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THE LEADERSHIP METRO RICHMOND PROGRAM: ITS EFFECT

ON INTERPERSONAL NETWORKS AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL

MEMBERSHIPS

by

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THE PROBLEM

Description of the Situation

As cities strive to meet the multiple demands of a plural-
istic society, one available resource is an informed and involved
community leadership. Adult educators have a unique opportunity to
increase the capabilities of identified emerging leaders by encourag-
ing them to develop interpersonal networks of communication and un-
derstanding of the economic, governmental, and educational entities
of the metropolitan area. A leadership development program can
train leaders in problem-solving techniques and decision-making
processes that will enable them to act as catalysts in the commu-
nity and to encourage interactions among the various segments of
the community. There is also a need for community leaders to under-
stand the dynamics of the community and to make a commitment to seek
solutions to the problems of the metropolitan area. The still un-
answered question is whether adult educators can develop leadership
programs that will enable emerging leaders to form linkages of
awareness and cooperation and to take a more active role in commu-
nity affairs.

Richmond, Virginia is one city that has attempted to train
identified leaders to solve community problems. Like many other
metropolitan areas, Richmond was faced with many problems. One

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concern was racial divisiveness. A growing black presence in the
political and governmental bodies of the city was resisted by the
former white majority who once controlled the economic and polit-
ical life of the city. A second problem was the tensions between
city and county residents. This was manifested in white flight to
the surrounding counties where there is a lower tax rate than that
paid by city residents. This is a point of friction in a city
faced with the rising costs of caring for the aged, the sick, and
the poor while affluent young families whose economic livelihood
is in Richmond choose to live outside the city limits. Such ten-
sions are expressed by city residents who resent the fact that
county residents who work in Richmond share little of the cost of
maintaining city streets, police protection, or water treatment
facilities. These problems are further exacerbated and the cost
of public utilities accelerated because city and county jurisdic-
tions are separate, resulting in overlapping public facilities
located in both the city and the adjoining counties.

Another problem is that the jurisdictions that govern the
city and the adjoining counties—the Richmond City Council, the
Henrico Board of Supervisors, the Chesterfield Board of Super-
visors, and the Hanover Board of Supervisors—are elected posi-
tions. No member of any of the boards openly espouses regional
cooperation to his or her constituents, who would view such a
stance with alarm. A further point of discord is that the Richmond
City Council functions under the guidance of a black mayor and a

black majority on Council. All members of the three adjoining county boards of supervisors are white. Until the last ten years the boards of both city and county jurisdictions were all white. White constituents who live in the city feel that now black Council persons are forcing measures favorable to blacks such as black economic development, minority business laws through the Council. City white residents also resent the fact that the counties seem to have none of these problems.

Yet another concern was that the urban poor, most of whom are black, have lost the support of broad federal aid programs at the same time that banks, corporations, and retail establishments are attempting to revive the inner core of the city and now are faced with added demands for financial aid for the needy within the city. Another aspect of that problem is that economic development in the inner city tends to push the urban poor out of old housing and into new ghettos of poverty on the periphery of the developing downtown area. Economic development which encourages the construction of new bank buildings and city parks has yet another detrimental effect, besides engulfing the residential space of the urban poor. It also removes the last vestiges of parking on downtown streets for an increasing number of cars and trucks that service the new urban development.

Despite these problems between the races and between city and county residents, there are encouraging areas of cooperation. Economic development, for example, is being addressed by a biracial

civic organization, Richmond Renaissance, attempting to focus on
the concerns of all citizens who live in the metropolitan area.
The board, made up of fifty percent black and fifty percent white
members, is promoting tourism in the area and has developed the
Sixth Street Marketplace, a recreational and retail area with small
shops and boutiques that, it is hoped, will lure residents back
to the inner city for shopping and recreation. At the same time
Richmond Renaissance is making available to black entrepreneurs the
opportunity to become a viable part of the revitalization of the
downtown area. The Metropolitan Richmond Chamber of Commerce is
also cooperating with economic development in both the downtown
area and the metropolitan region as well as through such programs
as the Metropolitan Economic Development Council, a summer jobs for
youth program, and "Businesses Who Care," which encourages busi-
nesses in the area to help meet the needs of the sick, the elderly,
and the poor.

Two concrete examples of regional cooperation are a new
regional airport and a multimillion dollar baseball diamond. Both
facilities are the result of civic insistence on better public
services. The airport has long been a source of contention for
citizens of both the city and the counties who deplore the lack of
first-rate air transportation to major business markets. The prob-
lem was that Chesterfield County had its own airport and refused to
support a larger regional facility. With the formation of the
Capital Area Regional Airport Commission with members serving from

all jurisdictions, the question was resolved. "The Diamond," on the other hand, was not the work of a government body, but rather the dream of a single businessman who wanted the area to have an excellent baseball field, and who was able to garner support from all jurisdictions.

Public officials are also beginning to speak out for regional cooperation. Mayor Roy A. West, speaking in April 1986 before the Governor's Commission on Transportation on the transportation needs of the Richmond area, declared, "The needs of the city can no longer be separated from those of its suburban areas." Echoing the same notion, Paul Ellsworth, president of the Metropolitan Richmond Chamber of Commerce, said that "the metropolitan area must be considered a single marketplace."

Still further evidence of regional cooperation is that city and county managers hold regularly scheduled meetings to discuss their common regional problems. Unlike the elected city council members and boards of supervisors members from the three surrounding counties, whose voter appeal is based largely on a separatist view of city and county affairs, the managers are pragmatists who understand that water treatment facilities, for example, observe no city or county lines but rather are a regional concern. Transportation, roads, police protection are other areas where the managers are beginning to work together. Such encouraging areas of cooperation point the way to even broader based coordination among the factions who live together in the metropolitan area.

Aware of the needs of the community for cooperation, Thomas J. Billey, Jr., a former mayor of Richmond and currently Third District Congressman, in 1980 called together a group of public-minded citizens, who were both black and white, male and female, city and county residents, to establish Leadership Metro Richmond, a program designed "to help develop the leadership potential existing in our community" (Leadership Metro Richmond Directory, 1983, p. 3). The Richmond program, an annual leadership development program modeled after over two hundred similar community development programs operating successfully in other metropolitan areas, incorporates the following objectives: (1) to identify and select emerging community leaders for the program; (2) to execute an educational program which includes public affairs education, leadership skills training, and experiential and participatory interaction; and (3) to encourage continued commitment to community needs as individuals and through an alumni group and other community organizational memberships.

Leadership Metro Richmond was begun by the Metropolitan Richmond Chamber of Commerce and is housed in Chamber headquarters with its own executive director who manages the program. It is funded by The Metropolitan Foundation, is self-sustaining through tuitions, scholarships, and corporate support, and is governed by a board of directors drawn from the community at large.

Participation in the program is open to the entire metropolitan community and announcements of the dates and the selection process are publicized through the media. Participants for the

program are chosen by a selection committee of the board on the basis of the following criteria: (1) commitment and interest to serve the community; (2) demonstrated commitment by past community involvement; (3) interest in seeking political, governmental, and volunteer leadership roles; and (4) representativeness of the diversity of the metropolitan area including race, sex, occupation, and residence.

The program consists of three major parts: First, public affairs education is acquired in face to face discussions with present community leaders and a variety of experts from local organizations and institutions. This interaction provides participants with an unusual opportunity to learn the dynamics of the social, political, and economic changes affecting community life. The ten-month leadership development program begins with a two-day orientation retreat in September followed by nine day-long seminars October through June on public issues. At each of the monthly seminars participants are challenged to increase their knowledge of the interrelationships and the complexities of the metropolitan community.

Second, leadership skills training includes the development of both group and personal skills through workshops on group dynamics, conflict management, and decision-making.

Third, experiential and participatory interaction involves the selection by participants of a public issue on which he or she wishes to concentrate for the duration of the program. Public issues include race, regionalism, business, quality of life, public safety,

education, power systems within the community, Richmond today and
the future. Program committees then plan and execute one of the
nine day-long seminars on a specific issue. Through this inter-
active process, participants become involved in problem-solving
dialogue as well as studying in depth a community issue, thereby
gaining new insights and perspectives.

