Validity. Criterion-related validity is based on a scale's relationship with external criteria. The key to criterion-related validity is that the scale behaves as expected in relationship to other measures of similar and different constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Rubin & Babbie, 1993). There are several types of criterion-related validity including: concurrent validity, predictive validity, discriminant, convergent and known groups validity (Netenmeyer et al., 2003; Rubin & Babbie, 1993; Spector, 1992).

Convergent validity, discriminant validity, concurrent and known groups validity were each assessed for the Shared Leadership Scale. To conduct analyses of criterion-related validity the researcher frequently embeds measures of several variables into the same questionnaire (Spector, 1992). "When selecting a criterion measure of the construct in question, it is essential that criterion be an independent measure of the construct, not just a parallel form of the same measure whose validity you are assessing" (Rubin & Babbie, 1993, p. 178). Convergent validity indicates that scores on the measure of interest correlate with scores on another measure of the same construct (Rubin & Babbie, 1993; Spector, 1992). Conversely, discriminant validity indicates that scores on the measure do not correlate as strongly with measures of other constructs as they do with measures of the same construct (Rubin & Babbie, 1993; Spector, 1992). Discriminant validity indicates whether a measure really measures the specified construct and not some other construct (Rubin & Babbie, 1993).

Convergent validity was assessed by analyzing correlation coefficients between the Shared Leadership Scale and two other measures of group leadership: Peer Leadership Scale (Bowers & Seashore, 1966) and Control Graph Questionnaire (Taylor & Bowers, 1972). Discriminant validity was assessed by analyzing the relationship between the Shared Leadership Scale and a short version of the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (Ballard, 1992). The relationship between scores on the Shared Leadership Scale and respondent answers to the question related to length of membership in the collaborative were also examined as an assessment of discriminant validity. These measures are described more fully above.

Concurrent validity is an indicator of how well a measure is able to estimate scores on another measure taken at the same time (Ghiselli et al., 1981). "Evidence of concurrent validity for a measure is provided by sizeable correlations between the construct measure under

development and a criterion measure collected simultaneously or 'concurrently'" (Netenmeyer et al., 2003, p. 76). Concurrent validity was assessed through correlations of the SLS with respondent ratings of the overall effectiveness of the collaborative.

Known-groups validity assesses a scale's ability to differentiate between groups known to differ on the construct being measured. Known groups validity is a special case of criterion-related validity.

> Known groups validity is based on the hypotheses that certain groups of respondents will score higher on a scale than others. The main difference between this type of validity and the other two is that the criterion in this case is categorical rather than continuous. Means on the scale of interest can be compared among respondents who are at each level of the categorical variable (Spector, 1992, p. 49).

An independent samples t-test was used to test the hypothesis that the mean SLS group score from collaboratives operating most closely to the definition of shared leadership would be higher than the mean SLS group score from collaboratives operating least closely to the definition of shared leadership. The null hypothesis is that no difference exists between the groups. Each of these analyses contribute to the accumulation of evidence in support of the validity of the shared leadership scale.

Summary

A three-stage, multi-method investigation was employed to examine shared leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives. In stage one a review of the literature led to the development of an initial shared leadership model and measure. Qualitative methods were used in stage two to refine the model and measure. The measure was tested in stage three using quantitative data collection and analysis tools.

The study sample was composed of collaborative groups drawn from the population of Family Connection Collaboratives in Georgia. A nonprobability sample of two diverse collaboratives was used for focus groups in stage two. The survey questionnaire, consisting of the Shared Leadership Scale, Bowers and Seashore's Peer Leadership Scale, Tannenbaum's Control Graph Questionnaire, a short version of Marlowe and Crowne's Social Desirability Scale and two demographic questions, was sent to a non-probability sample of Family Connection Collaborative in Georgia during the third stage of the study. The non-probability sample was nominated for traits important to the research question by experts familiar with the collaboratives.

A variety of methods was used to refine and examine the psychometric properties of the SLS. Constant comparison methods were used to interpret data from the focus group interviews. Statistical methods including t-tests and calculation of correlation coefficients were used to analyze the reliability and validity of the scale. Principal components analysis was used to assess the underlying component structure of the SLS.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

A three-stage, multi-method investigation was employed to examine shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. During the first stage, a model of shared leadership, including a measurement instrument, was developed. The second stage consisted of focus group interviews to refine the model and measure. Finally, in the third stage, the measure was tested to determine its utility as a measure of shared leadership. The results of all three stages are reported here.

Stage One: Initial Development

The initial shared leadership model was developed at the conclusion of stage one of the present study, based on findings in the literature review. This review and the resulting model of shared leadership was presented in Chapter 2. Similarly, the initial measure was developed as a result of findings in the literature review conducted in stage one. The process of developing the specific items used in the measurement scale is described below.

An initial item pool of 288 items related to leadership was developed from the review of literature on leadership and collaboration. This item pool included items representing identified factors associated with leadership in the literature. Each item was then converted to a statement. For example, the factor *initiates structure* was transformed into the statement: *Collaborative members are able to initiate structures appropriate for goal accomplishment*. In some cases multiple statements were created from a single factor. Another statement related to initiating structure was *the collaborative is structured in a way to effectively accomplish the goals of the group.* This process resulted in an item pool of 335 statements.

The statements were classified according to two classification schemes. The first classification scheme consisted of ten categories compiled from classification schemes found in the bodies of literature on leadership and collaboration. The second classification scheme was developed from the five elements in the definition of shared leadership presented. The purpose of this step was two-fold. The first purpose was to ensure that the leadership domain was adequately covered. The second purpose was to make sure each component of the shared leadership model was adequately covered. It was important to include a representative sample of items from each category in the final measure.

The following categories from the literature classification scheme were used:

- Process-oriented (64)
- Support/Person-Oriented (43)
- Task-Oriented (39)
- Goal-Oriented (28)
- Communication (7)
- Stakeholders-Membership (28)
- Expertise-Resources (49)
- Structure-Roles (38)
- Influence (24)
- Initiating and Maintaining Competence (15)

The following categories from the shared leadership classification scheme were used:

- Broad Participation (130)
- Blending (23)
- Expertise-Interests (59)

- Motivate, Equip, Guide (95)
- Common Goal (28)

The number beside each category above represents the number of statements in the initial item pool that were classified in that category.

This very large item pool needed to be reduced to no more than 50 items to be used on the initial SLS. Once each item was coded according to the classification schemes, the researcher ranked the quality of each item. Each item was given three ranking scores. First, the researcher ranked each item using a three-point scale on how well the item addressed the leadership factor associated with that item from the literature classification scheme. Second, the researcher ranked each item using a three-point scale on how well it addressed the designated category from the shared leadership scheme. Third, the researcher ranked the overall clarity of each item using a three-point scale. Only items receiving the highest score on all three rankings were retained for further consideration. This process resulted in an item pool of 99 items. Finally, the researcher compared each item to every other item within each category in both classification schemes. Redundant items were eliminated. This resulted in a final pool of 50 items for the initial shared leadership scale. These items were randomly assigned to the scale. See Table 2 below for the distribution of the scale items across both classification schemes. The two goals of scale development were adequate coverage of each domain and overall clarity of each item.

Table 2

Distribution of Scale Items across Classification Schemes

	Shared Leadership Category					
Literature Category	Broad Participation	Blending	Expertise - Interests	Motivate, Equip, Guide	Common Goal	Total
Process-Oriented	–	4	–	–	–	4
Support/Person Oriented	1	2	–	2	–	5
Task-Oriented	–	–	–	8	–	8
Goal-Oriented	–	2	–	1	4	7
Communication	–	2	–	–	–	2
Stakeholder-Membership	3	1	3	–	–	7
Expertise-Resources	–	2	4	–	–	6
Structure-Rules	–	4	1	–	–	5
Influence	–	–	–	4	–	4
Initiating Maintaining Competence	–	–	–	2	--	2
Total	4	17	8	17	4	50

Stage Two: Focus Group Interviews

Two of Georgia's Family Connection collaboratives were chosen to serve as focus groups in the refinement stage of the research. Once the focus group collaboratives were selected, the researcher contacted the regional Family Connection community facilitator to request assistance in making contact with the coordinators of the selected collaboratives.

Community facilitators were asked to introduce the researcher to the respective coordinators and confirm that the study had the approval of the Family Connection Partnership. Afterwards, the researcher contacted each coordinator by phone to discuss the study, specifically the focus group interview, and request the participation of the collaborative in the focus group. Both coordinators agreed, one after seeking approval from the local collaborative board, and interviews were scheduled.

Although the collaborative groups that were chosen for the focus group sessions were different in many ways, many similarities were found in how these participants experienced collaboration. At least three common themes emerged between the two groups. These common themes of creating a sense of togetherness, contributing resources, and valuing an open communication process are mentioned here and detailed below. Members of each group described a sense of unity or togetherness that permeated the group and strengthened the sense of trust and interdependence found among group members. This togetherness also served to create an open environment that not only welcomed but sought out new members. The contribution and use of resources was a strong theme for both collaboratives. In fact, bringing together diverse resources to solve complex problems is the foundational purpose of these collaboratives. While members of each collaborative used different terms to describe the process collaborative members use to work together, the concepts were basically the same. Collaborative members come together with an underlying sense of unity and acceptance of a shared goal to blend those resources available to them into a solution to a community problem. Members of Collaborative A emphasized the importance of having all their efforts focused on a common goal as being very important. Finally, members of both collaboratives agreed that some of the terminology used in

association with collaboration is confusing or not easily understood. A more detailed explanation of these findings follows.

Creating a Sense of Togetherness

Collaborative A. Focus group participants from Collaborative A began by discussing their combined efforts in assisting a specific family in achieving success and immediately mentioned a theme that emerged repeatedly throughout the interview in several different ways and contexts. This theme is togetherness as each member contributes specific resources to a common goal. As one member described it, "I was that piece of the puzzle."[2] "I could not have done anything significant alone" is another quote that illustrates this theme. "I think it has been everyone on this board and several more people in the community that have been stable in their job, really understand the vision, and support collaboration that have been willing to carry it because it is difficult." In other words, collaborative members share an interdependence, each making a unique contribution, to achieve a common goal.

In describing a belief about the difference between Collaborative A and other communities that haven't experienced similar success one member stated "People don't really understand what the need is because perhaps their own organization is going well and meeting its goal. They don't see how they link in to the umbrella." The collaborative partners stated their belief that the small size of their community and the limited availability of resources enhanced this sense of togetherness and interdependence. I think here people do see that and I think not having much helped us from the ground up."

[2]All quotations are taken directly from the focus group interview transcripts.

Strong leadership obviously existed in Collaborative A but was hard to pinpoint. Although formal leaders were mentioned as examples a few times in the conversation most of the leadership tasks seemed to be performed by the ever-present "we". Leadership seemed to flow throughout the collaborative as needs arose. In fact, on several occasions over the past few years, one of the formal leaders was absent, meaning the collaborative coordinator position was unfilled, but the collaborative continued to function and proceed toward achieving its goals. Collaborative members were interchangeable in their roles and would fill-in as needed to get a job done.

> I think it really, even though it was kinda [*sic*] bad, in a way it was probably necessary to have us being sharply focused on how important consistent leadership is. It also forced the board to come together stronger and more in unity and more of a commitment because when you don't have a strong coordinator or you don't have a coordinator it is the board together that carries that [*sic*].

The collaborative is composed of members who are willing to share the resources available to them, both professional and personal resources, in order to assist the collaborative in accomplishing its work. Turf-guarding and glory seeking are not a part of this collaborative. They profess that concerns over who gets the credit for an idea or project isn't important to them. This idea is supported by the difficulty in identifying very many specific examples of individuals performing specific leadership tasks. It is an example of the principle of synergy where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. This sense of togetherness doesn't mean the collaborative was without conflicts. After some discussion, some pretty significant conflicts were discovered but the conflicts did not tear the collaborative apart. Instead, the conflicts and the process of working through the conflicts seemed to draw the members of the collaborative

closer together. "We are in this together - sink or swim" is a comment that pretty well sums up the collaborative.

Collaborative B. By way of contrast with Collaborative A, this collaborative has not recently experienced vacancies in key formal leadership positions. In fact, collaborative members pointed out during the focus group interview that the group has benefitted greatly from very strong leadership in the two most common formal leadership positions of chair and coordinator. Yet, it was not the case that those in these positions directed and controlled the process. Instead, there is a sense of shared control where collaborative members meet together on an equal basis. One member describes it this way,

> These are people who are doing the best they can do in their job and I am doing the best I can in my job and we are all meeting together on an equal level to help each other do better because we can't be the best people that we could be without the support of everybody else.

Much like Collaborative A, there is an attitude of togetherness that permeates Collaborative B as well. This togetherness is coupled with an open and inviting attitude toward new and potential members of the collaborative. The enthusiasm of the group was striking. The group was united in purpose as characterized by the frequent use of the word "our" to describe resources, programs, problems and solutions. Members of the collaborative share a common focus on the community as a whole although each sees the community from a different perspective.

The collaborative seeks to broaden its membership base continuously and is open to welcoming new members. "The whole collaborative said 'come join us'. They were open to new people and so often organizations aren't open to new people." Collaborative members not

only welcome new members, they also seek out new members as the community grows. One member put it this way,

> We've got a good united group, but to continue to unite the community as we grow and make sure that everyone comes to the table together so that we can really thoughtfully plan ...our next steps and strategies...If we feel good about where we are now and we stop worrying about bringing other folks into the table, we are going to soon find that there is going to be all these other strategies going on out there and people are working against odds with each other...and this group has benefitted so greatly from that sense of 'if you've got something going on out in the community we want you here because we want to help and you are a resource and these are all our children and our families that we are trying to impact and unless we all come together and work together we can't be on the same page.'

This togetherness is evident even when member agencies sponsor community events. Collaborative partners share the work of meeting the needs in the community to such an extent it sometimes becomes difficult to distinguish between partner initiatives and collaborative initiatives. "I think it is important to clarify that these events don't necessarily stem from the partnership [collaborative]. They stem from the organizations within the partnership, but because we share so much it is a shared experience so to speak." "Shared work" is another phrase used by collaborative members to describe this togetherness.