The outcome of participatory interaction is that almost im-
mediately after the program begins, interpersonal networks are formed
among the program participants, as seen in the survey research. The
program is structured so that each small program planning committee
includes black and white, male and female, city and county residents.
The committee then becomes a microcosm of the larger macro-community
in which these leaders will be reacting in future years. Issues such
as race and regionalism are discussed in a safe, trusting environment
where participants feel free to share divergent views with one another.
The program allows persons of different views to discuss opposing
ideas without reprisal. Persons already identified as community
leaders become aware of difference of opinion on issues of common
concern. In participatory interaction across the contingencies of
race and gender, an opportunity is created for individuals to form
linkages with persons in the community who under normal conditions
they may never have known and to debate public issues in a non-
threatening and learning environment. The intended outcome of the
formation of interpersonal networks during the ten-month educative
experience is that the networks will continue after the completion

of the program. The networking process is generic to the Leadership Metro Richmond program and to other leadership programs built on this model throughout the country. The process seems to be the distinguishing feature that sets this program apart from earlier leadership development programs.

Now in its seventh year of operation, Leadership Metro Richmond has graduated six classes of approximately three hundred individuals. These identified emerging leaders have had an opportunity to serve the metropolitan area after the completion of the leadership training class. An assessment of this population may reveal if the intended outcomes of the program--formation and maintenance of interpersonal networks across the contingencies of race and gender--did occur.

A second aspect of the program will also be addressed. That is, does a short leadership development program encourage community leaders to become more involved in community affairs through membership in community organizations?

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study was twofold.

1. Generally, what networks were developed and maintained as a result of the Leadership Metro Richmond program? Several subquestions were also investigated.

(a) What networks were in place prior to the Leadership program? What networks developed during the program and what was the duration after the completion of the program?

(b) What was the association of race and gender with the formation and maintenance of networks?

(c) What types of networks were most frequently formed? Were the networks business networks, community networks, or social networks?

(d) Do the networks formed in a leadership development program extend beyond the contact with other participants in the same class to the friends of participants?

(e) Were the networks formed during the program strong ties or weak ties?

2. What was the effect of participation in Leadership Metro Richmond on community organizational memberships? Specific subquestions were investigated.

(a) What organizational memberships of program participants were in place before the program began and did they change during the program? Did organizational memberships change after the completion of the program?

(b) Were the demographics of race and gender associated with organizational memberships?

(c) Did the organizatonal memberships of participants shift to memberships that addressed issues studied during the program?

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were threefold:

1. To investigate what interpersonal networks were set in motion during and after a short leadership training program;

2. To determine how the network structure was used by program participants in community organizational memberships both during and after the completion of the program, and

3. To study the contingencies of race and gender as they relate to the origin, nature, and continuance of interpersonal networks and community organizational memberships.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is twofold: First, the program has been assessed by tracing what networks were formed during and after the program and what changes occurred in participant organizational memberships during and after the program. This longitudinal study which examines data across time in four leadership development programs traces changes as they occur. The quantitative data has been supported by qualitative data on interpersonal contact and community organizational memberships in standardized interviews with randomly selected participants.

Secondly, this evaluation study suggests that the use of network analysis as a means of assessing the outcomes of a community leadership development program may be a more valuable methodology than the usual criteria of participant satisfaction and course content. Since it is a common assumption that "community problem solving is an educational process through which citizens exercise their responsibility for the quality of their community (Stubblefield, 1981, p. 11), network analysis, as assessment, can indicate whether positive and effective problem solving did occur.

The significance of the study, then, is that it suggests a different methodology for evaluating the outcome of a leadership development program. The goal of Leadership Metro Richmond is to develop a community leadership that will act in concert to solve community problems, but community leaders need to know how effective are their efforts to bring about positive change, and when and if change actually occurs. A network analysis of interpersonal contacts and community organizational memberships may be the vehicle to report the outcome of community problem solving.

Definitions of Terms

In order to clarify the meaning of the key concepts used in this study, the following definitions are listed.

1. Social network: a specific set of linkages among a defined set of individuals. The concept subsumes the notions of multiple interconnections and chain reactions. Multiple interconnections not only connotes links between persons but also indicates the further linkage of the links themselves. Chain reactions connote that reactions between links also affect adjacent links.

2. Network analysis: a methodology that uses the characteristics of the linkages as a whole to interpret the social behavior of the individuals involved.

3. Contact in a network: a state of communication between two individuals. The notion subsumes the concept of a relationship and interaction between two individuals.

4. Second order contact: a state of communication between two individuals who are friends or relations of the first order contacts.

5. Bridge: "a line in a network which provides the only path between two individuals" (Granovetter, 1973, p. 1364).

6. Leadership development training: a specialized arm of community development education that takes identified, emerging leaders in the community and uses principles of adult education and involves current community leaders as learning resources to help emerging leaders become better informed and more involved citizens.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations of the study are noted:

(a) This study recognizes the difficulties of precise network analysis because of small samples. A problem with dealing with a population of 181 persons is that some categories in the study may be five or less, resulting in an overrepresentation of results. Another problem is inherent in survey research. That is, that participants report imprecise answers to questions, resulting in imprecise measurements. Finally, in research which involves all members of a population who received a treatment--leadership training--there is no opportunity to compare the results with a control group who did not take the leadership training program.

(b) Caution should be taken to generalize the findings of this study to other populations. This study has been conducted on 181 individuals living in a medium-sized city in the southeastern

part of the United States. Conditions in this area do not apply to all cities. However, the program is modeled on a general format used by 260 leadership development programs in the United States in small, medium, and large metropolitan areas.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature on community leadership programs, the evaluation of community leadership programs, and to develop a conceptual framework for this present study. This chapter includes (1) a review of general leadership theory and its relation to community leadership development, (2) an overview of existing community leadership programs, and (3) a review of evaluation theory as it relates to the assessment of community leadership programs, and (4) a presentation of the conceptual framework that provides the basis for the present study and suggests a new method for the assessment of a leadership training program.

Leadership Theory

This study begins with a review of the development of general leadership theory in order to describe and clarify the relationship of general leadership concepts with community leadership development.

The question of leadership has fascinated man from the earliest days of recorded history. What qualities of personality or mind, what specific behaviors identify a leader? Academicians are still asking today, but there are no convincing answers or proven empirical data. Pfeffer (1977) addressed the question of the ambiguity of the term and suggested that there is ambiguity in the definition,

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the measurement, and the research findings of leadership. As early as 1959 Bennis summarized the progress of leadership research to that date when he stated that "more has been written and less known about leadership than any other topic in the behavioral sciences" (p. 259).

The first approach to leadership theory was the trait theory. The major impetus for relating the behavioral sciences to leadership development came during World War I, and later during World War II, when the problem of officer selection and placement was of prime importance to the country. Social scientists hoped that by testing, and the use of statistical tools, it would be possible to discover traits common to leaders. It was thought that qualitative components that make up leadership were consistent and could be identified (Napier, 1973). Empirical evidence proved disappointing and no cluster of traits was identified that related to leadership. There is some evidence to show that persons who are intelligent, visible, and self-assured do seem to assume leadership roles, but these traits are not always conducive to leadership roles.

A second approach considered the behavior of a leader. When it became apparent that effective leadership had no distinguishing traits, researchers attempted to discover what it was that effective leaders did. Studies by Bales (1958), McGregor (1960) did identify leader-member behaviors. They were task-related or problem-solving functions and relationship or social functions. These same leadership functions were associated with two leadership styles: task

oriented style and a relationship-oriented style. The task-oriented leader was concerned with getting the task done with little concern for feelings. The relationship-oriented leader was concerned with the feelings of the group more than with getting the task completed.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) were among the first theorists to name factors that influenced a leader's choice of leadership styles. They suggested three factors which determined leadership style. They were the personal characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of the group, and the situation. This third approach to leadership was situational. The difficulty of trying to determine leadership traits or leadership behaviors influenced researchers to study what situational variables caused one leadership style to be more effective than another. Blake and Mouton, 1964, and Hersey and Blanchard, 1976 listed a number of situational variables which included the leader's personality and past experience, the expectations and the behavior of the group, the task requirements and organizational climate.

Recently theorists have developed a contingency approach to leadership research. This method identified what situational factor was most important and predicted what leadership style would be most effective in a given situation. Fiedler (1976) used the contingency approach and he determined what was the leader's predominant style and then matched the leader to the situation. He did not think a leader could change his style. Vroom (1976), on the other hand, disagreed. He thought that the leader can learn to adjust leader-

ship style to the situation. The general conclusion among re-
searchers (Stoner, 1982), and Napier, 1973) is that no one leader-
ship style is best. Groups working on different tasks need dif-
ferent kinds of leadership.

Community Leadership Theory

When identifying community leadership development, many of
the themes generated in general leadership theory apply, but with
basic differences. In contrast to focusing on the organization and
its goals, community leadership is concerned with the community, with
community development and with educating identified community leaders
to become better informed and to take a more active role in the life
of the community.

Community may be defined as "a group of people bonded together
with common historical, social, economic, and political interests"
(Hand and Sellen, 1979, p. 114). The importance of the community
as educator was voiced early in the century by adult educator J. K.
Hart (1927), when he said, "The community does educate!" (p. 294).
He viewed the diverse processes, institutions, and peoples of the
community as the focus for community education and as the impetus
for community change. Community development, then, may be defined
as an educational process that "implies planned, purposeful attempts
to respond positively to change" (Stubblefield, 1981, p. 14). Com-
munity leadership development is an educational process which trains
identified community leaders to respond effectively to change and
to develop techniques for community problem solving.

Throughout the community development literature three themes emerge that apply to community leadership development. The first is that the community is the focus of community leadership training. Knowles (1977, p. 155) underlined Hart's earlier writings when he declared that increasingly adult educators see total communities "as laboratories for learning" and as the basis for community problem solving. Knowles (1977) again reemphasized the importance of the total community as the basis for community problem solving when he said, "The mission of adult education is to develop a total environment conducive to human growth and fulfillment—an educative community" (p. 34).

Several basic assumptions underlie the use of the total community as the starting point for community development as well as community leadership training. They are that (1) individuals have a right to participate in the decisions that affect their lives, and (2) that participatory democracy is the preferred way to conduct community problem solving (Littrell, 1977).

Koneya (1978) warned that adult educators have to be aware that citizen participation is not community development. Too often he found that government programs, for example, dictated that a certain number of citizens be involved in community problem solving. He said that the critical point is that it is the government that decides to include citizens in a program. Community development, on the other hand, is a "citizen-originated activity that organizes and uses citizen power to reach upward toward government" (p. 25).

A second theme that is consistent throughout the community development literature is that community development is an educational process. The community as educator has a history as old as the country itself (Knowles, 1977; Knox, 1977). Beginning with Franklin's Junto, a discussion club to debate the moral and political issues of the community, to the 19th Century Lyceum Movement which emphasized the improvement of the public schools as its major focus, Americans have viewed their community and its problems as a subject for discussion and action. As early as 1926, pioneer educator Eduard C. Lindeman correlated education and community development when he defined adult education as "a technique of learning for adults which makes education coterminous with life and hence elevates life itself to the level of adventurous experiment" (cited in Gessner, 1956, p. 160).

In this milieu in which the community and its problems are the basis for change, Stubblefield (1981) pointed out the unique role of the adult educator. Citizen groups seeking change need to understand and apply principals of adult education by collecting data, studying alternate positions, and planning and implementing a program to obtain these goals. Stubblefield also acknowledged the position of the adult educator both as a facilitator of change and also as a member of the community involved in the process of change.

The third theme emphasized in both community development and community leadership theory is that community education is action oriented. Both Knox (1977) and Knowles (1977) advocated an expanded

role for the adult educator which goes beyond educating community leaders to understand community problems, but which also helps them to diagnose strategies to bring about change and to plan an effective methodology for accomplishing the desired results. Howard Y. McCluskey (1960) viewed this role of community development as vital. Said he:

> "The adult educator is primarily interested in community development as a means of educating the community and the people who live there. . . . At the same time it is also possible to learn about how the community is put together and the methods by which it may achieve its goals. These are the process and contextual learnings of community development. Both kinds can be fruitful; but it is the second kind which is currently most neglected by other forms of adult education, and to which community development can make a unique contribution" (p. 419).

Current Community Leadership Programs

Although there are many approaches to community leadership development, this researcher has selected five programs which incorporated the major themes of community leadership development but which approached the problem in different ways. These programs range from three years to several months in duration. One encompassed an entire state, and two focused on small, rural areas. Another program was designed to develop a particular leadership skill, citizen participation in the political process, and one focused on developing volunteer leadership. All the programs had one element in common, and that was an experiential, participatory approach to community leadership development. Participants took part in community projects and thereby learned by becoming involved in the life of the community. Second, all five programs were educational programs whether structured

with an adult educator, or whether they were self-help programs, and third, all were action oriented. Each of the programs was based on the premise that community education leads to community action.

Montana Program

Of the five programs surveyed, the longest and most intensive training was the Montana State University program initiated in 1971 with funding from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and the Agricultural Experiment Station, Montana State University (Williams and Faulkner, 1979). The program objective was to increase the capability of Montana's present and future leaders to participate in local, state, and international decision-making and problem-solving processes.

To achieve these objectives, the project directors designed four training programs ranging in intensity from a one-week workshop to a study-travel program of four weeks duration per year for a period of three years. Each training group consisted of approximately thirty participants selected from throughout the state of Montana. Criteria for selection was (1) participants should represent all geographic areas in the state, and (2) participants should exhibit a potential for leadership as evidenced by past involvement in community or local organizations.

The program included four variations which were evaluated using the "recurrent institutional design" (Campbell and Stanley, 1964). The three year study group included three weeks of study at the Montana State University campus plus one week of travel each year for a period of three years. Participants visited state, national,

and international development programs all three years. A second
group studied at the university for two weeks each year, visited
state and local programs, but did no international traveling. Fresh-
men workshops for other Montana leaders were conducted each year on
campus for a group of thirty participants. Graduates of the Fresh-
men workshops were invited to enroll in a second week of training
the next year called Sophomore or conflict workshops.

Respondents in all four program groups reported positive changes
in their leadership self-images, greater involvement in roles requiring
leadership skills, and greater effectiveness in roles requiring leader-
ship skills. In most cases, participants in the longer and more inten-
sive development programs indicated more positive change than those
in the shorter, less intensive programs.

Williams (1981) made three conclusions about the training pro-
grams: (1) the one week training effort is less effective than the
longer programs; (2) programs that include both classroom study and
on-site travel are more successful than those that do not; and (3)
the most effective program content involves emerging leaders in state
and international programs rather than only local projects.

A basic assumption of the program was that leadership is a
behavior pattern which can be taught by exposing participants to new
knowledge and then providing them with an opportunity to apply the
new knowledge in problem solving situations (Williams, 1981).

Early in the training, participants received training in com-
munication, group dynamics, interpersonal relations, decision-making

and conflict management. In addition, a variety of group building
exercises were conducted to reinforce a sense of an open atmosphere
and commitment. Each participant was assigned to one of several
committees and committee assignments were rotated annually.

In the study-travel program committees of participants selected
the subjects for the topics for the on-campus seminars and another
committee selected the topics and sites for the traveling seminars.
The program also provided feedback and coaching curriculum components,
as well as content on cognitive, process, and problem solving skills.
Travel to ongoing development programs was also an effective method
of experiential learning. The only drawback assessed for the program
was its high cost for the variations of the program which included
travel, coaching, and feedback.

United Way of America Program

Alike in its emphasis on participatory interaction as an
approach to community leadership development, the United Way of
America's Community Leadership Development Program differs from the
Montana program in the length of the program. Instead of operating
with four variations lasting from one week to three years, the
United Way program is of several months duration, and its
participants are selected from a local United Way city rather than
an entire state (Plambeck, 1981).

Faced with the constant need for "new blood" (p. 53) on non-
profit community agency boards, United Way developed an educational
program based on participation and problem-solving, rather than a

traditional classroom approach. The study included class sessions
on problem analysis and problem-solving through community action
interspersed with field work to provide interaction with the commu-
nity and to encourage the initiation and implementation of action
programs.

In the field work portion of the program, participants were
assigned to a team of five or six individuals who then selected a
work project in a specific community area such as social services,
housing, transportation, law enforcement. Critical to the success
of the program was the assignment of current community leaders to
serve as sources of information. They provided background on the
problem, and access to other community leaders in the area.

Georgia Power Company

Instead of focusing on urban areas or an entire state, the
Georgia Power Company project, Tomorrow's Leaders, and the Southern
Rural Development Center, Training for Rural Development, are two
programs that have been initiated to train community leaders in rural
areas. Although the scope of the two programs is less intensive and
the time frame shorter than the Montana and United Way training, these
two programs also incorporated adult education principles of partici-
patory, experiential interaction and provided the program participants
access to the current community leadership.

Started by the Community Development Department of the utility
company, Tomorrow's Leaders began in 1978. As a major business en-
tity in the area, the utility company was aware that "the Southeastern

United States is forecasted to be the fastest growing section of the nation" and "that more informed local leaders will be needed to capitalize on this bright potential" (Tomorrow's Leaders, 1980, Introduction).

The goal of the program was to create opportunities that gave local citizens a chance to understand the community and to develop into effective community leaders. It also provided existing business and community leaders the opportunity to sponsor a candidate for the program. The program was managed by the local chamber of commerce, city and county governments, and area planning and development commissions and was adopted as an ongoing program. Georgia Power's community development staff and local management assisted participating communities in coordinating the program.