The work of the collaborative is shared and leadership comes from a variety of sources. Members enjoy working together and are willing to invest the resources necessary to accomplish the goals of the group. One members describes it this way,

> It makes me laugh though hearing [her]... say how very easily [a goal was achieved]. We spent lots and lots of man hours from lots and lots of different partners. Sometimes we think things go easily because we happen to enjoy each other. And enjoy the time we spend together but it was really a lot of work and a lot of man hours that have gone into getting it this far including getting the funding that you all got. That was wonderful.

Collaborative members enjoy one another because they take time to get to know one another. They also work hard while at the same time intentionally making the work fun for each other.

Contributing Resources

Collaborative A. Another theme that emerged from the focus groups is that leadership is about the effective use of resources. Resources can be found in many different forms. Sometimes resources involve specific expertise. "It takes a team of people from different disciplines." Other times resources may involve contacts or influence. "[For] those specific things that you need, you reach out to those people who would have influence on that program or expertise." Still other resources may be inspirational or motivational as in the example set by one member in stepping beyond her normal job responsibilities to meet a need that involved an investment of personal resources. "That is evidence of how people in this county extend themselves in ways that are beyond their jobs and to me I guess that is one of the reasons that I enjoy working here where you have that kind of folks." Finally resources may be simply a willingness to involve oneself in a task that needs to be done or a commitment of time or energy on behalf of the group. "We attended meetings." These resources are freely given.

When a resource is identified as missing the group seeks out that resource. "We started looking at, 'Okay, what is our role to help with those goals?' and then we saw very quickly that there were some key players missing." The board went through a restructuring process to ensure

the necessary resources, in terms of participants, were engaged in the collaborative. The restructuring was focused around answering the question "Who was important?" and making sure the "key players were a part of that." The goal was to actively involve more resources directly in the collaborative. "When you say that we were streamlining the board, the actual goal was to enlarge the participation from the larger community by streamlining the working board as opposed to keeping those committees working outside...actually bring in more people."

Collaborative B. Focus group participants from Collaborative B supported this theme. Every member is a resource for the collaborative. One participant described it this way,

> We don't see our resources as ending at our door. We see public health as our resource. We see the education department as our resource. And we have the direct ties to be able to go in and connect with people. It helps our program to be much stronger and it also helps people to access our program in a much easier way.

Members offer whatever resources they have to assist the others. "We put our books on the table and we say this is what I have. What do you have? Here is the need over here. Who is going to best meet it?" They also invite others to share their resources. "I think if we know somebody's expertise we tend to punt a situation over there."

This sharing of resources generates success for the group and that success tends to enhance the togetherness. "I came to a meeting and was just amazed at the power to get things done that this collaborative has because there are so many people" Members want to be a part of success. The success mentioned by the participants in this context is the ability to get things done.

> I think one of the main things that keeps people coming is the successes... People who may have an idea for something to improve things for the children in our community but

> they can't do it on their own. They bring it in front of this group and somebody says 'Well I have something that can help with this'...I think it is that success; that this group is really working, not just coming together and meeting and talking but actually getting something accomplished, ...that is one of the main things that keeps people coming back.

Leadership in this collaborative is about making a contribution, working and setting an example. It is about offering what you have and doing what you can. As one member stated,

> It is stepping up to the plate that we have that happens around in our community when there is a need to step up to the plate. You step up and give all your energy and then you step back and somebody else steps up and gives all their energy and steps back but nothing ever falters.

This not only helps the group to make the most effective use of resources but also supports, encourages and inspires others. This is seen as members contribute resources to a project as well as when formal leadership shifts from one person to another. There are members who are ready and willing to "step-up" as the need arises.

Valuing an Open Communication Process

Collaborative A. Another theme that emerged describes the process by which the group accomplishes its goals. "We all get in a room and talk about the problem." Another member stated, "We still need to throw ourselves in a room and talk." Several references were made to this "room" where talking occurs. It isn't an actual room necessarily but a place for the meeting of minds and ideas. It is a process of open communication where each member can be honest and open. The process is informal but guided by unstated rules that protect all participants. "There is a way that we do things and it is almost like a family. There are expectations. We

don't yell and cuss and stomp." Members can take risks because they trust the other members to refrain from personal attacks. "Personal relationship makes a difference."

They also know they can count on one another to contribute to the solution. "I see us more as an organization that pulls together information and pulls people together to discuss information and make plans but we are really more of a birthing organization. We create things..." is how one member described this process. Another member agreed by stating "I think we do try to give birth to those things that are going to address needs in the community and we don't want to keep ownership. We would like them to mature." Another described this birthing process this way, "somebody brings something up." Collaborative members come together to discuss situations that need the attention of the group. The group blends ideas through an open communication process that creates solutions to common problems.

These themes of togetherness, resources and process come together in the comments of one collaborative member. In describing the way the group handles conflicts, this collaborative member stated,

> The collaborative has provided a forum to discuss differing views on, not ...differences on the need. The differences occurred on how we should address the need, who should take ownership of it and particularly when we were struggling so much financially, who was going to come up with the funding. So there has been some, I wouldn't call it conflicts, but we have had to sort through some things. And the collaborative provided a forum to do so in a somewhat non-threatening way. And I think we have been very successful in working through those. The collaborative also provided, when we didn't feel that we had a couple players that we felt needed to have more commitment. The

collaborative by its unity then was able to present that need to others and have them buy-in....We plotted within this room...It provided a forum to do that.

Collaborative B. Members of this collaborative were obviously comfortable with each other and communication was very open. "One thing that makes us so great is it [communication] is very informal...We try not to talk over each other but at the same time you don't feel that anybody feels real intimidated about standing up." All members have an opportunity to make a contribution to the work of the group. Typically, ideas are generated in a meeting of the larger group but brought to fruition through the work of collaborative members in small work teams based on interests and skills. "We come up with ideas in the general meeting and then folks come together and then funding sources are sought and people figure out who is the best one to apply for the funds. That is just the general process around here."

Confusing Terminology

In both interviews terminology was mentioned as being confusing. In Collaborative B, the term *collaborative*, as well as the title Family Connection, had recently been replaced with the term *partnership*. One member described the change in name as "user-friendly". Group members profess to have seen an increase in participation following this name change and believe the new terminology makes it easier to communicate the work of the group to others in the community. Members of Collaborative A pointed out the difficulty of existing terminology to adequately describe collaboration. Even the term *collaborative* is confusing. "The language has been a barrier in some ways because *collaborative* became a catchall word for kind of any function and then people were confused about the direction." Other terms used in connection with collaboratives can also be confusing. Because collaboratives are unique and composed of

members from many different backgrounds terms used to describe such things as organization and clients do not have universally accepted meaning among all collaborative members.

Focusing on a Common Goal

One of the specific tasks of leadership in Collaborative A is keeping the group focused on the common goal of finding shared solutions to common problems or "the big picture". Collaborative members understand that the work of the collaborative extends beyond the narrowly focused goals of individual members or member organizations to the broad-based community level goals shared by all. "I think the fact of shared goals helped us look at a community perspective and not just what our little part of that is." Another put it this way: "I mean in collaboration if the problems of business and the problems of education and the problems around poverty are all related then guess what? We've all got the same problem." The collaborative members described a time when the group wasn't as focused as it needed to be as a time when leadership wasn't strong. "Several years ago we had kind of a leadership void. We got sort of complacent and we were playing the game and we weren't really focused on where we were going and getting our message out. And I think we had to work through that process." One group member expressed the importance of setting goals to drive action rather than the other way around. "We had to go back and look at our goals. What was it we were trying to accomplish? Let's say that first and then see how we can do it." Another described the problem when activity preceded gaining a focus on a common goal. "We had to regain a focus on what we wanted to do. We were so scared the tail was wagging the dog." Focus was a common word that emerged in the interview. Before the group could solve any problem they had to identify a common goal on which to focus their activities. As noted above, leadership was necessary to maintain this focus. Members from Collaborative B had less to say about setting goals.

However, goal-setting is important enough that Collaborative B utilizes a formal process for establishing collaborative goals that engages members on specific goal-setting committees according to their interest areas.

Refinement of the shared leadership model

The focus group interviews reported above were conducted for the purpose of exploring the practice of shared leadership in actual collaboratives. Specifically, the goal was to determine how these successful collaboratives function and to explore those elements of leadership which were identified as integral in moving the group toward its goal. Participants in the focus group interviews were members of community collaboratives with a reputation for success as judged by community facilitators familiar with the work of multiple collaboratives. As such focus group participants have experience in producing recognized success for their respective collaboratives. Therefore, participants were judged to be experiential experts in the area of collaborative leadership.

The initial model of shared leadership presented in this study was developed after the literature review conducted in stage one of the study and reported in Chapter Two. This model consisted of the three primary components of active involvement of all stakeholders, an open process and outcomes. Through active involvement collaborative members come together, each contributing a resource, to enhance the capacity of the group to accomplish a common goal. An open process allows group members, through a communication process characterized by trust, mutual respect and diversity, to blend the various resources contributed by members into solutions to complex problems. The active involvement of all stakeholders in an open collaborative process produces outcomes that are comprehensive and owned by the group. Thus

shared leadership enhances the ability of a voluntary, multiparty community collaborative to achieve success. This model was illustrated with the analogy of a puzzle.

Findings from focus group interviews tend to support and further define this model (see Figure 3 on page 98). Focus group members described active involvement in terms of togetherness. As the groups noted, it was important to have all, or at least as many as possible, relevant stakeholders involved in the process. Each group was not only open to involving new members but actually continuously sought out stakeholders for participation. One collaborative even reorganized the governance structure to include broader representation from stakeholders. However, simply bringing stakeholders to the table is not sufficient for collaborative success. Stakeholders must be bound together with a sense of unity. There must be a thread of common purpose that draws the group together. In the case of the collaborative groups participating in the study, that common thread was supporting children. This common thread is demonstrated through frequent uses of such terms as we and our. This unity or common thread is not the same as blind allegiance to a cause nor is it participation without conflict, but it is commitment to a common cause that is strong enough to endure conflict. "We are in this together - sink or swim" is how one participant describes this togetherness.

Active involvement also involves each member making a contribution to the success of the group. Focus group participants used the terms "stepping up" and "filling in" to describe this process of making a contribution. Also, they tended to describe this contribution in terms of resources. Resources may include such tangible resources as skills, money, knowledge (expertise) and investment of time or intangible resources such as enthusiasm, encouragement and inspirational actions. These resources are used to increase the capacity and competence of the group to accomplish a common goal. As one focus group participant pointed out, it is not

accumulating resources for the sake of having resources in itself that is important. It is the process of bringing those resources to bear in particular ways to accomplish the goal of the group that is important. "We had to regain a focus of what we wanted to do. We were so scared the tail (the accumulation of resources) was wagging the dog."

This leads to the importance of the group focusing its work on accomplishing a common goal. This component of shared leadership was implied in the original model and was given greater emphasis by focus group participants. Repeatedly, focus group participants used the word *focus* to describe the process of agreeing on a common goal or direction. A time when the collaborative lacked focus was described as a "leadership void." This focus on a common goal was also described as being on the "same page". A common goal is a joint agreement by members of the group on a problem that needs to be addressed and the resulting situation once the problem is resolved. The problem must be sufficiently complex to warrant the attention of the collaborative group. The goal is to solve the problem to the satisfaction of all stakeholders.

In order to accomplish this goal, collaborative members must blend their resources into a joint solution. This blending occurs through an open communication process. This open communication process was described in some detail as the second component of shared leadership in the original model. This open process is one in which each member is free, encouraged and motivated to share his/her ideas and other resources and have those integrated into the overall solution. This process not only allows but encourages, and is greatly enhanced by, the exchange of divergent ideas. The process is based on trust, mutual respect and a recognition of the importance of diversity. Focus group members highlighted this concept during the interviews. They described it as a process of getting in a room and talking or working. As described by the focus group participants this open process is an informal process

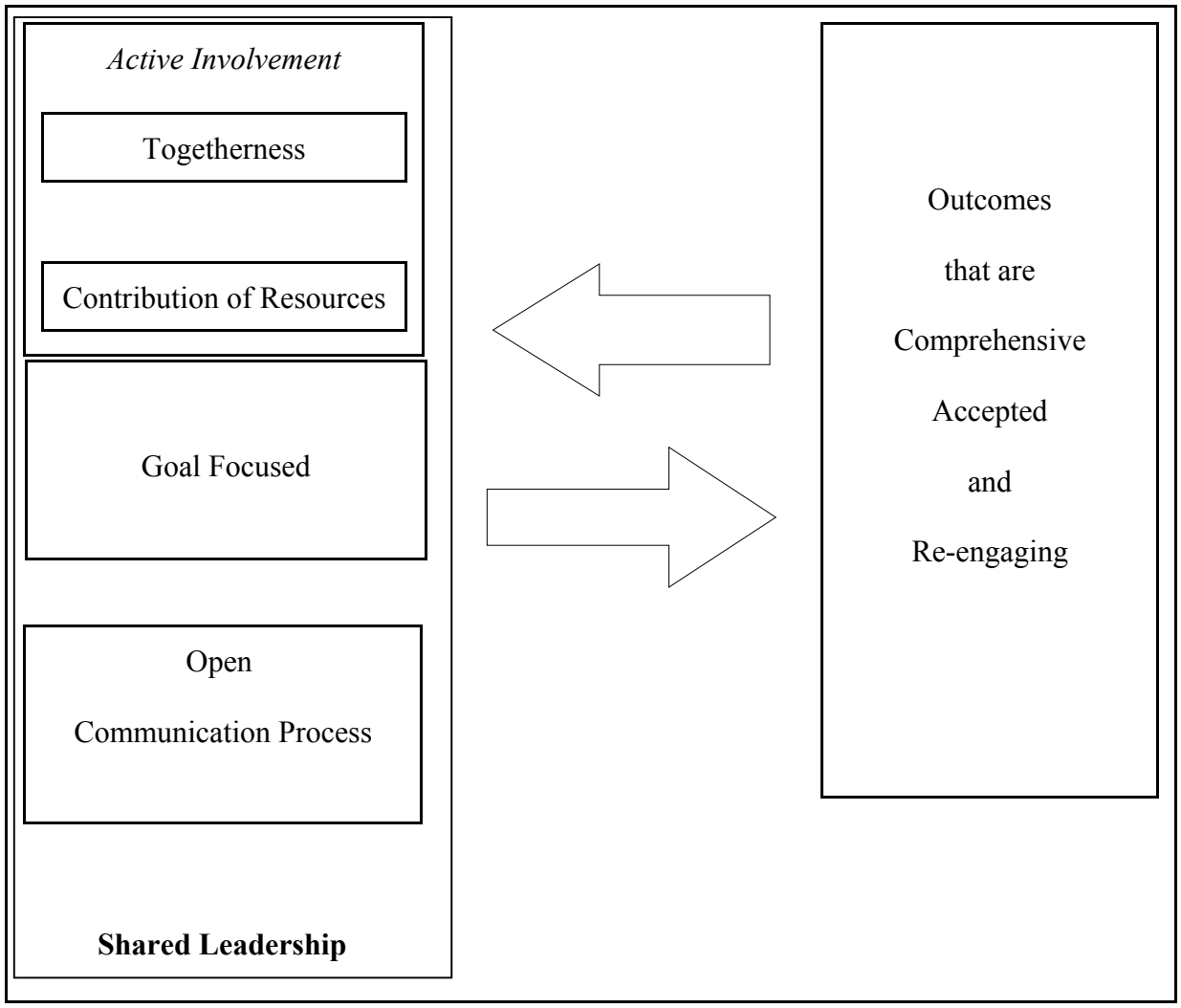

Figure 3. Refined Model of Shared Leadership in Voluntary Multiparty Community Collaboratives.

of sharing and combining ideas from all members on an equal basis into a comprehensive solution. Although the process is informal it is governed by unwritten rules that guide the communication process and protect collaborative members. This process is made possible and enhanced by the personal relationships shared among collaborative members. It is a process that can be both enjoyable and fun while at the same time challenging. Shared leadership allows collaborative members to create the context for this open process as well as blend divergent resources into a comprehensive whole. Focus group members described this concept as a "birthing" process in which new solutions are created through the process of blending the resources brought to the table by collaborative members.