Tomorrow's Leaders program lasted approximately six weeks and included three seminar sessions: a clinic, community awareness sessions, and a recognition event. The clinic usually consisted of two three-hour sessions in which Georgia leaders and educators discussed the community, its present and future. Community awareness sessions were designed to familiarize the participants with the organizations that existed in the area. The final session was a recognition event which involved a large cross section of the community's existing leadership, at which time sponsors and participants were recognized.

In preparation for the leadership sessions of the program, the participants completed four assignments: (1) attendance at city and county governmental bodies; (2) a survey of selected leaders in

the area; (3) the completion of a Certified City Application, and
(4) a study of materials on leadership and community leadership in
a manual provided by Georgia Power. A final session of Tomorrow's
Leaders was a placement meeting when both participants and sponsors
make specific plans how program graduates may serve in community
leadership roles.

Training for Rural Development

Training for Rural Development, prepared by the Project
Development Network of the Southern Rural Development Center,
shared similar principles of adult education with the three
projects already surveyed. The program emphasized participatory
interaction between the citizens and the community, and it provided
opportunities for current and future leadership to meet. However,
this program was not a specific educational experience in which
community leaders studied and investigated their communities.
Rather, it was a manual which detailed for rural communities
specific steps for identifying needs and community problem-solving.

The manual underscored the necessity for rural development by
by stating "today some 55 million Americans live in the rural, non-
metropolitan areas of the country. Ten million of these live in
towns or villages of less than 2,500" (Training for Rural Develop-
ment, 1980, p. 4). Some of these growing areas have experienced
population and economic expansion problems. Others are faced with
unemployment, inadequate training, and rising costs for government
and local services.

The manual stressed the importance of "local citizens solving local problems" (p. 4). This philosophy was underscored by four guiding principles: (1) people decide what they want or need; (2) they determine the action necessary to get it; (3) they gather available resources; and (4) they work together to achieve their goal.

Techniques and procedures were outlined which included identifying need, defining need, choosing among alternate plans, developing and implementing an action plan, and evaluating results.

Citizen Education for Effective Involvement

Although the Citizen Education for Effective Involvement Program incorporated the same principles of participatory interaction and the philosophy of "the community as educator" as did the previous projects reported, it differed in that it trained community leaders in one specific competency. Its objective was to help citizen groups develop the proficiencies needed for effective action (Dale, 1978).

Duane Dale and staff trainers with backgrounds in community development and citizen-based planning developed a manual, How to Make Citizen Involvement Work: Strategies for Developing Clout, and conducted workshops for over 300 citizen groups. Their focus was to train leaders who are attempting to shape public policy.

Through an entry interview and a needs-assessment questionnaire, Citizen Involvement Training Project (CITP) identified needs of local policymakers which included the ability to: (1) conduct fund raising and manage finances, (2) hold effective meetings, (3) develop innovative and effective programs, (4) stay in touch with

community needs and preferences, (5) recruit and maintain member-
ship, (6) develop strategies for achieving community and organiza-
tional goals, (7) promote the organization and its goals through
mass media and other means, and (8) establish ongoing educational
activities, including orientation sessions for new members (Dale,
1981).

Dale and his associates discovered that what most groups sur-
veyed wanted was "process knowledge" (p. 42). They developed a step-
by-step strategy for planning meetings and seeking financial support.
They worked with the groups as resource persons and sought to involve
the groups in making their own plans rather than having the trainer
apply his professional skills directly. As in the other four train-
ing programs research, Dale viewed the role of the educator as
problem-solving facilitator whose concern is "to develop the client
group's ability to identify, and analyze problems, explore possible
solutions, make choices and put decisions into action" (p. 45).

Because the CITP is a small organization, the staff spent
time training persons within the client groups to become the ongoing
facilitators for each group. This approach was directed toward the
CITP goal of having each client group continue to utilize the proce-
dures taught by the CITP staff. A method by which CITP encouraged
citizen groups to continue self-directed learning was to publish a
set of manuals that present learning activities, worksheets, plan-
ning guides, background discussions, and resource lists.

Of the five programs surveyed, the United Way of America's training program more nearly addressed the three adult education themes listed by the researcher as necessary for a successful community leadership development program. The program was a participatory, interactive program, in which present and emerging leaders worked together on a community project; it was a learning experience based on adult education principles of learning by doing, and it was an action-oriented learning experience.

Evaluation of Community Leadership Programs

The evaluation of any type of educational program has been the subject of disagreement among educators. Robert E. Stake (1967) underlined the basic problem when he said, "Educators differ among themselves as to both the essence and the worth of an educational program" (p. 43). The problem is compounded when the educational program to be evaluated is a temporary educative system such as a community leadership development program. Nonetheless, short educative programs are a common phenomenon in adult education when conferences, workshops, seminars bring a number of participants together for an intensive training period of a few weeks or several months. Dickinson and Lamoureaux (1975) claimed that the evaluation of such programs is "usually limited to an assessment of participant satisfaction, or, in some instances, a measure of cognitive achievement" (p. 81). Further, they said that the changes in participants that are expected to result from the short educative

program are infrequently specified and that little theory has been developed to facilitate the evaluation process.

Of the five leadership development programs surveyed, evaluations ranged from assessments over a period of several years to no evaluation at all. The longest and most comprehensive evaluation was the Montana State-Kellogg Leadership Development Program assessment, which took place over an eight-year period and which involved evaluation of the three variations of the program: (1) a one-week training at the university campus, (2) a two-year study travel program, and (3) a three-year study travel program.

Acknowledging the difficulty of measuring leadership, the Montana evaluators agreed on the Vroom (1976) definition of leadership which says that leadership is a relationship one develops with a potential followship and that, to be effective, a leader must tailor his or her behavior to fit the specific leadership situation. Williams (1981) suggests that there are subjective factors and objective skills that enable a potential leader to effectively mobilize a followship. The Montana State evaluation purported to measure these indicators pre-program and post-program. The theoretical basis for the measurement of subjective factors such as self-image was suggested by Merton's (1968) research which stresses the importance of self-image in influencing behavior. According to this view, one must have an image of oneself as an effective leader before one can actually become an effective leader. The measures were the

participants' self-assessment of their leadership skills, abilities, and images.

Second, behavioral measures were used to evaluate participants' subsequent leadership activities. These objective measures provided an indication of the impact of the program on participant behaviors. On both pre- and post-test questionnaires, respondents were asked to indicate the organizations to which they belonged, how frequently they attended meetings, and if they held leadership positions in their organizations. Also included, as a behavioral indicator, was an Extra-Local Linkage Scale, an indicator of the amount of communication or linkage among local community leaders and leaders of state or national level organizations.

The evaluation team concluded that participants reported positive changes in leadership self-image and greater effectiveness in leadership activities. The one-week training sessions were not as effective as the longer two and three year variations of the design. The travel component of two variations seemed to have a positive effect on leadership indicators, but international travel did not seem to be any more effective than on-site visits to other community development programs.

United Way of America

Since the United Way of America leadership development program was based in part on teams of emerging and current community leadership working together to accomplish a community project, the actual achievement of community projects was used as an indicator of the

program's value. In addition, both formative and summary evaluations of the program were conducted by evaluation teams.

The formative evaluations revealed both strengths and weaknesses of the program. The three strengths were these: (1) participants increased management and decision-making skills and developed a better understanding of their community; (2) the interaction of participants with the current community leadership in field work teams allowed the emerging leaders access to the current leadership; (3) the participants had an opportunity to do something for the community as a community volunteer. Three deficiencies in the program were these: (1) some projects were too big for the time allotted; (2) participants needed more time for field work; and (3) teams needed to learn more about team process and decision making (Plambeck, 1981). A summary evaluation was conducted also through pre-post tests. A questionnaire was administered before the program began and at the conclusion of the program. On the post-test, participants scored significantly higher on the knowledge of the community than they did on the pre-test. Continued commitment to the community and to the group is encouraged through an alumni group and the formation of a network of new and current community leaders.

Plambeck noted an unexpected result of the program was that the present community leadership became more involved in the program than was anticipated. Many attended all sessions of the program, not just the ones in which they were asked to take part.

Their attendance increased their own commitment to the program and provided continuity to the program.

Rural Development Programs

Two of the programs surveyed, the Southern Rural Development Center's "Training for Rural Development" and Georgia Power and Light's "Tomorrow's Leaders" were presented in manuals which were designed to help small and rural communities design leadership programs. Of the two programs, the Southern Rural Development Center's manual included the most extensive evaluation component. The manual suggested that rural development evaluators, whether self-evaluators or outside evaluators, ask the question, "Is the community any better off?" (p. 36). To answer this question, evaluators will have to assess the impact of the project on the total community and relate the goals and objectives of the program to the goals of the community.