The original model described the third component of shared leadership as outcomes which are accepted by group members and thus implemented as planned, comprehensive and leading to systems level change. These outcomes increase the likelihood of the group successfully achieving its goals. Another outcome that was mentioned by focus group participants is increased participation in future collaborative endeavors. Collaborative members and potential collaborative members want to be a part of a group in which participants freely share resources for a common cause. As one member stated "that [success] is one of the main things that keeps people coming back."

Finally, the original model used the analogy of putting together a puzzle to illustrate the model of shared leadership presented here. The focus group interviews not only reinforced and expanded the original model but underscored the use of this analogy as well. A revised model was developed as a result of the analysis of the focus group interviews. The revised model expands the original three component model to include five distinct components. These components, togetherness, resources, common goal, open process and outcomes, not only more

fully explain shared leadership, they also more closely match the definition of shared leadership presented earlier.

Shared leadership was defined as *the active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal.* Togetherness addresses the idea of the active involvement of all participants. Blending is another way to describe an open process. Resources involve expertise and interests and are used to motivate, equip and guide the group. A common goal gives the group direction to produce comprehensive, systems level changes that are actually implemented and used by the group to maintain and attract new members.

Refinement of the Shared Leadership Scale

Feedback from the focus group participants on the original SLS resulted in the refinement of the shared leadership scale. The focus groups revealed that the term *collaborative* was confusing. Community collaboratives are organized in a variety of ways, and focus group participants were not sure what level of organization the word was referring to in the survey instrument. This concern was addressed by adding the following line to the instructions to more clearly specify what was meant by the use of the term collaborative. "Please note: Community partnerships (collaboratives) are organized in a variety of ways. For this questionnaire, the term collaborative refers to your local community partnership at whichever level of organization you are most involved."

It also was determined that terminology was a problem in five other questions on the measure. The phrase "people most affected by the decisions of this collaborative" was confusing so item 4 was rewritten to state "The people most affected by the decisions of this collaborative have a say in making those decisions. (Includes clients, front-line workers, other agencies)."

Item 8 was reworded to reflect an emphasis on accomplishing goals rather than leader competence. The original item was "If the official leaders of this collaborative were no longer present we would still be able to accomplish our goals." This wording could easily be interpreted to mean that the officials leaders were of little use to the group and were expendable. This was not the original intent of this item. The new wording: "If the official leaders of this collaborative were no longer present we would still find a way to accomplish our goals," clarified the emphasis on the group finding a way to accomplish its goals with or without its official leaders in place. Collaborative A demonstrated this concept well when it's members described the times it was without its coordinator as times when collaborative members pulled together more strongly to achieve its goals. The word *direct* was replaced with the word *guide* in item 13. The word *direct* implies control and in most collaboratives there is no one who actually controls the process. Instead, collaborative members voluntarily follow leaders who guide the process. Similarly in item 42 the phrase "head of the collaborative" was replaced by the phrase "group leader." Again, the reason behind this change is that in collaboratives even officially designated leaders are not considered the head of the collaborative in the same sense that a CEO may be considered the head of a corporation. Item 39 was reworded from "Members want to continue being a part of this collaborative" to "I want to continue being a part of this collaborative." It was determined that as originally worded the question was asking respondents to speculate on the desires of other members. The intent of collaboration is not to speculate on what others feel and think but to actually get them to the table to speak for themselves.

Stage Three: Scale Testing

Stage three involved testing the scale that was developed in stage one and refined in stage two. The purpose of this stage is to further refine and assess the psychometric properties of the

shared leadership scale. Exploratory factor analysis was used to examine the factor structure of the scale. An item analysis was conducted to assess reliability of the data and further reduce the number of items in the scale. Analyses were also performed to investigate the validity of the data produced by the measure.

Sample

A nonprobability sample of Family Connection Collaboratives across Georgia was selected to participate in the survey conducted in stage three. Forty collaboratives were invited to participate in the study based on criteria specified in Chapter 3. Of those invited to participate only one collaborative refused the invitation. Four other collaboratives agreed to participate but failed to return surveys. The group participation rate was 87.5%. Participating collaboratives were fairly evenly distributed between implementation waves. Implementation wave indicates the year the collaborative became an officially recognized Family Connection collaborative. Waves 1, 3, 4, and 5 were represented by four collaboratives each. Wave 2 had five collaboratives represented and waves 6 and 7 had seven collaboratives each that returned surveys. In terms of population type, ten (28%) of the participating collaboratives are suburban counties, 17 (49%) are classified as rural growth counties and 8 (23%) are classified as rural decline counties. These percentages approximate the distribution of counties within the state. Statewide, the distribution of counties by population type is as follows: metropolitan (4%), suburban (22%), rural growth (48%) and rural decline (26%) (University of Georgia, 2003). The sample did not include a metropolitan county. In all, 419 completed surveys were returned from representatives of 35 different Family Connection collaboratives.

Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis, using principal components analysis, was conducted to determine the component structure of the Shared Leadership Scale. Missing data were excluded listwise. When determining the adequacy of the sample size for an exploratory factor analysis,

> [One] widely quoted but also overly simplified rule of thumb is that 10 subjects or 5 subjects at a minimum are required for every variable being analyzed. As the sample increases in size, however, random errors of measurement tend to cancel each other, the item and test parameters begin to stabilize, and it becomes less important to add to the sample. Thus, for samples above 300, the relation to number of subjects becomes less crucial (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987, p. 415).

Kass and Tinsley (1979, as cited in Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987) recommend 5-10 subjects per item up to a total of about 300 subjects is needed for adequate sampling. Several others have agreed that a sample size of 200 - 400 respondents is adequate for most factor analysis (Clark & Watson, 1995; Comrey, 1988; Comrey & Lee, 1992; DeVellis, 2003; Field, 2000; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Furthermore, the factor pattern is more stable and more likely to be replicated when emerging from a large-sample factor analysis than a small-sample one (DeVellis, 2003). The adequacy of the sample size was tested during the analysis and is reported below.

Data were screened prior to analysis. Descriptive statistics for the original 50 items in the SLS are presented in Table 3. Item numbers are presented in the table. Item statements may be found in Appendix E.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Valid Cases for the 50 Original SLS Items

	M	SD	N
SLS Item 1	4.43	0.61	417
SLS Item 2	4.21	0.81	416
SLS Item 3	2.49	1.08	405
SLS Item 4	3.67	0.94	414
SLS Item 5	4.04	0.72	417
SLS Item 6	4.30	0.67	417
SLS Item 7	4.13	0.69	416
SLS Item 8	3.73	0.93	414
SLS Item 9	4.08	0.68	413
SLS Item 10	4.25	0.72	414
SLS Item 11	4.22	0.69	418
SLS Item 12	3.99	0.85	417
SLS Item 13	4.24	0.65	416
SLS Item 14	4.08	0.74	417
SLS Item 15	3.82	0.80	417
SLS Item 16	3.86	0.88	412
SLS Item 17	4.09	0.68	414
SLS Item 18	4.03	0.76	415
SLS Item 19	3.09	1.17	413

SLS Item 20	4.04	0.74	413
SLS Item 21	4.22	0.59	417
SLS Item 22	3.91	0.82	416
SLS Item 23	4.18	0.68	416
SLS Item 24	3.93	0.75	416
SLS Item 25	4.13	0.70	417
SLS Item 26	4.23	0.68	416
SLS Item 27	4.27	0.68	417
SLS Item 28	4.20	0.64	415
SLS Item 29	4.15	0.72	415
SLS Item 30	4.02	0.68	415
SLS Item 31	4.00	0.77	417
SLS Item 32	3.98	0.75	417
SLS Item 33	3.69	0.86	416
SLS Item 34	3.99	0.76	418
SLS Item 35	3.82	0.79	419
SLS Item 36	4.07	0.64	417
SLS Item 37	3.94	0.74	415
SLS Item 38	3.99	0.73	418
SLS Item 39	4.40	0.64	418
SLS Item 40	3.84	0.88	415
SLS Item 41	3.95	0.73	416
SLS Item 42	2.93	1.09	416

SLS Item 43	4.10	0.69	419
SLS Item 44	4.05	0.64	416
SLS Item 45	4.11	0.75	418
SLS Item 46	4.01	0.75	415
SLS Item 47	4.01	0.73	417
SLS Item 48	4.08	0.72	418
SLS Item 49	4.02	0.78	417
SLS Item 50	4.09	0.62	406

A correlation matrix (see Table 4) was constructed to determine relationships among the 50 items. Correlations between pairs of items ranged from .00 to .70. The mean correlation was .40. The majority of the correlations (92%) were statistically significant ($p<.01$). All but 5 of the 93 non-significant correlations related to three items (3, 19, 42). In order to identify interpretable factors it is important that items correlate with one another. This data meet that assumption.

If items are perfectly correlated, or nearly so ($R >.90$), the data have a problem with singularity making it "impossible to determine the unique contribution to a factor of variables that are highly correlated" (Field, 2000, p. 444). There were no correlations above 0.70. Therefore singularity was not a problem for this data set.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic provides a measure of sampling adequacy for individual and multiple items. It represents the ratio of squared correlation between items to the squared partial correlation between items (Field, 2000; Kaiser, 1970). KMO values range from 0

to 1 with values close to 1 indicating relatively compact correlations (Field, 2000). Kaiser (1970) recommends values greater than 0.8 as acceptable. Values greater than 0.9 are classified as excellent (Kaiser, 1970). The KMO value for the full 50 item scale is .97. KMO values for 47 of the items were also in the superb range with values ranging from 0.91 to 0.98. Three items (3, 19, 42) had individual KMO values below .8.

One final screening was conducted to make sure that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix. An identity matrix represents a correlation matrix in which all correlation coefficients are zero. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Field, 2000; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). This test was significant $p<0.001$ and thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

The next step in the factor analysis is to determine the number of factors to be extracted. There are several recommendations on criteria for extracting factors. Kaiser (1970) and Jolliffe (1972, 2002) each make recommendations based on eigenvalues. Kaiser's recommendation is to retain factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Kaiser, 1970) and is the most common factor extraction rule of thumb (Kim & Mueller, 1978b). Jolliffe lowers this criterion to eigenvalues greater than 0.7 (1972, 2002). Another common criterion is the Scree test. The Scree test directs one to retain factors above the point of inflexion or the elbow of the slope formed by plotting the eigenvalues (DeVellis, 2003; Field, 2000; Netenmeyer et al., 2003). Other criteria include retaining the smallest number of factors for which at least three items have substantial factor loadings, i.e. .30 to .40 (Floyd & Widaman, 1995), retaining factors which account for at least 5% of the total variance individually (Hair et al., 1998 as cited in Netenmeyer et al., 2003), and retaining those factors which load as expected according to a priori theoretical hypotheses

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for 50 items of the Shared Leadership Scale

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
SLS1	.948[a]									
SLS2	.41*	.957[a]								
SLS3	-.06	-.08	.718[a]							
SLS4	.31*	.39*	-.07	.944[a]						
SLS5	.34*	.33*	-.10	.51*	.957[a]					
SLS6	.46*	.32*	.02	.29*	.50*	.977[a]				
SLS7	.49*	.34*	-.10	.28*	.36*	.50*	.968[a]			
SLS8	.09	.11	-10	.08	.11	.13*	.18*	.913[a]		
SLS9	.46*	.37*	-.08	.33*	.44*	.59*	.47*	.29*	.970[a]	
SLS10	.42*	.36*	-.02	.28*	.44*	.53*	.34*	.15*	.52*	.947[a]
SLS11	.37*	.33*	-.02	.32*	.37*	.54*	.41*	.17*	.50*	.67*
SLS12	.30*	.30*	-.05	.32*	.38*	.52*	.37*	.21*	.48*	.68*