The final step in rural development evaluation was that the group record its findings. This was the only evaluation of the five surveyed that stressed the importance of recording evaluation information for use by a later evaluation team.

The Georgia Power and Light's manual, "Tomorrow's Leaders," assessed its leadership development program with a single sheet of evaluation, a participant pen and pencil evaluation of satisfaction with the components of the program. No attempt was made to relate the goals of the program to the goals of the larger community in which the program took place.

Citizen Education

The CITP, a program to help citizen groups to develop the proficiencies needed for effective action, had no evaluation component. Implied was the notion that the evaluation of the program was in the demonstrated effectiveness of citizen groups to accomplish their goals and objectives through the legislative process.

In summary, the evaluation of the five leadership development programs surveyed illustrates the wide variance of evaluation techniques for leadership development programs as well as the need for more uniform evaluation instruments. The variation in evaluation techniques makes comparisons between community leadership programs difficult to assess.

Network Analysis as a Method of Assessment

As a method of evaluating community leadership programs, network analysis seems to be a valid method of assessment. The use of the term "social network" to represent a complex set of interrelationships in a social system has had a long history (Mitchell, 1969, Barnes, 1972). Radcliffe-Brown (1940) wrote that "direct observation does reveal to us that human beings are connected by a complex network of social relations. I use the term 'social structure' to denote this network of actually existing relations" (p. 2). This 1940 definition of social networks included two fundamental properties of networks, multiple interconnections and chain reactions.

Mitchell (1969) regarded the Radcliffe-Brown definition of networks as little more than a useful metaphor, and defined a social

network "as a specific set of linkages among a defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these link- ages as a whole may be used to interpret the social behavior of the persons involved" (p. 2). Mitchell concluded that the Radcliffe- Brown use of the term "social network" described the interconnec- tions of social relationships but did not define the specific properties of these interconnections.

A more recent theorist, Granovetter (1973), argued that the analysis of interpersonal social networks is a useful tool to relate macro and micro levels of sociological theory as well as diffusion of influence and information, mobility opportunity, and community cohesion. He claimed that sociologists have studied large macro phenomena such as social mobility and community organizations and have studied small groups at the micro level, but that little theory has been developed to link micro and macro phenomena.

Granovetter said that analysis of interpersonal networks can provide a link between small group interaction and the larger macro community, and he stressed "the cohesive power of weak ties" (p. 1360). Strong ties among small groups restrict diffusion of information and opportunity. Weak ties among groups afford opportunity for exchange of opportunity and new information. Granovetter concluded that "what- ever is to be diffused can reach a larger number of people and traverse greater social distance when passed through weak ties rather than strong" (p. 1366).

Granovetter enlarged his argument of "the strength of weak ties" beyond personal mobility and information-sharing to a community perspective. He questioned why some communities are able to act in concert for common goals, and other communities are unable to mobilize their resources to meet common needs. He suggested "that the more local bridges per person in a community and the greater their length, the more cohesive the community and the more capable of acting in concert" (p. 1376). He defined a bridge as a "line in a network which provides the only path between two points" (p. 1364).

The concept of weak ties among diverse groups as a method of developing community cohesion has already been addressed by Freire (1970) when he advocated that community organizers need to establish conditions that place diverse individuals in collaboration rather than at odds. Gondolf (1980) concurred with the Freire philosophy, adding that "when critically questioning together the essentials of their lives, individuals are inclined to recognize their relation to the community at large" (p. 34).

Small World Research

One diffusion study that supported Granovetter's concept was Stanley Milgram's (1967) small world research. In this study Milgram asked individuals living in the midwest to send a message back to a target person in Cambridge, Massachusetts, whose only identity the sender knew was the individual's name, occupation, and location. The goal was to investigate what network structure was necessary for

two strangers to make contact. The sender was asked to categorize
each intermediary in the networks as friend or acquaintance. When
the message was sent to an acquaintance rather than a friend, the
card was more apt to be sent on to the next intermediary, especially
if the original sender sent the message to a person of another race.

Korte and Milgram (1970) expanded their research on the small
world method to research acquaintance networks between racial groups.
When white "starter" persons in Los Angeles were asked to cross racial
lines and send cards to persons of another race, the number of com-
pleted chains was two and one half times as great for white targets
as for black targets. This research also supported Milgram's original
notion that completed chains across race were more often successful
when the sender was an acquaintance rather than a friend. Both of
these findings correlate well with Granovetter's "theory of weak ties."
White contacts had few connections with black contacts. They did
not complete the crossover from white to black targets. On the other
hand, the successful white-black crossovers were not categorized as
friend but as acquaintance. Korte and Milgram also discovered that
successful white gatekeepers who made the crossover from white to
black targets defined the relationship as that of occupational sim-
ilarity rather than friend.

Shotland (1976) used the small world concept to ask questions
about chain lengths, which is the number of intermediaries required
for a message to travel from sender to target. Milgram (1967) had
claimed that chain lengths vary from two to ten intermediaries for

a message to be completed within the United States, with an average

chain length of five intermediaries. However, he also pointed out

that when the chain reached a few miles of the target, the chain

sometimes stopped. He suggested that social distance may be longer

than physical distance. It was these sociological and psychological

meanings that Shotland investigated in a university setting.

He conducted a university communications network Small World

Experiment at Michigan State University in which the communication

network among students, faculty, and administrators was investigated.

Admimnistrators were shown to have the shortest communication channels

to other administrators and faculty. Students had the longest commu-

nication channels to faculty and administrators. The research indi-

cated that the chain length between faculty and student and adminis-

trator was longer than Milgram's research had indicated because of

the greater social distance between student and faculty and student

and administrator. Travers and Milgram (1969) had already supported

this position when they said that "chains which converge on the target

principally by using geographic information reach the surrounding

area readily, but once there often circulate before entering the

target's circle of acquaintances" (p. 432).

Shotland suggested that the student peripheral position in

the communication network may have been one of the causes of student

discontent in the 1960s. He claimed that a "person with no informal

contacts with people in power use formal communication channels less

often than a person with many informal contacts: (p. 110). His study

Indicated that the people with power, administrators and faculty, have more informal contacts with high status than with low-status people. Students believed that little could be accomplished by going through formal communication channels. His conclusion was that a peripheral position in the university communication network promoted attitudes of dissatisfaction. He suggested that reduced chain lengths between students and faculty and students and administration have eased student unrest on university campuses, as have other causes of discontent, such as the end of the Viet Nam War. However, he believes that American universities need to develop permanent mechanisms to reduce the student peripheral position in university communication networks.

Killworth and Bernard (1978) also used Milgram's small world research as the starting point for yet another approach to network analysis. Initiating the reverse small world experiment, these researchers reversed the process. Instead of asking many senders to reach one target individual, they provided starters with a list of 1267 targets and asked the sender to whom he would send the folder if he were initiating a Small World experiment. From among the persons they knew, starters were asked to write down their choice for the first link from them to each of the 1267 targets. The only information the starters were given was the location, occupation, and ethnicity of the target. Starters provided information on their relationship to the target (friend, family, or acquaintance) together with the sex of the choice and the reason for his or her choice.

Reasons were location of the target, occupation of the target, ethnicity of the target, and other. Killworth and Bernard found that of the 210 choices, 45% were chosen most often for location reasons, 47% were chosen most often for occupation reasons, and only 8% of the choices were based on ethnicity or other reasons.

Another conclusion of the Killworth and Bernard research was that the sex of the next link on the chain could be predicted accurately 82% of the time and that the sex was male. Females were selected for the first step in the reverse small world experiment only when the starter and target were both female or when the target was low status. These findings suggest comparison with the present study where gender is one of the contingencies of the research.

Another outcome of the Killworth and Bernard research relates to the concepts of the present study, and that is the difference between first chain length choices among friends and acquaintances. The reverse small world study correlates well with the Granovetter weak ties theory in that the study found that males chose more acquaintances than did females as their first choice in the chain, but neither males nor females chose more friends.