SLS13	.33*	.28*	-.07	.21*	.39*	.54*	.43*	.23*	.56*	.55*
SLS14	.44*	.40	-.08	.40*	.51*	.54*	.48*	.27*	.62*	.50*
SLS15	.28*	.29*	-.12	.26*	.37*	.40*	.37*	.31*	.37*	.34*
SLS16	.36*	.31*	.09	.33*	.38*	.46*	.44*	.21*	.46*	.31*
SLS17	.37*	.35*	-.09	.35*	.40*	.50*	.40*	.22*	.55*	.49*
SLS18	.46*	.40*	-.13*	.33*	.45*	.48*	.39*	.21*	.59*	.44*
SLS19	.20*	.15*	.33*	.10	.04	.16*	.03	-.08	.15*	.14*
SLS20	.39*	.30*	-.02	.29*	.28*	.38*	.28*	.17*	.42*	.39*
SLS21	.25*	.20*	-.06	.18*	.36*	.33*	.27*	.25*	.39*	.37*
SLS22	.35*	.43*	-.08	.37*	.45*	.48*	.34*	.26*	.45*	.50*
SLS23	.47*	.34*	-.06	.31*	.43*	.55*	.43*	.14*	.55*	.51*
SLS24	.35*	.34*	-.15*	.28*	.43*	.49*	.39*	.31*	.48*	.45*
SLS25	.29*	.26*	-.01	.21*	.26*	.44*	.31*	.10*	.41*	.34*
SLS26	.39*	.40*	.03	.31*	.40*	.62*	.46*	.16*	.55*	.50*
SLS27	.40*	.31*	.02	.28*	.41*	.49*	.44*	.20*	.47*	.39*
SLS28	.43*	.34*	-.04	.27*	.36*	.54*	.45*	.18*	.53*	.50*

SLS29	.29*	.30*	-.04	.27*	.32*	.38*	.33*	.19*	.36*	.36*
SLS30	.43*	.31*	-.09	.29*	.41*	.48*	.41*	.20*	.53*	.41*
SLS31	.45*	.36*	.09	.39*	.41*	.54*	.49*	.14*	.50*	.41*
SLS32	.36*	.34*	-.04	.33*	.36*	.55*	.44*	.24*	.51*	.44*
SLS33	.24*	.39*	-.14*	.37*	.37*	.21*	.24*	.13*	.26*	.24*
SLS34	.37*	.37*	-.01	.40*	.50*	.53*	.44*	.19*	.47*	.56*
SLS35	.35*	.32*	-.06	.37*	.42*	.45*	.40*	.25*	.50*	.32*
SLS36	.37*	.32*	-.13*	.28*	.39*	.50*	.42*	.19*	.50*	.40*
SLS37	.35*	.34*	-.13*	.31*	.36*	.43*	.38*	.20*	.48*	.35*
SLS38	.29*	.28*	-.01	.30*	.40*	.47*	.46*	.20*	.51*	.38*
SLS39	.36*	.28*	-.05	.24*	.35*	.44*	.37*	.14*	.42*	.45*
SLS40	.35*	.41*	.06	.39*	.45*	.51*	.45*	.18*	.53*	.41*
SLS41	.34*	.27*	-.05	.29*	.44*	.50*	.44*	.24*	.49*	.35*
SLS42	.09	.02	.38*	.02	.01	.09	.00	-.13*	.09	.11
SLS43	.43*	.36*	.02	.31*	.40*	.52*	.47*	.25*	.55*	.43*
SLS44	.44*	.34*	-.05	.36*	.43*	.47*	.42*	.21*	.53*	.45*

SLS45	.42*	.39*	-.03	.37*	.45*	.53*	.41*	.20*	.55*	.50*
SLS46	.39*	.39*	-.05	.28*	.37*	.52*	.40*	.19*	.48*	.48*
SLS47	.36*	.36*	.03	.33*	.40*	.56*	.44*	.14*	.49*	.38*
SLS48	.38*	.37*	.05	.33*	.39*	.55*	.50*	.15*	.54*	.42*
SLS49	.41*	.44*	-.03	.45*	.48*	.54*	.49*	.17*	.53*	.43*
SLS50	.35*	.29*	-.04	.26*	.35*	.44*	.35*	.28*	.49*	.43*

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
SLS11	.954[a]									
SLS12	.67*	.967[a]								
SLS13	.56*	.55*	.970[a]							
SLS14	.54*	.58*	.53*	.974[a]						
SLS15	.36*	.39*	.35*	.56*	.965[a]					
SLS16	.39*	.36*	.41*	.47*	.47*	.972[a]				
SLS17	.42*	.47*	.43*	.57*	.53*	.43*	.975[a]			
SLS18	.45*	.45*	.52*	.58*	.48*	.42*	.60*	.973[a]		

SLS19	.13*	.14*	.14*	.24*	.11	.19*	.13*	.13*	.766[a]	
SLS20	.35*	.37*	.32*	.40*	.37*	.31*	.39*	.45*	.06	.958[a]
SLS21	.27*	.28*	.42*	.42*	.44*	.33*	.34*	.40*	-.03	.39*
SLS22	.47*	.54*	.43*	.55*	.50*	.45*	.51*	.49*	.13*	.48*
SLS23	.49*	.54*	.48*	.53*	.46*	.48*	.57*	.55*	.20*	.52*
SLS24	.43*	.46*	.46*	.62*	.64*	.49*	.54*	.57*	.13*	.41*
SLS25	.45*	.46*	.44*	.34*	.31*	.40*	.34*	.39*	.15*	.40*
SLS26	.55*	.50*	.52*	.52*	.39*	.50*	.49*	.50*	.20*	.44*
SLS27	.42*	.36*	.43*	.46*	.39*	.48*	.42*	.45*	.13*	.44*
SLS28	.53*	.54*	.52*	.60*	.45*	.47*	.52*	.54*	.19*	.49*
SLS29	.30*	.46*	.35*	.46*	.44*	.39*	.52*	.52*	.18*	.40*
SLS30	.43*	.46*	.43*	.54*	.51*	.43*	.53*	.60*	.15*	.42*
SLS31	.46*	.42*	.44*	.49*	.39*	.58*	.45*	.45*	.22*	.35*
SLS32	.53*	.50*	.48*	.50*	.42*	.46*	.50*	.46*	.15*	.44*
SLS33	.25*	.25*	.21*	.34*	.35*	.32*	.30*	.34*	.01	.24*
SLS34	.53*	.57*	.45*	.58*	.48*	.47*	.52*	.49*	.17*	.47*

SLS35	.40*	.43*	.41*	.54*	.46*	.42*	.45*	.55*	.18*	.34*
SLS36	.48*	.48*	.45*	.62*	.49*	.39*	.54*	.56*	.12	.34*
SLS37	.39*	.40*	.40*	.58*	.53*	.37*	.57*	.58*	.18*	.34*
SLS38	.41*	.43*	.43*	.44*	.38*	.51*	.42*	.39*	.20*	.32*
SLS39	.52*	.52*	.49*	.38*	.28*	.35*	.37*	.40*	.14*	.39*
SLS40	.42*	.44*	.43*	.54*	.43*	.59*	.51*	.48*	.28*	.35*
SLS41	.41*	.45*	.51*	.57*	.48*	.53*	.47*	.51*	.17*	.36*
SLS42	.10	.10	.10	.05	-.04	.14*	.05	.03	.55*	.02
SLS43	.40*	.41*	.49*	.52*	.44*	.50*	.42*	.48*	.22*	.44*
SLS44	.51*	.46*	.45*	.64*	.51*	.48*	.51*	.51*	.18*	.38*
SLS45	.52*	.55*	.47*	.64*	.51*	.52*	.57*	.57*	.22*	.43*
SLS46	.55*	.55*	.46*	.57*	.53*	.47*	.50*	.52*	.14*	.40*
SLS47	.48*	.45*	.38*	.51*	.42*	.52*	.42*	.43*	.18*	.42*
SLS48	.48*	.40*	.45*	.46*	.33*	.54*	.43*	.46*	.19*	.33*
SLS49	.45*	.49*	.45*	.58*	.44*	.50*	.56*	.59*	.19*	.37*
SLS50	.39*	.43*	.44*	.48*	.34*	.45*	.41*	.48*	.12	.37*

	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
SLS21	.942[a]									
SLS22	.41*	.975[a]								
SLS23	.41*	.64*	.970[a]							
SLS24	.47*	.59*	.59*	.977[a]						
SLS25	.30*	.46*	.62*	.44*	.951[a]					
SLS26	.32*	.50*	.62*	.49*	.60*	.976[a]				
SLS27	.46*	.50*	.53*	.46*	.49*	.62*	.969[a]			
SLS28	.41*	.54*	.61*	.60*	.50*	.63*	.59*	.974[a]		
SLS29	.39*	.50*	.49*	.46*	.43*	.43*	.43*	.50*	.950[a]	
SLS30	.41*	.50*	.53*	.60*	.39*	.49*	.51*	.61*	.59*	.969[a]
SLS31	.30*	.44*	.53*	.44*	.43*	.57*	.52*	.56*	.40*	.50*
SLS32	.27*	.54*	.56*	.55*	.48*	.57*	.50*	.55*	.40*	.47*
SLS33	.29*	.34*	.26*	.34*	.12*	.22*	.25*	.25*	.30*	.33*
SLS34	.34*	.60*	.61*	.52*	.42*	.53*	.46*	.43*	.46*	.49*

SLS35	.36*	.50*	.53*	.57*	.39*	.42*	.44*	.44*	.46*	.55*
SLS36	.39*	.49*	.61*	.62*	.41*	.47*	.45*	.64*	.50*	.56*
SLS37	.30*	.47*	.52*	.62*	.37*	.48*	.41*	.58*	.50*	.60*
SLS38	.27*	.44*	.55*	.47*	.44*	.50*	.41*	.49*	.36*	.44*
SLS39	.32*	.43*	.56*	.40*	.57*	.50*	.49*	.55*	.40*	.38*
SLS40	.33*	.45*	.55*	.51*	.46*	.57*	.51*	.52*	.45*	.53*
SLS41	.39*	.49*	.54*	.56*	.37*	.48*	.45*	.53*	.38*	.54*
SLS42	-.08	.03	.14*	-.03	.14*	.17*	.11	.11	.06	.06
SLS43	.46*	.52*	.56*	.54*	.39*	.54*	.61*	.58*	.41*	.49*
SLS44	.45*	.52*	.56*	.60*	.37*	.48*	.53*	.64*	.49*	.55*
SLS45	.31*	.59*	.68*	.57*	.45*	.56*	.52*	.59*	.57*	.59*
SLS46	.35*	.54*	.60*	.59*	.48*	.56*	.46*	.63*	.42*	.54*
SLS47	.28*	.55*	.58*	.48*	.52*	.61*	.51*	.54*	.39*	.49*
SLS48	.30*	.42*	.55*	.41*	.47*	.59*	.58*	.55*	.33*	.39*
SLS49	.32*	.49*	.56*	.50*	.42*	.55*	.48*	.58*	.48*	.54*
SLS50	.44*	.45*	.46*	.47*	.31*	.45*	.44*	.50*	.42*	.48*

	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
SLS31	.956[a]									
SLS32	.60*	.964[a]								
SLS33	.34*	.28*	.949[a]							
SLS34	.50*	.52*	.38*	.976[a]						
SLS35	.42*	.53*	.33*	.55*	.970[a]					
SLS36	.49*	.48*	.30*	.54*	.57*	.966[a]				
SLS37	.39*	.49*	.30*	.47*	.56*	.69*	.966[a]			
SLS38	.53*	.47*	.32*	.50*	.51*	.49*	.51*	.974[a]		
SLS39	.40*	.43*	.21*	.49*	.43*	.48*	.44*	.48*	.967[a]	
SLS40	.64*	.48*	.39*	.54*	.54*	.54*	.54*	.62*	.49*	.966[a]
SLS41	.55*	.50*	.35*	.56*	.52*	.56*	.50*	.58*	.40*	.64*
SLS42	.26*	.07	-.13*	.06	.03	-.01	-.01	.11	.12*	.10
SLS43	.51*	.53*	.27*	.49*	.48*	.48*	.46*	.55*	.48*	.55*
SLS44	.55*	.49*	.32*	.53*	.56*	.61*	.55*	.51*	.44*	.53*

SLS45	.50*	.49*	.30*	.69*	.62*	.61*	.58*	.57*	.50*	.61*
SLS46	.51*	.53*	.30*	.58*	.64*	.60*	.57*	.53*	.49*	.55*
SLS47	.51*	.48*	.20*	.53*	.49*	.53*	.47*	.57*	.49*	.58*
SLS48	.70*	.49*	.25*	.52*	.44*	.49*	.35*	.56*	.46*	.60*
SLS49	.56*	.46*	.34*	.57*	.49*	.55*	.51	.54	.44	.59
SLS50	.48*	.45*	.27*	.41*	.42*	.50*	.42	.42	.41	.53

	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
SLS41	.975[a]									
SLS42	.02	.684[a]								
SLS43	.51*	.11	.972[a]							
SLS44	.57*	.07	.63*	.972[a]						
SLS45	.57*	.08	.56*	.67*	.966[a]					
SLS46	.53*	.07	.49*	.63*	.69*	.973[a]				
SLS47	.55*	.13*	.57*	.54*	.63*	.66*	.962[a]			
SLS48	.53*	.23*	.57*	.54*	.53*	.54*	.63*	.964[a]		

SLS49	.56*	.13*	.55*	.57*	.65*	.56*	.65*	.63*	.970[a]	
SLS50	.49*	.04	.52*	.54*	.45*	.47*	.45*	.46*	.56*	.963[a]

Note. *p≤ .01 [a]KMO values are presented on the diagonal.

(Netenmeyer et al., 2003). "As a way to protect oneself from accepting results which are dubious, a general rule of thumb is to try to combine various rules, accept only those conclusions that are supported by several independent criteria, and consider others as tentative" (Kim & Mueller, 1978a, p. 45).

Three of the six criteria point to a one factor solution. As shown in Figure 4, the Scree plot levels off quickly after the first factor. Only one factor accounts for over 5% individually and the SLS is designed to measure a general factor of shared leadership.