Granovetter Diffusion Study

Granovetter (1974) conducted a diffusion study similar to the Milgram small world research and related studies on how persons became aware of opportunities in the job market. Limiting his study to respondents in two consecutive city directories of Newton, Massachusetts who indicated a different employer in the later

edition than in the earlier edition, and who held professional, managerial, or technical jobs, he randomly selected 282 respondents for the study. Of the over 55% of this sample of 282 who found jobs from personal contacts rather than through an employment agency or by direct application, 68.7% found jobs through work contacts rather than family or friends. This finding gives credence to "the strength of weak ties" and the primacy of structure over motivation. Granovetter claimed that an a priori notion would be that one's friends and family would be more motivated to help with job information. On the other hand, Granovetter pointed to the structural tendency for those with whom one has weak ties to have access to more job information. He concluded that a person's "probability of making a major occupational change is roughly proportional to the percentage of that person's contacts who are in occupations different from one's own" (p. 50). Structural factors, the properties of an individual's social contacts that shape his network, seemed to have the greatest impact.

Granovetter concluded that those professional, managerial, and technical workers who were most successful in their job search had three types of ties in their interpersonal networks: (1) ties were occupational rather than social ties; (2) ties were weak rather than strong; and (3) ties were in short information chains.

Some of these conclusions had already been suggested by earlier research. Coleman et al (1966) conducted research on how information concerning a new drug was diffused. They discovered that persons

from peripheral points in the social network with weak ties to the
dense network were more apt to be the first users of a new drug.
Lee's (1965) research on how women sought information on abortions
revealed that the information flow for these women was through weak
rather than strong personal ties and that the information chains
were short.

A precursor to Granovetter's research on the professional job
search was a paper read to the Southern Sociological Society in 1958
on informal occupational contact networks for professionals and
managers by Fred E. Katz. Katz claimed that professionals, such as
engineers and academic teachers, maintained informal contacts of
keeping in touch with colleagues through attendance at conferences
or even so simple a gesture as a Christmas card to keep activated
channels of information and communication for some possible time in
the future when this contact will be needed for a job search.

In his study of occupational contacts, the Granovetter research
enlarged upon the ideas suggested in the Katz paper. Granovetter
claimed that the professional man who changed jobs not only moved
from one network of loose ties to another but also established a link
between those two networks. With the establishment of second and
third order contacts, such as when a professional moves from one job
to another, his or her network expanded as well as the flow of job
information.

Unlike the Katz paper which supported his "strength of weak
ties" research, Granovetter criticized earlier American research on

social circles. He viewed Moreno (1960) as an American sociologist whose notion of sociometry was a forerunner to network theory. However, he pointed out that sociometry has always been peripheral in sociological theory and he suggested that it has generally only been applied to social psychology. He felt that the emphasis on sociometry which asked an individual to name his three best friends, for example, in forming a sociometric measure of social relationships has by its very nature cut out weak ties which may be more conducive to the expansion of interpersonal linkages.

Early Use of Network Perspective

The early use of network analysis can be traced to the British anthropological tradition. J. A. Barnes (1954) of the University of Cambridge, in his study of a Norwegian island parish, introduced the idea of a social network to describe the network of social relationships which he believed were crucial to an understanding of the social behavior of the parishioners in Bremnes. The Barnes' (1954) notion of the explanation of an individual's behavior in relationship to that individual's social structure was followed by Elizabeth Bott's (1957) study of conjugal roles in London families. Bott correlated the structural characteristics of the networks of the families with the allocation of conjugal roles. In this early network study, Bott found that couples who lived in traditional cultures with dense family networks developed conjugal roles that differed from couples living in loose-knit networks with few connections with family and friends. The traditional couple living in the dense

network spent their leisure time apart: the wife visited with her
mother and family and the husband spent his free time in pubs, pool
parlors with close friends. In the loose knit network, the couple
was apt to spend their leisure time together entertaining friends.
These findings parallel Granovetter's research that weak ties are
more conducive to change and new ideas.

Kadushin (1966) tested Bott's hypothesis that the structure
of a social circle affected the social behavior of the individuals
in the network. His study of the attitudes of New Yorkers toward
psychotherapy revealed that individuals in intellectual social
circles exhibited a more accepting attitude toward psychotherapy
than did individuals from different social circles.

Another relevant study was Epstein's (1961) analysis of per-
sonal relationships in central African towns which supported a dif-
ferent aspect of Bott's original research. He was not so much
interested in how the content and ideas of a network are affected
by the structure of the network; rather, he was concerned with one
of Bott's crucial variables, whether the network is a close-knit
network or a loose-knit. He defined those individuals in an inter-
personal network with whom one interacts most intensely and most
regularly, and who are therefore apt to know one another, as the
effective network. Others were the extended network. These con-
cepts are similar to Granovetter's notion of strong and weak ties.

Another similar study was Mayer's (1971) research on networks
in the South African city of East London. This study also supported

the Granovetter notion of strong and weak ties. When a Xhosa peasant moved to town, he arrived from a social structure where the general pattern of the network was ordained by the social structure, and compelled by social pressures to have relations with kinsmen, neighbors, local age-mates. In the Bott-Granovetter definition, he was imbedded in a dense network of kinship. When he moved to East London, he may move into a network of workers who maintain old customs. He may eat, drink, sleep, worship, or amuse himself much as he did in the rural lands.

Other migrants may live near no fellow migrants. The demands of their job may cause them to move to several locations in the town. Many of the Xhosa's associates are thrust upon them. At this point the Xhosa peasant can choose whether to retain the old rural ways and seek out his close-knit network in the town. Or, the peasant may choose to learn "civilized ways" and move away from his old associates into a looser network. This choice determines whether the peasant will always be a Red man or whether he will learn city ways as a School Man. Mayer concluded, much as did Bott in researching the conjugal relations of London families, that the type of network, close-knit or dense, does affect the behavior and actions of the individuals involved in the network.

Network Analysis as Related to Community Organization

Focusing the discussion of the strength of weak ties on the community, Wellman and Leighton (1979) used network analytic perspective to explain lost communities, saved communities, and liberated

communities. The lost community argument contends that centralized

bureaucratic structures have weakened primary ties, thus making the

individual dependent on formal organizations for support. Scholars

who accept the lost community concept view city dwellers as alienated

isolates.

The saved community argument is that communities have been

able to withstand bureaucratic industrial demands and survive as

important sources of support and sociability. Saved scholars argue

that "multistranded strong ties clustered in densely knit networks

facilitate the mobilization of assistance for dealing with routine

and emergency matters" (p. 374).

The liberated community, not bound to the spatial neighborhood,

is a community made up of "individuals with the structural autonomy

to move among multiple social contacts and networks" (p. 379).

Theorists support a concept of a liberated community as made up of

friends and family reinforced with multiple social networks that

crosscut commitments and allow the individual alternate escape routes.

Liberated communities tend to contain individuals who are limited

members of several social networks. Ties differ in intensity and

seem to be organized into a series of networks with few connections

between them. This argument suggests the advantage of being able

to move among several interpersonal networks. Liberated communities

seem to be more cohesive than either lost or saved communities.

Granovetter (1973) suggests that for a community to become a

liberated community containing individuals with many social networks,

there must be several ways in which people can develop weak ties that bridge social distance. One way to initiate a structure of weak ties within the entire community is to develop a leadership training program which arbitrarily selects persons of diverse backgrounds and provides a setting in which identified, emerging leaders in the community can discuss different points of view on community issues that affect them all. Granovetter (1973) elaborates further that one way to continue linkages is through "a rich organizational life" (p. 1375). By acting together through the community action-oriented organizations, community leaders can activate weak ties to bring cohesion and unity to the community.

A Conceptual Framework

A review of literature reveals that it is only in the last several decades that network theory has developed into an analytic tool for social science research. Before that time, and even now, the word network is a useful metaphor. But because of its versatility, the concept has been used with empirical data to analyze such varied social behavior as how a woman selects an abortionist, the conjugal relations of London couples, the information flow that leads to job information, and how a certain social circle of New Yorkers view psychotherapy (Kadushin, 1966)

An analytical network perspective is also an appropriate tool to evaluate learning experiences such as a community leadership development program. Adult educators conduct workshops, seminars, short courses which last for a few weeks or a few months; but little

theory has been developed on how to assess the lasting effect of such programs. Less is understood of how small group experience is diffused into the larger macro community.

Granovetter (1973, 1974) stated that the analysis of inter-personal networks is a fruitful tool for linking micro and macro levels of sociological theory, and he stressed "the strength of weak ties." This paradox of weak ties, once thought to bring alienation between groups, is the basis of his theoretical position. Small groups with many weak ties to the larger macro community have better access to new information and opportunity mobility than do small groups with strong ties. Small groups with strong ties tend to receive the same information.

Bott (1957), Mayer (1971), Epstein (1961), and Granovetter (1974) acknowledge that an individual's actions and behavior must be interpreted in relation to that individual's social network. Dense networks produce inbred attitudes; loose-knit networks allow for the diffusion of new information and provide bridges that can cross greater social distance and reach a larger number of individuals than do strong ties.

Wellman (1979), Granovetter (1973) also apply "the strength of weak ties" argument to community organization. A community with many weak ties that interrelate with the larger macro community is a community that can mobilize its resources and act together for the common good of the community (Freire 1970).

Network analysis of the linkages formed during and after the
completion of a community development program may be a useful method
of evaluation. This methodology measures quantitatively relation-
ships formed across race, gender, and time during a short educative
experience. Evaluation of the program becomes more than satisfac-
tion with the program, or an assessment of cognitive achievement,
but rather a monitoring of the formation and maintenance of weak
ties among program participants. The logical second part of the
evaluation is how the social structure of weak ties is used by
program participants in community organizations that address the
concerns of the community.

Chapter III

METHOD OF THE STUDY

This chapter describes the method used to determine the effect
of the Leadership Metro Richmond program on participant interpersonal
networks formed during and after the program and changes in community
organizational memberships during and after the program. Of particular
concern is how these questions relate to the contingencies of race
and gender. This chapter also describes the population, the treat-
ment, the instrumentation used and its applicability to the research
design, and the means by which the data is collected and analyzed.

Design

To test the feasibility of the research design a pilot study
was conducted on data from LMR I, 1980-1981. This data has been
incorporated into the body of the study.

This evaluation is a longitudinal study examining multiple
groups. This design was selected because these measures across
time can monitor changes as they occur in interpersonal networks
and community organizational memberships. Since the Leadership
Metro Richmond program is a 10-month educative experience, the
design allowed the researcher to measure changes in interpersonal
networks and organizational memberships as they occurred, i.e., to

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identify which major variables were noticed immediately after the program began and which occurred later.

By its very nature the Leadership Metro Richmond program through its diverse groups purports to be a simulation of the larger diverse community which the program participants represent. Program planning groups are structured to contain black and white, male and female, city and county residents. By this diversity program members become a microcosm of the larger universe they represent. During the training period each program planning committee addressed one public issue from the diverse points of view represented in the group. Repeated measures were especially well suited to monitor changes as they occurred in these simulated groups which reflected the larger universe in which these emerging leaders will be reacting with one another in later years.

Fergusson (1976) noted that whereas many experiments in psychology and education require repeated measures, these experiments have both advantages and disadvantages. One advantage is that the error term will be reduced by the fact that these measures over time will be on the same subjects. He stated that "the presence of these correlations" reduced error. Another advantage was in the number of subjects. It is economical in terms of time and effort to test the same subjects under the same treatment. The most serious threat to this design was to internal validity which is the failure to control history. That is, the rival hypothesis exists that some

simultaneous event, and not the leadership development program,

produced a shift in the measures over time.

Population

The population of this study consisted of 181 persons

selected for the first four classes of Leadership Metro Richmond.

Entry into the program is open to the entire metropolitan community

of over 600,000. A selection committee made up of Leadership Metro

Richmond board members serves as a committee to choose approximately

fifty participants from the more than one hundred who apply for the

program. Selection is based on two criteria: (1) the individual must

have demonstrated leadership ability as evidenced by participation

in community affairs and must have indicated an interest in seeking

governmental, political, and volunteer leadership roles in the future;

(2) the participants must represent the diversity of the population

of the metropolitan Richmond area which includes the categories of

race, gender, occupation, age, and residence. Since the city is

populated with over 50% black residents, it is necessary that these

categories be represented in the population of the class. Representa-

tion from a variety of professional and service groups, as well as

a wide age range, is also a factor in the selection process. Finally,

since the city is surrounded by three counties, which together make

up the metropolitan area, the membership of each class must also re-

flect this dimension of the population.

There are two groups in this study. The first group is the

51 persons selected for the 1983-1984 Leadership Metro Richmond

program. The second set of subjects were the persons who completed the program in the classes of 1980-1981, 1981-1982, and 1982-1983.

Of the 181 persons selected by the Selection Committee for the program, the demographics of all four of the first four classes were similar. Over 50% of the participants in the first four classes were white males, 21.5% were white females, 16.5% were black males, and 9% were black females. These percentages reflect the applicant pool. The age range was from the late twenties to the early fifties, with the median age being 33. City residents comprised approximately half the class and 50% was made up of residents of the three surrounding counties, of Henrico, Chesterfield, and Hanover. The group was represented approximately in three equal parts between representatives of business and industry such as bankers, tobacconists, retailers; professional persons such as lawyers and teachers, and representatives from local, state, and national governmental bodies as well as representatives from private agencies such as the United Way, the Red Cross, and labor unions.

Treatment

The treatment in this study was the Leadership Metro Richmond program which has graduated seven classes beginning in 1980. With some slight variations the general plan of the learning experience has remained the same. The program was divided into two parts. The first part was an orientation retreat of two and one-half days. Its primary goal was to provide experiences which would allow the participants the opportunity to get to know one another. Group dynamics,

conflict management, and communication workshops were part of the leadership skills training at the retreat. A second goal was public affairs information. Experiential participatory interaction with both the participants and representatives of the current leadership in the Richmond metropolitan community was encouraged in small group discussions. The mayor of Richmond, the city manager, the county managers of the outlying counties, representatives of the educational, political, business, and volunteer segments of the area came to the retreat to talk informally with small groups of participants.

The second part of the program was nine monthly seminars held all day the first Wednesday in the month, October through June. At the retreat participants selected an issue by random choice they would study for the year. These randomly selected groups became program committees who prepared and executed one of the day-long seminars. Issues studied included race, regionalism, education, business, quality of life, public safety, human services, Richmond today and the future. Past leadership participants with special skills served as resource persons for each program planning committee as well as the executive director of the program, who offered assistance when asked.

Principles of adult education directed the administration of the program. Participants executed the program seminars themselves and advisors and administrative staff served as resources. The planning group's first task was to coordinate the various points of view represented in the group. Since the seminar groups contained

participants who were black and white, male and female, city and
county residents, the planning group itself became a small micro-
cosm of the larger macro community. Diversity of opinion must be
acknowledged and coordinated before program planning could take
place. This interchange of opinion and compromise of points of
view becomes one of the key elements in the dynamics of the train-
ing program. Through the give and take of difference of opinion
the diversity of the group was acknowledged and accepted.

Although the general format of the training program has re-
mained the same throughout the first four years of the program,
there have been slight changes. The change is the growing tendency
to make the seminars participative and experiential. The usual
practice in such programs is for the planning committee to ask
someone knowledgeable in the community to address the group on the
issue. However, in the last few years, seminars have been designed
to be decision-making, risk-taking experiences rather than being a
vehicle to receive information.

A second change has been that the retreat has been planned
and executed by the curriculum committee rather than by an outside
consultant. The first two years of the program an outside conference
coordinator ran the retreat. Presently the curriculum committee,
using Leadership graduates with expertise, and the administrative
staff have planned the retreat. The executive director has served
as retreat coordinator and alumni have conducted training segments.

A third change has been that team building sports and recreational activities have been built into the curriculum of both the retreat and the monthly seminars. One of the goals of the program is to encourage relationships of awareness and communication across the contingencies of race and sex. This goal can be accomplished through participatory and experiential interaction. However, another way to encourage communication and group cohesion is with team sports. Baseball, softball, and square dancing have been added to the program.

A summary of the program of the 1982-1983 Leadership Metro Richmond program is presented in Table 1 in Appendix C. The overview describes briefly the content of both the retreat and the nine monthly seminars.

Instrumentation

Data was collected through a survey questionnaire and in-depth interviews. Kerlinger (1973) points out that the mail questionnaire "has serious drawbacks unless it is used in conjunction with other techniques" (p. 414). He lists these defects as possible lack of response and the inability to check the responses given. Since the researcher saw the respondents of the first group of subjects, the 1983-1984 class, on a monthly basis, these defects were minimal. The defects implicit in these answers are that some respondents are more precise in their answers to survey questions than others. This problem was greater in questionnaire answers in Sample II participants since there was a time lapse of one, two, or three years since the respondents had attended the leadership training.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire, designed by the researcher, contained three sections. Section 1 elicited information on participant jurisdictional residence, length of residency, education, and employment. Section 2 was a contact response form which solicited information on interpersonal networks formed during and after the leadership program. Participants were asked to check the names of those class members with whom they had had contact before the class began, the frequency of the contact, and the type of contact—social, work, or community contacts. This pre-program part of the questionnaire was administered to all participants before the class began.

Additional questions addressed the study's definition of strong or weak ties. Strong ties involved the amount of time spent together, reciprocal services, and an especially cordial and friendly relationship.