Four items (3, 8, 19 and 42) each had communalities after extraction below .1 and factor loadings on the extracted general factor less than .30. Three of these four items were the only three reverse scored items in the item pool. These items may have fallen victim to an

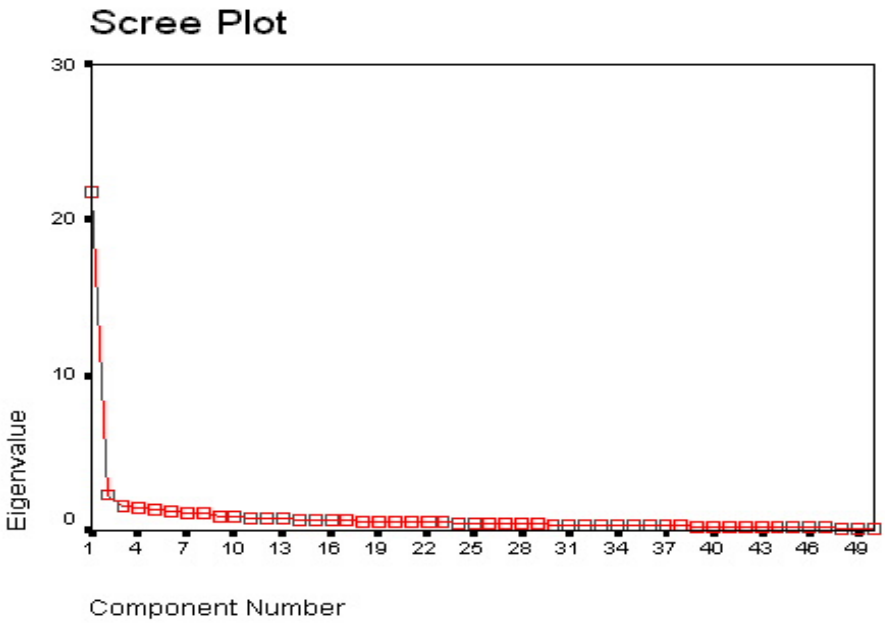

Figure 4. Scree plot of Principal Components Analysis of all 50 items.

Table 5

Factor Loadings From Principal Components Analysis: Communalities, Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance (1 Factor Solution: 50 items)

Item	Communality	Factor Loading
SLS1	.315	.561
SLS2	.262	.512
SLS3	.003	-.060
SLS4	.227	.476
SLS5	.356	.597
SLS6	.519	.721
SLS7	.368	.606
SLS8	.084	.291
SLS9	.530	.728
SLS10	.414	.644
SLS11	.454	.673
SLS12	.465	.682
SLS13	.437	.661
SLS14	.596	.772
SLS15	.403	.635
SLS16	.435	.659
SLS17	.490	.700
SLS18	.523	.723

SLS19	.054	.233
SLS20	.326	.571
SLS21	.275	.524
SLS22	.522	.723
SLS23	.619	.787
SLS24	.553	.744
SLS25	.371	.609
SLS26	.560	.748
SLS27	.476	.690
SLS28	.607	.779
SLS29	.393	.627
SLS30	.527	.726
SLS31	.512	.715
SLS32	.504	.710
SLS33	.187	.433
SLS34	.563	.750
SLS35	.484	.695
SLS36	.551	.742
SLS37	.488	.699
SLS38	.470	.686
SLS39	.412	.642
SLS40	.563	.750
SLS41	.523	.723

SLS42	.012	.112
SLS43	.534	.731
SLS44	.583	.764
SLS45	.646	.803
SLS46	.581	.762
SLS47	.535	.732
SLS48	.507	.712
SLS49	.583	.763
SLS50	.424	.652
Eigenvalue		21.828
% of Variance		43.66

acquiescence bias. An acquiescence bias refers to "a tendency to agree with items irrespective of their content" (Devellis, 2003, p. 69). Social desirability bias, a related concept, will be discussed in greater detail below. Item 3, "most important decisions are made in executive session with high-level leaders," was judged to be ambiguous in the context of Family Connection collaboratives. This item may have been interpreted to mean that the people able to direct agency resources to address an issue were involved in making decisions rather than the intended meaning that decisions were made by a limited and controlling minority. Item 19, "Collaborative meetings are dominated by one individual or group," and item 42, "Collaborative goals are set by the collaborative leader," along with item 3 were each intended to address the issue of broad participation in decision-making. Neither behaved as expected in the analysis.

Although these items were not negatively worded, the fact that they were the only three reverse scored items on the scale may have presented a problem for respondents.

Item 8, "If the official leaders of this collaborative were no longer present we would still be able to accomplish our goals," was intended to address the idea of members "stepping up to the plate" as described by the focus group interview participants. However, it may have the ambiguous interpretation of devaluing the contribution of official leaders. Also, some collaborative members may have a broader understanding of "official leaders" than was intended. These items may be measuring a related but distinct concept of leadership in general as distinguished from shared leadership. The concept of shared leadership does not diminish the quality of leadership from identified leaders. It simply adds additional sources of leadership to the mix. Clark and Watson (1995) suggest that items that have factor loadings below .40 on the first factor for a principal components analysis are prime candidates for deletion. These four items were deleted from the scale and another principal components analysis was run.

Table 6

Factor Loadings From Principal Components Analysis: Communalities, Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance (1 Factor Solution: 46 items)

Item	Communality	Factor Loading
SLS1	.313	.559
SLS2	.269	.519
SLS4	.231	.481
SLS5	.366	.605
SLS6	.515	.718

SLS7	.367	.606
SLS9	.531	.729
SLS10	.407	.638
SLS11	.450	.671
SLS12	.458	.677
SLS13	.433	.658
SLS14	.595	.771
SLS15	.400	.632
SLS16	.439	.663
SLS17	.498	.706
SLS18	.530	.728
SLS20	.328	.573
SLS21	.280	.530
SLS22	.527	.726
SLS23	.619	.787
SLS24	.545	.739
SLS25	.370	.608
SLS26	.551	.742
SLS27	.465	.682
SLS28	.609	.780
SLS29	.388	.623
SLS30	.527	.726
SLS31	.510	.714

SLS32	.502	.708
SLS33	.200	.447
SLS34	.563	.750
SLS35	.489	.700
SLS36	.553	.743
SLS37	.495	.704
SLS38	.472	.687
SLS39	.413	.643
SLS40	.564	.751
SLS41	.530	.728
SLS43	.534	.731
SLS44	.583	.764
SLS45	.650	.806
SLS46	.585	.765
SLS47	.543	.737
SLS48	.510	.714
SLS49	.588	.767
SLS50	.433	.658
Eigenvalue		21.727
% of Variance		47.23

Item Analysis

The remaining forty-six items were subjected to an item analysis. Multiple strategies were used to arrive at the final scale. The goal was to develop an internally consistent scale that was not significantly correlated to social desirability using as few items as practical without sacrificing conceptual meaningfulness. First, each of the remaining items was correlated with total scores from the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale. Items with statistically significant correlations with Social Desirability were eliminated. Second, the data from the remaining items were subjected to a reliability analysis. The results of these analyses are described in greater detail below.

Social Desirability. Decisions to discard or retain items may be based on correlations with other items of interest such as social desirability (Spector, 1992). During item analysis, items with statistically significant correlations ($p \leq .05$) with total scale scores on the short-version MCSD were eliminated from the shared leadership scale. Missing data were eliminated pairwise.

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients for SLS Items and Social Desirability.

SLS Items	R	N
SLS Item 1	.048	395
SLS Item 2	.189**	394
SLS Item 4	.188**	392
SLS Item 5	.115*	395
SLS Item 6	.023	395
SLS Item 7	.126*	394

SLS Item 9	.047	391
SLS Item 10	.020	393
SLS Item 11	.006	396
SLS Item 12	-.014	395
SLS Item 13	.025	395
SLS Item 14	.170**	395
SLS Item 15	.104*	395
SLS Item 16	.131**	390
SLS Item 17	.092	393
SLS Item 18	.068	394
SLS Item 20	-.019	391
SLS Item 21	.089	395
SLS Item 22	.074	395
SLS Item 23	.077	395
SLS Item 24	.113*	394
SLS Item 25	.070	395
SLS Item 26	.041	394
SLS Item 27	.069	395
SLS Item 28	.079	394
SLS Item 29	.096	393
SLS Item 30	.036	394
SLS Item 31	.087	395
SLS Item 32	.077	395
SLS Item 33	.152**	395
SLS Item 34	.100*	396
SLS Item 35	.166**	397
SLS Item 36	.103*	395

SLS Item 37	.157**	396
SLS Item 38	.133**	396
SLS Item 39	.088	396
SLS Item 40	.170**	395
SLS Item 41	.157**	396
SLS Item 43	.076	397
SLS Item 44	.158**	396
SLS Item 45	.103*	397
SLS Item 46	.128*	394
SLS Item 47	.075	396
SLS Item 48	.111*	397
SLS Item 49	.104*	396
SLS Item 50	.094	385

NOTE: *p≤.05 (2-tailed) **p≤ .01 (2-tailed).

Twenty-one of the 46 bivariate correlations were statistically significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). Items 2, 4, 5, 7, 14, 15, 16, 24, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 41, 44, 45, 46, 48 and 49 each had correlation coefficients ranging from .10 to .19. Each of these is a weak correlation (Newton & Rudestam, 1999; Weinberg & Goldberg, 1990), but are greater than would be expected by chance. In order to greatly reduce the influence of a confounding factor of social desirability on the scale all 21 items were deleted from the final version of the scale.

Internal consistency. Alpha was calculated as .96 on the remaining 25 items of the SLS. Corrected item-total correlations were calculated as well as alpha if item deleted. Corrected item-total correlations ranged from .52 to .77. Most were above .6. There were no items that would have improved Alpha if deleted.

Table 8

Internal Consistency for the SLS - 25 Items (N = 378).

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
SLS Item 1	.5524	.9549
SLS Item 6	.7026	.9535
SLS Item 9	.7080	.9534
SLS Item 10	.6427	.9541
SLS Item 11	.6699	.9538
SLS Item 12	.6733	.9539
SLS Item 13	.6593	.9539
SLS Item 17	.6598	.9539
SLS Item 18	.6984	.9535
SLS Item 20	.5779	.9548
SLS Item 21	.5429	.9551
SLS Item 22	.7106	.9534
SLS Item 23	.7729	.9528
SLS Item 25	.6142	.9544
SLS Item 26	.7472	.9530
SLS Item 27	.6765	.9537
SLS Item 28	.7659	.9529
SLS Item 29	.6019	.9545

SLS Item 30	.6876	.9536
SLS Item 31	.6730	.9538
SLS Item 32	.6921	.9536
SLS Item 39	.6446	.9541
SLS Item 43	.6945	.9535
SLS Item 47	.6772	.9537
SLS Item 50	.6237	.9543

Alpha = .96

One widely accepted rule of thumb for evaluating alpha is that "alpha should be at least .70 for a scale to demonstrate internal consistency" (Spector, 1992, p. 32). Devellis (2003) advises that an alpha above .80 is very good. The final version of the SLS is a 25-item unidimensional scale. The data collected in this study revealed very good internal consistency. It is very important to replicate the reliability analysis and the factor structure as well. This should be done on an independent sample to demonstrate that the results were not a one-time occurrence (DeVellis, 2003).

Analysis of Scale Validity

Validity cannot be proven; instead evidence is collected to either support or refute the claim that the measure performs as expected. When a sufficient amount of data is collected in support of validity a scale is tentatively declared to be a valid measure of the construct. Validity is inferred from the evidence (Netenmeyer et al., 2003; Spector, 1992). "The typical

Table 9

Items retained for the SLS.

	Item Stems
Item 1	Information related to the work of the collaborative is shared freely among collaborative members.
Item 6	This collaborative provides opportunities for members to use their expertise.
Item 9	This collaborative puts member's ideas into action.
Item 10	There are members in this collaborative that inspire me.
Item 11	I am able to learn new skills and information from members of this collaborative.
Item 12	The members of this collaborative motivate me to do more than I originally expected I would.
Item 13	There is someone in this collaborative that will effectively guide others to perform the necessary tasks to accomplish the collaborative's goals.
Item 17	Collaborative members are creative enough to solve difficult problems.
Item 18	The collaborative is organized to effectively accomplish goals.
Item 20	We celebrate our collaborative's successes.
Item 21	Someone in the collaborative is able to guide discussions to keep us on track.
Item 22	Collaborative members make others want to be a part of the group.
Item 23	Members help each other in this collaborative.
Item 25	I believe I have the opportunity to make a significant contribution to the success of this collaborative.

Item 26	Each member has an opportunity to get involved in the work of the collaborative according to their interests.
Item 27	Collaborative goals are communicated to all members.
Item 28	Collaborative members contribute specialized knowledge to help the collaborative do its work.
Item 29	Collaborative members are optimistic.
Item 30	Collaborative members are able to translate the goals of the collaborative into specific objectives.
Item 31	All members have the opportunity to help decide what work will be done by the collaborative.
Item 32	The collaborative provides opportunities for members to increase their skills.
Item 39	I want to continue being a part of this collaborative.
Item 43	There is an effective process in place to keep collaborative members well-informed of the work of the collaborative.
Item 47	I believe my ideas are heard and appropriately acted on by members of this collaborative.
Item 50	Someone in the collaborative keeps members focused on the work at hand.

Note. $\alpha = .96$

scale-validation strategy involves testing the scale of interest in the context of a set of hypothesized interrelations of the intended construct with other constructs" (Spector, 1992, p. 46).

Evidence for the validity of the SLS as a measure of shared leadership was assessed in several ways. Face validity and content validity were considered in the initial development of the SLS and throughout the study as items were eliminated. Criterion validity was assessed through statistical analysis during stage three and is reported below. Known groups validity, a special form of criterion validity, was assessed using group scores rather than individual scale scores.

Face Validity. Face validity indicates that a scale seems to measure what it purports to measure (Sarantakos, 1998). In the present study, face validity was assessed by the researcher in development of the Shared Leadership Scale and by focus group participants in stage two. As a result of feedback from focus group participants and subsequent revisions described above, face validity of the SLS was improved.

Content Validity. Content validity was assessed in all three stages by the researcher. In stage one, items were selected for inclusion in the original SLS in order to insure representativeness of items from each of the categories from both classification schemes. This process is described in detail above. The primary purpose of the focus group interviews conducted in stage two was to determine if members of successful collaboratives would add to the list of essential characteristics of shared leadership as these applied to their experiences in achieving collaborative success. Finally, during item analysis, the researcher was careful to maintain items from each leadership/shared leadership category in the final version of the scale to ensure that the full range of items in the domain were sampled. In this way, content validity is judged to be adequate for this study.

Criterion Validity. In the present study, convergent validity, discriminant validity and known groups validity were each assessed for the Shared Leadership Scale. Four separate measures were embedded in the current study in order to provide evidence of convergent and

discriminant validity. The Peer Leadership Scale (PLS) and the Control Graph Questionnaire (CGQ) were included to assess evidence of convergent validity. Length of membership in the collaborative and the short form of the MCSD were included as measures to assess discriminant validity. Descriptive statistics for each of the included measures is presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Total Scale Scores for Each Measure

Measure	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Valid Cases
SLS 25	103.81	12.23	50	125	378
PLS	42.22	7.58	11	55	397
CGQ	21.89	4.65	6	30	387
MCSD	8.70	3.14	0	13	397
Effectiveness	4.27	0.76	1	5	388
		Less than 1 year	1-5 Years		More than 5 years
Length of Membership*		(89) 21.2%	(235) 56.1%		(79) 18.9%

Note. *Numbers in parenthesis indicates frequencies of responses in each category.

Convergent Validity - Peer Leadership. The construct of peer leadership as defined by Bowers and Seashore (1966) is very similar to the construct of Shared Leadership employed in the current study. As such, it is expected that correlation between the SLS and PLS would be strong and statistically significant. As shown in Table 11 this correlation is statistically significant and fairly strong. A problem was detected with the PLS in that it had a small but significant correlation with the Social Desirability scale. The PLS was also moderately correlated with the Control Graph Questionnaire as expected.

Convergent Validity - Control Graph Questionnaire. In the present study, total control was used as the measure of interest as calculated by summing the ratings on each sub-item on the Control Graph Questionnaire (CGQ). Influence is an important part of shared leadership but influence alone does not address the richness of the construct. However, it was expected that greater levels of shared leadership would correlate with higher total control in a collaborative. In previous studies, reliability has been called into question regarding the control graph (Markham et al., 1984). The internal consistency in the present study was .88. There was a statistically significant moderate correlation between the CGQ and SLS. The CGQ also had a moderate correlation with the peer leadership scale. This would be expected. The CG was not significantly correlated with the Social Desirability Scale.

Discriminant Validity - Social Desirability. If the SLS is a valid measure of shared leadership it should not correlate highly with a measure of social desirability, one form of response bias. In the present study, the internal consistency of the SDS was .79. The SLS was not correlated with the SDS. The correlation coefficient was lower for this relationship than for any of the other correlations with social desirability.

Discriminant Validity - Length of Membership. Shared leadership is a group construct and should not be correlated with a characteristic of any individual member. On the survey respondents were asked to answer the question, "How long have you been a member of this collaborative?" Since this question elicits responses that are of an individual nature, shared leadership should not be significantly correlated with membership length. Membership length is measured at the ordinal level, and the relationship was analyzed using Spearman's rho. There was not a statistically significant correlation between shared leadership as measured by the SLS and membership length.

Concurrent Validity - Perceptions of Overall Effectiveness. Shared leadership is expected to improve the effectiveness of collaborative efforts. Therefore, it is expected that collaborative members' assessment of shared leadership within a collaborative would be predictive of those same members' perceptions of the overall effectiveness of the collaborative. In the current study, scores on the SLS were fairly strongly correlated with a measure of perceived overall effectiveness. In fact, correlations between Effectiveness and the SLS were higher in magnitude than correlations between Effectiveness and any of the other measures. This indicates that SLS is a better predictor of perceptions of overall effectiveness than the PLS or CGQ which also had statistically significant correlations with Effectiveness.

Known Groups Validity.

On each of the SLS scale items respondents were asked to respond to a statement describing a characteristic of the group as a whole. The SLS total score is calculated by summing item scores on each of the 25 items in the final version of the scale for each subject. The SLS is designed to measure a group characteristic by aggregating total scale scores from individuals who are participants in the collaborative group into a mean group score. This mean group score represents the average rating of the group by collaborative members. It was hypothesized that the mean score from the collaboratives ranked with the highest collaboration rankings would be significantly higher than the mean score from the collaboratives with the lowest collaboration rankings.

Table 11

Correlations and Coefficient Alphas for Validity Measures.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Shared Leadership Scale[a]	**.96**	–	–	–	–	--
2. Peer Leadership Scale[a]	.76*	**.95**	–	–	–	--
3. Control Graph Questionnaire[a]	.43*	.40*	**.88**	–	–	--
4. Social Desirability Scale[a]	.06	.18*	.08	**.79**	–	--
5. Membership Length[b]	.07	.04	-.05	-.07	–	
6. Effectiveness[a]	.69*	.58*	.40*	.03	.05[b]	

NOTE: *P≤ .001 (two-tailed).

[a]Pearson product -moment coefficient, [b]Spearman's rho.

Glisson (1987) cautions against making conclusions about group characteristics when data are collected from individuals. He suggests that the researcher clearly denote the unit of analysis and very carefully interpret results when analysis is performed on a different unit than that on which data are collected. In the present study, data were collected on group characteristics from individual perceptions of those characteristics. The unit of analysis is the group. A mean group score calculated from individual responses as stated above is an appropriate method of obtaining a group score because individuals are asked to rate group characteristics rather than individual ones. However, as an extra measure of precaution the tests were repeated with both the individual and the group as the unit of analysis. If test results hold regardless of unit of analysis, there is evidence to suggest that using mean group scores is appropriate.

An independent samples t-test was used to test the hypothesis that the mean group score from collaboratives operating most closely to the definition of shared leadership would be higher than the mean group score from collaboratives operating least closely to the definition of shared leadership. The null hypothesis is that no difference exists between the groups. Levene's test of equal variances was not statistically significant, and therefore the equal variances assumed statistic was used in this analysis. As shown in Table 12, the means of group scores for the group unit of analysis were only separated by 3.80 points, and this difference was not statistically significant. In order to justify the use of mean group scores from the individual survey data, this analysis was repeated with the individual as the unit of analysis. The results were very similar. However, when using the individual as the unit of analysis, the difference in mean scores was 4.59. This difference is statistically significant. The practical implications of this difference will be discussed below. In both cases the means were quite similar with collaboratives rated higher in collaboration receiving higher means scores than those rated lower in collaboration. The SLS was not able to distinguish between the known groups when using the group as the unit of analysis.

In a very broad sense a measure is considered to be valid if it does what it is intended to do. "There is no way to prove the validity of an instrument purely by appeal to authority, deduction from a psychological theory, or any type of mathematical proof....Validity usually is a matter of degree rather than an all-or-none property, and validation is an unending process" (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p.84). Preliminary indications are that the Shared Leadership Scale is a valid measure of shared leadership. The scale had statistically significant correlations with the Peer Leadership Scale and Control Graph Questionnaire in the expected direction but

Table 12

Group Differences for Collaborative Groups Rated Higher and Lower on Collaboration for both Group and Individual Units of Analysis.

	Higher Collaboration		Lower Collaboration			
	M	SD	M	SD	df	t
Group Unit of Analysis	104.7	5.80	100.9	6.49	32	1.90
Individual Unit of Analysis	105.4	12.38	100.8	12.38	376	3.53**

Note. Higher Collaboration group (N = 19) Lower Collaboration group (N = 15) **p≤.001

not with the Social Desirability Scale or length of membership. Known groups analysis produced mixed results and the differences that were discovered were not large enough to have practical significance. However, validation is an ongoing process and most measures should be kept under constant surveillance to be sure they are performing as they should (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Summary

Chapter four reports the results of the three-stage study of shared leadership. In the first stage a 50-item version of the SLS measure was developed through an iterative process. Potential measurement items were identified from the bodies of literature on leadership and collaboration and were classified using two classification schemes. The two goals of initial scale development were adequate coverage of each leadership category and relative balance between all categories on each classification scheme.

In the second stage: focus group interviews were conducted with members of two collaboratives with reputations for success. The focus group interviews reported above were

conducted for the purpose of exploring the concept of shared leadership by examining how leadership is experienced in actual collaboratives in order to determine those leadership factors which are necessary to move a collaborative group toward its goal. Findings from the focus group interviews tend to support and further define the shared leadership model.

The focus group interviews resulted in a revised model that expanded the original three component model to include five distinct components. These components, togetherness, resources, common goal, open process and outcomes, not only more fully explain shared leadership, they also more closely match the definition of shared leadership presented earlier. Modifications to the scale were made as a result of the interviews and another measure was added to test for response bias.

Stage three included exploratory factor analysis, reliability testing and assessment of scale validity. The factor analysis eliminated four items which failed to load on the primary factor. The remaining 46 items formed a unidimensional scale. Twenty-one additional items were removed due to statistically significant correlations with the SDS. Evidence of criterion validity was found for the SLS through correlations with the Peer Leadership Scale and Control Graph Questionnaire. Discriminant validity was supported when the analysis did not discover statistically significant correlation between the SLS and either the SDS or membership length. Mixed results were obtained in the known groups analysis.

The results of this study support the conclusion that the final version of the shared leadership scale is a 25-item unidimensional scale that measures a rather heterogeneous construct of shared leadership. The SLS has high internal consistency and evidence of face, content, and criterion validity. These findings will be discussed further in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The myriad of complex problems facing communities today demands an interdependent response from community members. Rarely does one organization have the resources to act unilaterally without creating unintended consequences (Gray, 1989). Increasingly, voluntary, multiparty community collaboration is being promoted as a way to bring community members together to solve complex community problems (Berman, 1996; Borden, 1997; Melaville & Blank, 1993; Reilly, 1998; Rubin, 1998; White & Wehlage, 1995).

Although voluntary, multiparty community collaboration is emerging as a necessary approach to addressing community-wide problems, there is not a comprehensive theory to explain this type of collaboration and how it works. One particular aspect of the collaborative process that must be addressed is leadership. While shared leadership is not mentioned as a distinct construct in the growing body of literature on collaboration theory and has not been adequately addressed in leadership theory as it pertains to voluntary community collaboratives, it should be an important concept in both. Shared leadership builds upon the cumulative findings of research on traditional conceptualizations of leadership and extends these to the voluntary community group.

The purpose of this study was to conceptualize a model of shared leadership within voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives and test a measure of this concept. The objectives were three-fold: First, the study examined the essential characteristics of leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives. Second, the study allowed the researcher to conceptually define shared leadership and develop a scale to measure the concept. Third, the

study was used to assess the psychometric properties of a measure of shared leadership within collaborative enterprises.

A three-stage, multi-method study was employed to examine shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. A model of shared leadership, including a measurement instrument, was developed in the initial stage. The second stage consisted of focus group interviews to refine the model and measure. Finally, a variety of statistical procedures were employed to develop a final version of the shared leadership scale and assess its psychometric properties.

Findings

The first question this study attempted to answer was: "What are the essential characteristics of leadership that must exist to move a collaborative toward its goal?" Data from all three stages indicate that one essential characteristic of shared leadership is the active involvement of collaborative members through the contribution of resources. Resources may include such tangible assets as specific skills, specialized knowledge, time or money. Resources may also include intangible assets such as encouragement, enthusiasm or inspirational actions. These resources are used to increase the capacity and competence of the group to accomplish its goal. Scale items that address the contribution of resources include: *Collaborative members are creative enough to solve difficult problems*, *Collaborative members contribute specialized knowledge to help the collaborative do its work*, and *Each member has an opportunity to get involved in the work of the collaborative according to their interests*. The essential leadership characteristic is that each member makes a contribution based on his/her unique abilities and interests. Collaboratives that operate from a shared leadership perspective empower members by

providing them the opportunity to both contribute to the success of the group and learn from other group members.

Likewise, data from all three stages indicated that creating and maintaining an open process of communication is an essential characteristic of shared leadership. In an open communication process resources available to the collaborative are blended together in intentional ways to achieve collaborative goals. This communication process is based in an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect. Collaborative members are free, encouraged and motivated to bring up ideas and suggestions and have the confidence that the ideas will be handled appropriately by the group. An open communication process not only allows but is greatly enhanced by the exchange of differing ideas. Although this is usually an informal process, it is governed by unwritten rules that guide communication and reduce the chance of collaborative members feeling intimidated by the group. Scale items that address the maintenance of an open communication process include: *Information related to the work of the collaborative is shared freely among collaborative members*, *The collaborative puts members ideas into action*, and *I believe my ideas are heard and appropriately acted on by members of this collaborative*. An open communication process benefits the group and individual members by allowing an issue to be addressed from all possible perspectives. This helps participants to strengthen solutions developed by the group by eliminating or greatly reducing the possibility that a barrier to success was not addressed in the planning stages.

The outcomes of shared leadership are comprehensive solutions that are owned by the group. These outcomes provide personal benefits such as inspiration and motivation to collaborative members that return to the collaborative in the form of additional resources. Shared leadership engages members in future collaborative efforts by providing opportunities for

members to achieve results that could not have been achieved alone. Scale items related to outcomes of shared leadership include: *There are members in this collaborative that inspire me*, *The members of this collaborative motivate me to do more than I originally expected I would*, and *I want to continue being a part of this collaborative*.

The second question this study attempted to answer was : "How are these leadership characteristics shared in multiparty community collaboratives?" Shared leadership in voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives is based in a system of mutually beneficial, reciprocal relationships. Members are interdependent and mutually accountable to one another. It is based in the idea expressed by focus group members that "we're all in this together." This idea was highlighted by Kouzes and Posner (2002) who stated: "To get extraordinary things done, we have to rely on each other. We need to have a sense of mutual dependence - a community of people each of whom knows that they need the others to be successful" (p. 251). Using the contribution of resources and open communication process described above, collaborative members share leadership through a fluid approach of give and take based on needs of the group and expertise and interests of collaborative members. When a group need calls for a specific skill such as group facilitation or a specialized type of knowledge such as effective interventions for school phobia, members defer leadership to those with the needed resources. Members answer the call to provide leadership by bringing their resources to bear on specific group needs.

Shared leadership is very much like the process of putting the pieces of a jigsaw puzzle together. The puzzle pieces represent various contributions made to the collaborative effort by actively involved participants. It is important to have all of the pieces to the jigsaw puzzle available to the group. It is just as important that each piece be inserted into the puzzle in the proper place in relationship to the other pieces. In a collaborative endeavor this is accomplished

through an open communication process. It is the synergistic process of adding each piece in its proper place that produces the end result of a completed puzzle. The satisfaction of working together on a successful project increases the chances that the group will work together successfully again and that others will want to come to the table.

The final question this study attempted to answer was: "How can the group concept of shared leadership be measured in a way that is valid, reliable and useful in future research?" As a result of data gathered in all three stages, a 25-item Shared Leadership Scale was developed. This preliminary measure of shared leadership is a unidimensional measure of a rather heterogeneous construct. All 25 items had high primary factor loadings on the first factor.

The final version of the SLS has high internal consistency and evidence of face, content, and criterion validity. As expected, the scale shares statistically significant correlations with the Peer Leadership Scale and Control Graph Questionnaire and not with the Social Desirability Scale or membership length. The SLS was the strongest predictor of perceived overall collaborative effectiveness among the three measures of leadership included in the study.

The SLS was not able to distinguish between the known groups identified by experts familiar with the sample collaboratives when using the group as the unit of analysis. Even when using the individual as the unit of analysis and obtaining statistically significant differences in mean scores, the difference was not as high as would be desired. This calls into question the practical significance of this finding. Several potential explanations exist to account for this difference. First, there was a gap of about a year between the time the data were collected to rank the collaboratives and the time the data were collected for the present study. In that time frame situations in collaboratives may have changed. Collaboratives that were ranked lower a year earlier may have grown in ways that more closely approximates shared leadership. This

possibility was mediated somewhat by the fact that community facilitators provided feedback that led to the final collaborative rankings just prior to the initiation of the present study. Still, this is a limitation of this study.

Another potential explanation for the small differences in mean group scores is the data used to calculate the initial rankings. One of the data items contributing to the ranking, participation, was calculated by creating a t score based on the average level of participation in the collaborative from every sector present in the community. Although stakeholder participation is critical to community collaboration, items related to this concept were eliminated from the SLS due to problems with statistically significant intercorrelations with a measure of social desirability. This foundational concept for collaboration may be a distinct construct from shared leadership. As it is currently conceived shared leadership is related more to the process of working together than comprehensive stakeholder involvement. The use of participation as part of the formula for determining highly collaborative known groups would have mediated the differences somewhat. Finally, the small differences may be explained by the fact that all participants in the sample were members of collaborative groups. The differences between higher and lower rated collaborative groups would not be expected to be as great as differences between collaborative and non-collaborative groups. Further research is needed to determine an appropriate explanation for the small differences in mean group scores.

Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of the study was the known groups issue discussed above. Another limitation of the study was the selection and size of the sample. Both the focus group and survey portions of the study were conducted on nonprobability samples. Selection of the focus group collaboratives attempted to account for as much diversity as practical by taking into account the

following factors: age of the collaborative, and population type of the community. The two collaboratives were selected from among Family Connection collaboratives with a reputation for success. The selection and size of this sample limited the amount of information that was available to the researcher. The sample for the survey portion of the study was selected based on specific selection criteria. This limitation greatly restricts the ability of the researcher to generalize the findings beyond the study sample. The findings in this study should be replicated on a random sample of collaborative groups. Even then, the findings are only generalizable to the population from which the sample is drawn.

The survey methodology introduced additional limitations. Survey data are based on respondent perceptions and as such is not as precise as directly measuring the concept in question (Rubin & Babbie, 1993). Survey methodology may also introduce confounding factors related to reading ability, familiarity with the collaborative and only tapping respondents who are willing and available to participate. Response bias, including social desirability and acquiescence bias, is introduced in survey data. Acquiescence bias is a tendency by a respondent to agree rather than disagree (Nunnally, 1978). The problems noted with the three reverse-scored items indicates a potential problem with acquiescence bias. Social desirability was measured and tested in the analysis. It was concluded that social desirability was not a significant problem in the data but the same cannot be said for acquiescence bias. Social desirability was not controlled in the focus group portion of the study. Since these interviews were conducted in a group setting, respondents may have restricted their responses to ones that they judged would be approved of by the group.

A related limitation concerns the manner in which the survey was distributed. Surveys were sent to and distributed by collaborative coordinators rather than being sent directly to

survey respondents. Although surveys were returned from 87.5% of those collaboratives that were invited to participate in the study, it was impossible to calculate an individual response rate and thus impossible to determine the representativeness of the returned surveys for the surveyed population. It is possible that collaborative members who did not respond to the survey were qualitatively different from those who did respond. Another procedural bias that was uncontrolled in the study was any bias that may have been introduced into the survey through the choices made by the coordinator in distributing the survey. For instance, in one case surveys were distributed to respondents via email. It is unclear whether responses received through this distribution method are qualitatively different from those that may have been given by potential respondents who did not have access to email.

Another limitation was introduced in the development process for the original 50 items on the SLS. The items were developed and initially evaluated by the researcher without verification by independent reviewers. Through this process the researcher may have been blind to personal bias impacting the selection and evaluation of items for the scale. This limitation was lessened somewhat through the use of focus groups in stage two to assist with assessing face and content validity.

Finally, this study utilized a conventional approach to the assessment of scale validity (See Devellis, 2003, Netenmeyer et al., 2003 or Spector, 1992 for descriptions of a conventional approach to assessing validity). Devellis (2003) asserts that "According to the more conventional interpretation, validity is inferred from the manner in which a scale was constructed, its ability to predict specific events, or its relationships to measures of other constructs" (p. 49). A broader interpretation of validity has been presented by Messick (1995) who describes validity as a property not so much of the measure itself but of the meaning and

interpretation drawn from the scores produced by the measure. He notes "These scores are a function not only of the items or stimulus conditions, but also of the persons responding as well as the context of the assessment" (1995, p. 741).

Messick (1995) has identified at least 6 aspects of construct validity including content, substantive, structural generalizability, external and consequential aspects. Preliminary evidence of content and external (convergent and discriminant) validity have been presented in this study. Other aspects, particularly generalizability and consequential aspects, present important ethical issues in the use of scores obtained by the measure. Many would agree that gathering evidence of scale validity is an on-going process (Fiske, 2002; Messick, 1995; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This study represents a first-step in the on-going process of gathering evidence in support of the use of the SLS as a measure of shared leadership. This process needs to continue in future research involving the SLS.

Recommendations for Further Research

Even in the face of the limitations noted above, this study has produced an initial model of shared leadership and strong preliminary evidence of internal consistency and validity of the SLS. However, further study is needed on the construct of shared leadership and the shared leadership scale in order to increase the utility of each. This study should be replicated on a random sample. By replicating the study on a random sample many of the confounding factors associated with subject selection may be eliminated. Use of a random sample will also allow the researcher to improve the generalizability of the findings.

Additional research is also needed to explain the small differences in mean group scores for known groups. These differences are discussed in greater detail above. Future research with the measure should attempt to examine the ability of the measure to identify practical differences

between known groups or establish meaningful predictive validity for the scale. This research will likely involve a different method for identifying known groups that does not use participation as a factor in group selection since this factor was judged to be a very important yet distinct construct from shared leadership.

Further research should be conducted to develop and test a theory of shared leadership. This theory testing may involve testing the model developed in stage one and refined in stage two of the present study. One concept that has emerged from this preliminary study is that collaboration is enhanced when all stakeholders are engaged in working on a common goal. It has been proposed that an outcome of shared leadership is the engagement of collaborative members in future collaborative efforts. A hypothesis that would follow from these findings is that the level of perceived shared leadership within a collaborative is negatively correlated with a member's intent to leave the collaborative. A related concept that should be studied is the relationship between shared leadership and stakeholder participation. Are stakeholders more willing to become active in community collaboratives with higher levels of shared leadership?

Another line of inquiry that is recommended from this study, involves studying the relationship between shared leadership and indicators of collaborative success. Erickson (1999) identified three indicators of collaborative success as monetary resources, local resources and a global index labeled markers of progress toward systems changes. Future studies should examine the relationship between shared leadership and each of these indicators. Furthermore, Erickson demonstrated that collaborative age had a "consistent main effect" on all three of these indicators. He concluded, "that the passage of time appears linked to the accrual of many desired features of collaboration is far from trivial" (1999, p. 211). In light of this finding, future studies should examine the relationship between shared leadership and collaborative age.

Finally, research into collaborative processes should continue to use both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative methods are particularly helpful for exploring new phenomenon about which little is known, tapping deeper meanings of human experience and generating richer theoretical concepts. Quantitative methods are especially useful for statistical testing and generalizability of findings (Rubin & Babbie, 1993). The study of shared leadership within voluntary, multiparty community collaboratives is a new phenomenon. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods will allow data to be gathered and tested for a fuller meaning of underlying concepts and experiences not yet tapped in research.

Implications for Practice and Research

The focus of this study has been to develop a model and measure for shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. The findings of this study have some important implications for research and practice. The findings of this study contribute to a developing theory of collaboration by more clearly defining leadership in collaborative groups. Shared leadership has been identified as an integral part of the collaborative process. The shared leadership scale provides one measure for researchers to use in further explicating collaboration and factors leading to collaborative success. This is discussed in greater detail above.

A better understanding of shared leadership should help community members better address complex community problems. If Lambert et al. (1995) are correct in their assessment that failure to understand leadership is the missing link in change efforts, then this study should improve change efforts by enhancing our understanding of shared leadership. The shared leadership scale may be used as an assessment measure to assist collaborative groups in evaluating their internal processes. Social workers and other community workers should be able

to use this understanding of leadership to identify ways to get clients actively involved in collaborative efforts by connecting client strengths to specific collaborative needs.

The expectation that all collaborative members perform as both leaders and followers points to the need for training in shared leadership. As Frydman et al. (2000) point out:

> There's great untapped potential sitting in organizations already but we've relied on the hero leader for so long that this movement toward greater collaboration can't happen spontaneously. Position leaders need to do a lot of learning and soul-searching. Likewise, people who aren't in formal leadership positions now need to be effectively skilled and nurtured so that they are ready to take on more leadership responsibilities. (P. 197)

Training should be focused in at least three areas. First, training should engage those who are already experienced leaders in other settings in learning how to step back and allow others to lead. Second, training should provide those who have experienced mostly follower roles the opportunity to learn leadership skills. These skills would include skills from leadership theories described under individual leadership section in Chapter Two. Third, all collaborative members should receive training in the reciprocal and fluid nature of shared leadership. When trained in principles of shared leadership, social workers are better able to work with multi-disciplinary teams to identify community problems, develop resources to address those problems and increase the capacity of communities to effectively use these resources.

Conclusion

Shared leadership is very much like the process of putting the pieces of a puzzle together into a beautiful picture. Each collaborative member holds a piece to the puzzle. Puzzle pieces represent resources the group needs to accomplish a goal. Just as it is important to have all the

pieces to a puzzle, it is also important to have all stakeholders contributing resources to the success of the collaborative. The puzzle pieces must not only be present; they must be inserted into the correct place in the puzzle. In a collaborative endeavor, this is accomplished through an open process of blending stakeholder resources together through communication and action. As each puzzle piece is inserted, the picture begins to emerge just as collaborative solutions begin to emerge as participant contributions are joined together. This process enhances the likelihood that the puzzle will be completed. It is the cumulative effect of adding each piece in its proper place that produces the end result of a completed picture. This is the goal of the group. The satisfaction of working together on a successful project increases the chances that the group will work together successfully again and that others will want to come to the table. Putting puzzles together, especially complex ones, is a social affair. The same is true for successful collaboration.

When it comes to addressing the myriad of complex problems facing communities today, rarely can agencies act independently or unilaterally. As Mencken noted, "There is always a well-known solution to every human problem - neat, plausible and wrong" (1920, p.158). Complex problems demand comprehensive solutions. Collaboration is the key to bringing together the resources needed to address these complex problems. Shared leadership is particularly important to collaboration. Shared leadership is the active involvement of all participants, blending their expertise and interests, to motivate, equip and guide a group to achieve a common goal. This study has provided both a fuller explanation of this construct and a way to measure shared leadership that may serve as a springboard to future research and practice in collaboration.

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APPENDIX A

FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM

FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in the research study titled "Shared Leadership in Voluntary Multiparty Community Collaboratives" which is being conducted by Ken Greene, Social Work Department at UGA, 770-725-1463 under the direction of Dr. Tom Holland, Social Work Department, UGA 706-542-5463. I understand that this participation is entirely voluntary; I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of the participation, to the extent that it can be identified as mine, returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The following points have been explained to me:

1. The purpose of the study is to examine and develop a model of shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives.
2. The benefits that I may expect are that participation in the study might lead to a better understanding of leadership issues in my collaborative and be helpful to me.
3. The procedures are as follows:
    a. I will be instructed to read and sign the consent form if I agree to participate.
    b. Following the signing of the consent form I will be directed to remain in the interview room to participate in the focus group discussion. The discussion will be based on a set of pre-determined interview questions and will be audio taped. I may elect to pass on any question I prefer not to answer. Following the focus group interview, the audio tape will be transcribed without any personally identifiable information used in the transcript. The audiotape will then be destroyed.
4. No discomforts or unusual stresses are foreseen.
5. No risks are foreseen.
6. The results of this participation will be confidential and available only to the researcher.
7. The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project.

_____ _____

Signature of Researcher Date Signature of Participant Date

PLEASE SIGN BOTH COPIES OF THIS FORM. KEEP ONE AND RETURN THE OTHER TO THE INVESTIGATOR.

Research at The University of Georgia involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board. For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

APPENDIX B

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Focus Group Interview Questions

16. Tell me one of your recent success stories.
    a. How were you able to achieve this success?
    b. What are some specific ways that various members contributed to the success?
17. How do you get people involved in your collaborative?
    a. What do you do to recruit members to the collaborative?
    b. What do you do to keep members active in the collaborative?
    c. How has the membership changed as the collaborative has moved forward?
18. How would you describe the process members use to work together?
    a. How does communication occur?
    b. How are conflicts resolved?
    c. How is your collaborative organized?
19. What are some specific ways that various members use their expertise or interests to contribute to the success of the collaborative?
20. What are some specific tasks that you have found necessary to keep the collaborative moving forward?
    a. How are various members involved in these tasks?
    b. How have various members helped each other in achieving the work of the collaborative?
21. How are your collaborative goals determined?
    a. How are the goals communicated to collaborative partners?
    b. How are the goals communicated to the public?
    c. What are some specific ways collaborative members participate in this process?

APPENDIX C

SURVEY COVER LETTER

Survey Cover Letter

Dear Research Participant:

I appreciate your willingness to participate in a research study titled "Shared Leadership in Voluntary Multiparty Community Collaboratives" which is being conducted by Ken Greene, Social Work Department at UGA, 770-725-1463 under the direction of Dr. Tom Holland, Social Work Department, UGA 706-542-5463. Your participation is entirely voluntary; you can withdraw your consent at any time without penalty and have the results of your participation, to the extent that it can be identified as yours, returned to you, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of the study is to examine and develop a model of shared leadership in voluntary multiparty community collaboratives. Although risks are minimal, you should be aware that answering questions about certain aspects of a group in which you participate could cause some discomfort and sensitize you to certain issues. You should also be aware that it might lead to a better understanding of those areas in your collaborative and be helpful to you. While your participation in this study will play a significant role in developing a model of shared leadership in community collaboratives, the potential benefits and risks to you as an individual are minimal.

You have received a questionnaire and addressed, stamped envelope along with this letter. Instructions for answering the questions are written on the questionnaire. Please answer all questions to the best of your ability. When you are finished, please place the completed questionnaire in the stamped envelope and return directly to the researcher through return mail. Your participation in this study will be anonymous and once the data has been collected there will be no way for you to be identified as a participant in this study. The completed questionnaires will be kept only by the researcher and destroyed after a reasonable period of time.

I will be happy to answer any questions you may have about the research, now or during the course of the study. I can be reached by telephone at: (770) 867-1942 or by email at: kengreene@writeme.com.

By returning the completed questionnaire you are indicating that the researcher has answered all of your questions to your satisfaction and that you consent to volunteer for this study. You are encouraged to keep this letter for your records.

Sincerely,

Ken Greene
University of Georgia

Research at The University of Georgia involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board. For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

APPENDIX D

STAGE THREE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Shared Leadership in Voluntary Multiparty Community Collaboratives: Putting the Pieces Together

Instructions: Using the codes listed below, circle the letter(s) which best represents your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your collaborative. Circle only 1 response per statement. Answer codes: SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N = Neither agree nor disagree, D= Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree. **Please Note:** Community partnerships (collaboratives) are organized in a variety of ways. For this questionnaire, the term collaborative refers to your local community partnership at whichever level of organization you are most involved.

To submit this directly to the researcher by US Postal Service please send it to: Ken Greene 2465 Bear Creek Road Statham, GA 30666		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree not disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Information related to the work of the collaborative is shared freely among collaborative members.	SA	A	N	D	SD
2	The membership of this collaborative includes a cross-section of the community.	SA	A	N	D	SD
3	Most important decisions are made in executive session with high level leaders.	SA	A	N	D	SD
4	The people most affected by the decisions of this collaborative have a say in making those decisions. (Includes clients, front-line workers, other agencies)	SA	A	N	D	SD
5	Someone in the collaborative makes sure that the appropriate people take part in decision making.	SA	A	N	D	SD
6	This collaborative provides opportunities for members to use their expertise.	SA	A	N	D	SD
7	Collaborative members generally agree on what needs to be done by the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
8	If the official leaders of this collaborative were no longer present we would still find a way to accomplish our goals.	SA	A	N	D	SD
9	This collaborative puts members' ideas into action.	SA	A	N	D	SD
10	There are members in this collaborative that inspire me.	SA	A	N	D	SD
11	I am able to learn new skills and information from members of this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
12	The members of this collaborative motivate me to do more than I originally expected I would.	SA	A	N	D	SD
13	There is someone in this collaborative that will effectively guide others to perform the necessary tasks to accomplish the collaborative's goals.	SA	A	N	D	SD
14	Collaborative members make certain all the necessary information is available for the collaborative to do its work.	SA	A	N	D	SD

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
15	Collaborative members are able to secure the resources needed by the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
16	All collaborative members have an equal say in decision making.	SA	A	N	D	SD
17	Collaborative members are creative enough to solve difficult problems.	SA	A	N	D	SD
18	This collaborative is organized to effectively accomplish goals.	SA	A	N	D	SD
19	Collaborative meetings are controlled by one individual or group.	SA	A	N	D	SD
20	We celebrate our collaborative's successes.	SA	A	N	D	SD
21	Someone in the collaborative is able to guide discussions to keep us on track.	SA	A	N	D	SD
22	Collaborative members make others want to be a part of the group.	SA	A	N	D	SD
23	Members help each other in this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
24	Collaborative members provide the collaborative with the necessary resources to do its work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
25	I believe I have the opportunity to make a significant contribution to the success of this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
26	Each member has an opportunity to get involved in the work of the collaborative according to their interests.	SA	A	N	D	SD
27	Collaborative goals are communicated to all members.	SA	A	N	D	SD
28	Collaborative members contribute specialized knowledge to help the collaborative do its work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
29	Collaborative members are optimistic.	SA	A	N	D	SD
30	Collaborative members are able to translate the goals of the collaborative into specific objectives.	SA	A	N	D	SD
31	All members have the opportunity to help decide what work will be done by the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
32	This collaborative provides opportunities for members to increase their skills.	SA	A	N	D	SD
33	Representatives of people and groups most affected by the work of the collaborative are active in the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
34	Collaborative members make each other feel important.	SA	A	N	D	SD
35	Collaborative members are able to effectively communicate the work of the collaborative to others outside the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
36	Members contribute the expertise necessary to meet the goal(s) of the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
37	Collaboratives members take initiative in accomplishing the work of the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
38	The expression of differing views is encouraged in this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
39	I want to continue being a part of this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
40	All members participate in making decisions for the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
41	Someone in the collaborative makes sure the needs of group members are met.	SA	A	N	D	SD
42	Collaborative goals are set by the head of the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
43	There is an effective process in place to keep collaborative members well informed of the work of the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
44	Collaborative members are able to provide the information the collaborative needs to do its work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
45	Collaborative members support one another.	SA	A	N	D	SD
46	Each participant contributes a necessary idea, skill, or resource to the work of the collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
47	I believe my ideas are heard and appropriately acted on by the members of this collaborative.	SA	A	N	D	SD
48	All collaborative members have an opportunity to participate in the setting of collaborative goals.	SA	A	N	D	SD
49	This collaborative takes advantage of the diversity and strengths of group members.	SA	A	N	D	SD

50	Someone in the collaborative keeps members focused on the work at hand.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Instructions: Using the codes listed below, circle the numeral which best represents your answer to the following questions about your collaborative. Circle only 1 response per statement. Answer codes: 1 = to a very little extent, 2 = to a little extent, 3 = to some extent, 4 = to a great extent, 5 = to a very great extent.

		very little extent	little extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
51	To what extent are people in your collaborative friendly and easy to approach?	1	2	3	4	5
52	To what extent do people in your collaborative pay attention to what you're saying?	1	2	3	4	5
53	To what extent are people willing to listen to your problems?	1	2	3	4	5
54	To what extent do people in your collaborative encourage people to give their best effort?	1	2	3	4	5
55	To what extent do people in your collaborative maintain high standards for performance?	1	2	3	4	5
56	To what extent do people in your collaborative help you find ways to do a better job?	1	2	3	4	5
57	To what extent do people in your collaborative provide the help you need so that you can plan, organize and schedule work ahead of time?	1	2	3	4	5
58	To what extent do people in your collaborative offer new ideas for solving job-related problems?	1	2	3	4	5
59	To what extent do people in your collaborative encourage its people to work as a team?	1	2	3	4	5
60	To what extent do people in your collaborative emphasize a team goal?	1	2	3	4	5
61	To what extent do people in your collaborative exchange opinions and ideas?	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions: Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you.

62	I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	T	F

63	On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	T	F
64	There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	T	F
65	No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	T	F
66	I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.	T	F
67	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	T	F
68	I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	T	F
69	I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.	T	F
70	I'm always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	T	F
71	I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	T	F
72	There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	T	F
73	I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.	T	F
74	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	T	F

Instructions: Using the codes listed below, circle the numeral which best represents your answer to the following question about various positions/roles in your collaborative. Circle only 1 response per statement. Answer codes: 1 = little or no influence, 2 = Some, 3 = Quite a bit, 4 = a great deal, 5 = a very great deal of influence.

		Little or No Influence	Some	Quite a bit	Great deal	Very great deal of Influence
75	In general, how much say or influence does each of the following groups of people have on what goes on in this collaborative?					
	A. Collaborative Chairperson	1	2	3	4	5
	B. Committee Chairperson/Program Director	1	2	3	4	5
	C. Committee Member	1	2	3	4	5
	D. Collaborative Member	1	2	3	4	5
	E. Yourself	1	2	3	4	5
	F. Collaborative Coordinator	1	2	3	4	5

76	The overall effectiveness of this collaborative can be classified as: (Circle One)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
77	How long have you been a member of this collaborative? (Circle one)	Less than 1 year		1-5 Years		More than 5 years
78	In what county is your collaborative based?	_____				

APPENDIX E

SHARED LEADERSHIP SCALE (ORIGINAL 50 ITEMS)

Shared Leadership Scale (50 items)

1. Information related to the work of the collaborative is shared freely among collaborative members.
2. The membership of this collaborative includes a cross-section of the community.
3. Most important decisions are made in executive session with high level leaders.
4. The people most affected by the decisions of this collaborative have a say in making those decisions. (Includes clients, front-line workers, other agencies)
5. Someone in the collaborative makes sure that the appropriate people take part in decision making.
6. This collaborative provides opportunities for members to use their expertise.
7. Collaborative members generally agree on what needs to be done by the collaborative.
8. If the official leaders of this collaborative were no longer present we would still find a way to accomplish our goals
9. This collaborative puts members' ideas into action.
10. There are members in this collaborative that inspire me.
11. I am able to learn new skills and information from members of this collaborative.
12. The members of this collaborative motivate me to do more than I originally expected I would.
13. There is someone in this collaborative that will effectively guide others to perform the necessary tasks to accomplish the collaborative's goals.
14. Collaborative members make certain all the necessary information is available for the collaborative to do its work.
15. Collaborative members are able to secure the resources needed by the collaborative.

16. All collaborative members have an equal say in decision making.
17. Collaborative members are creative enough to solve difficult problems.
18. This collaborative is organized to effectively accomplish goals.
19. Collaborative meetings are controlled by one individual or group.
20. We celebrate our collaborative's successes.
21. Someone in the collaborative is able to guide discussions to keep us on track.
22. Collaborative members make others want to be a part of the group.
23. Members help each other in this collaborative.
24. Collaborative members provide the collaborative with the necessary resources to do its work.
25. I believe I have the opportunity to make a significant contribution to the success of this collaborative.
26. Each member has an opportunity to get involved in the work of the collaborative according to their interests.
27. Collaborative goals are communicated to all members.
28. Collaborative members contribute specialized knowledge to help the collaborative do its work.
29. Collaborative members are optimistic.
30. Collaborative members are able to translate the goals of the collaborative into specific objectives.
31. All members have the opportunity to help decide what work will be done by the collaborative.
32. This collaborative provides opportunities for members to increase their skills.

33. Representatives of people and groups most affected by the work of the collaborative are active in the collaborative.
34. Collaborative members make each other feel important.
35. Collaborative members are able to effectively communicate the work of the collaborative to others outside the collaborative.
36. Members contribute the expertise necessary to meet the goal(s) of the collaborative.
37. Collaboratives members take initiative in accomplishing the work of the collaborative.
38. The expression of differing views is encouraged in this collaborative.
39. I want to continue being a part of this collaborative.
40. All members participate in making decisions for the collaborative.
41. Someone in the collaborative makes sure the needs of group members are met.
42. Collaborative goals are set by the head of the collaborative.
43. There is an effective process in place to keep collaborative members well informed of the work of the collaborative.
44. Collaborative members are able to provide the information the collaborative needs to do its work.
45. Collaborative members support one another.
46. Each participant contributes a necessary idea, skill, or resource to the work of the collaborative.
47. I believe my ideas are heard and appropriately acted on by the members of this collaborative.
48. All collaborative members have an opportunity to participate in the setting of collaborative goals.

49. This collaborative takes advantage of the diversity and strengths of group members.

50. Someone in the collaborative keeps members focused on the work at hand.

APPENDIX F

SHARED LEADERSHIP SCALE (FINAL 25 ITEMS)

Shared Leadership Scale (Final 25 Items)

1. Information related to the work of the collaborative is shared freely among collaborative members.
2. This collaborative provides opportunities for members to use their expertise.
3. This collaborative puts member's ideas into action.
4. There are members in this collaborative that inspire me.
5. I am able to learn new skills and information from members of this collaborative.
6. The members of this collaborative motivate me to do more than I originally expected I would.
7. There is someone in this collaborative that will effectively guide others to perform the necessary tasks to accomplish the collaborative's goals.
8. Collaborative members are creative enough to solve difficult problems.
9. The collaborative is organized to effectively accomplish goals.
10. We celebrate our collaborative's successes.
11. Someone in the collaborative is able to guide discussions to keep us on track.
12. Collaborative members make others want to be a part of the group.
13. Members help each other in this collaborative.
14. I believe I have the opportunity to make a significant contribution to the success of this collaborative.
15. Each member has an opportunity to get involved in the work of the collaborative according to their interests.
16. Collaborative goals are communicated to all members.

17. Collaborative members contribute specialized knowledge to help the collaborative do its work.
18. Collaborative members are optimistic.
19. Collaborative members are able to translate the goals of the collaborative into specific objectives.
20. All members have the opportunity to help decide what work will be done by the collaborative.
21. The collaborative provides opportunities for members to increase their skills.
22. I want to continue being a part of this collaborative.
23. There is an effective process in place to keep collaborative members well-informed of the work of the collaborative.
24. I believe my ideas are heard and appropriately acted on by members of this collaborative.
25. Someone in the collaborative keeps members focused on the work at hand.