Section 3 investigated the question of what community organizations participants joined during and after the completion of the training program. Participants were asked to categorize organizational memberships by types of memberships. Some examples were listed to aid the respondent's memory. Memberships were political/government, civic/community, religious/educational and business/professional. The questionnaire also elicited data on how frequently the participant attended meetings and the leadership roles performed. Further, the section also asked participants to identify what organizations they belonged to that addressed issues studied in the training class.

The participants were also asked to name which memberships were new memberships begun since beginning the leadership program and what organizational memberships had been dropped during the same period.

A final section was concerned with the assumption of new leadership positions in community organizations since the training began and if the participant had run for public office since beginning the program.

Interview

In-depth interviews were conducted by the researcher with 16 members of the 1982-1983 Leadership Metro Richmond class. The purpose was (1) to elicit participant impressions of Leadership Metro Richmond as a learning experience; (2) to elicit participant perceptions of how the program increased interpersonal contacts with persons of a different race, sex, or residence; and (3) to elicit participant impressions of how the program encouraged cooperation with persons of different backgrounds in community organizational memberships that addressed issues discussed in the program.

The interviews had the objective of eliciting participant feelings and the reasons behind the quantitative data from the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire data elicited facts but gave no data on why or how facts evolved. Kerlinger (1973) notes that the interview can obtain a great deal of information, is flexible and adaptable to individual situations. Most important, says Kerlinger, the interview permits probing into the reasons for answers to questions.

The population for 16 in-depth interviews was the 1982-1983, LMR III class. The reason for selecting members of the third leadership class as subjects for the interview was that any changes made since the program began were likely to be reflected in this group.

The interview schedule was an open-ended interview which included three sections, each with a set of questions that had been arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence in essentially the same words. Patton (1980) describes the advantages of the standardized open-ended interview as minimizing interviewer effects by asking the same question of each respondent. The method also "makes data analysis easier because it is possible to locate each respondent's answer quickly and to organize questions and answers that are similar" (p. 102). Patton further lists two reasons for using standardized open-ended interviews as part of an evaluation: (1) the exact instrument is available for inspection and (2) the interview is highly focused so that interviewee time is carefully used.

Section 1 of the interview schedule elicited participant impressions of the leadership training program as a whole. It asked participants to express their likes and dislikes of the program, its strengths and weaknesses, and impressions of specific program activities.

Section 2 dealt with participant impressions of one of the major objectives of the program, which is that LMR participation will encourage the development of interpersonal networks with persons

who are of a different race, gender, or residence. Respondents were asked how LMR participation had offered opportunities to form contacts with persons of a different background and how LMR participation had changed participant attitudes toward contacts with persons of a different race, gender, or residence.

The third section dealt with another objective of the program, which was that LMR participants take a more active role in community organizations that addressed issues discussed in the program. Participants were asked to express their perceptions of how LMR participation changed their attitudes toward cooperative efforts in community organizations with persons of a different race, gender, or residential jurisdiction.

Patton (1980) concludes that the purpose of interviewing is "to find out what is in and on someone else's mind (p. 196). When an interview is undertaken for program evaluation, says Patton, the interviewer must seek to capture the perspective of program participants. "The task undertaken by the interviewer," claims Patton, "is to make it possible for the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into his or her world" (p. 196).

Collection of Data

In order to acquire the information needed in this study, the researcher collected data from several sources. The first data was entry data from the 1983-1984 Leadership Metro Richmond participants as well as the same data from the three former classes of 1980-1981, 1981-1982, and 1982-1983. The entry data was an application form

which every applicant completed and which elicited information on community organizational memberships held prior to applying for the program and the participant leadership role in these organizations. Each participant also completed a contact response form prior to entering the program. The form asked participants to list their contacts with other members of the class before the program began and to classify these contacts as community, business, or social contacts.

In addition to the entry data, a questionnaire prepared by the researcher was mailed to the first group of subjects, the 1983-1984 class, in January 1984 and again in June 1984. The questionnaire included the same contact response form and the same information on community organizational memberships that was administered upon entry to the program. These repeated measures administered in six months' intervals permitted the monitoring of changes in participant interpersonal networks and community organizational memberships as the occurred for the first group of subjects. The same questionnaire was mailed once in June 1984 to the 1980-1981, 1981-1982, and 1982-1983 classes. The data gathered allowed the researcher to monitor changes in interpersonal networks and organizational memberships as they occurred one year, two years, and three years after the completion of the program. All three sections of the questionnaire addressed the contingencies of the study, which were race and gender.

In addition to the quantitative data collected from both groups of subjects, the researcher collected qualitative data from interviews with 16 members of the 1982-1983 Leadership Metro Richmond class. The interviews allowed the researcher to elicit participant perceptions on the two major questions of the study, interpersonal networks and community organizational memberships, as well as overall perceptions of the program itself.

With the permission of the interviewee, the researcher taped the interview, which later was transcribed and analyzed. The researcher explained that the tape-recorded session allowed the interviewer to hear the entire interview as it occurred without having to rely on memory or notes which may inadvertently change the meaning of the interviewee answers.

All data was collected by the researcher. An advantage of this process was that the multiple bias of multiple interviewers being present was eliminated.

A summary of the collection of data is presented in Table 2 in Appendix C. The summary describes the date the data was collected first for each of the four classes, the date of the treatment, and the date of the final collection of data for each class.

Treatment of the Data

To answer the first research question—what interpersonal networks were formed among LMR participants as a result of the leadership training program—Sample I and Sample II data from the contact response form was reported in four categories: white male, white female,

black male, and black female. Data was coded and recorded as number

of contacts. The raw data was converted Into mean number of contacts

and results compared for Sample I and Sample II subjects. Graphs

were drawn to show changes In Sample I Interpersonal contacts before,

during, and at the completion of the program.

A chi square (X^2) test was also conducted on the same raw

data. Instead of the data being reported In four categories, the

data was collapsed Into a single variable of race or gender, which

reflected the two main contingencies of the study.

Contact type was also reported In four categories as number

of contact types and as mean contact types. Graphs were drawn to

represent changes In contact type of Sample I participants before,

during, and at the completion of the training. Raw data on contact

type was also reported as single variables of race and gender and a

X^2 test administered.

The data for the second research question—what community

organizational memberships occurred among LMR participants as a re-

sult of the program—was also reported In four categories as numbers

of memberships and as mean memberships, and results compared for

Sample I and Sample II participants. Graphs were drawn to show

changes In Sample I participant memberships before, during, and

at the completion of the program. Raw data on membership changes

was reported also with the single variable of race or gender and a

X^2 test administered on the data.

Chapter IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to report the effects of a
ten-months' community leadership program on the formation and
maintenance of networks of communication and understanding across
race and gender, what types of contacts were formed, and how these
contacts were used in community organizational memberships that
addressed community issues discussed in the program. Each of the
research questions set forth in Chapter I is restated and followed
by the results.

Each student's entry data taken from a pre-program survey
and an application form for four leadership classes is compared
with a post-class survey completed by the same participants in
June 1984. One class, LMR IV, 1983-1984, completed the survey a
third time, mid-program, and that data is designated Sample I.
Sample I data is compared with Sample II data from LMR I, LMR II,
and LMR III. Sixteen members of one class, LMR III, 1982-1983,
chosen at random to represent the primary categories of the study,
were interviewed in depth and results reported.

Before discussing statistical findings related to the
individual research questions, it is necessary to explain the
organization of the chapter's nine figures, all of which follow a
similar format. Each of the figures is a graph taken from statis-

tical data from Sample I and records changes as they occurred pre-
program, mid-program, and post-program in one class. The data is
presented in two ways: first as four categories as outlined in
Chapter III and also as single categories of race and sex. Survey
data for all four classes is reported in tables in the appendix.

Question 1

The study evaluated the outcomes of a community leadership
development program by tracing interpersonal networks formed by
participants. The first research question was: <u>What networks</u>
<u>were developed and maintained as a result of the Leadership Metro</u>
<u>Richmond program? Subquestions concern the duration of networks</u>
<u>and the association of race and gender with the formation and</u>
<u>maintenance of networks. Contact type was also considered</u>.

Figure 1 and Figure 2 trace white male, white female, black
male, and black female participant contacts with other class mem-
bers. These figures show that before the class began, contacts among
selected, emerging community leaders were minimal. Out of a pos-
sible 1275 contacts the 51 participants in Sample I, LMR IV, could
have made with class members pre-program, only a total of 129 con-
tacts were made. Figure 1 and Figure 2 also show that of the con-
tacts that were made pre-program, white participants had contacts
mainly with other white participants and black participants with
other black class members.
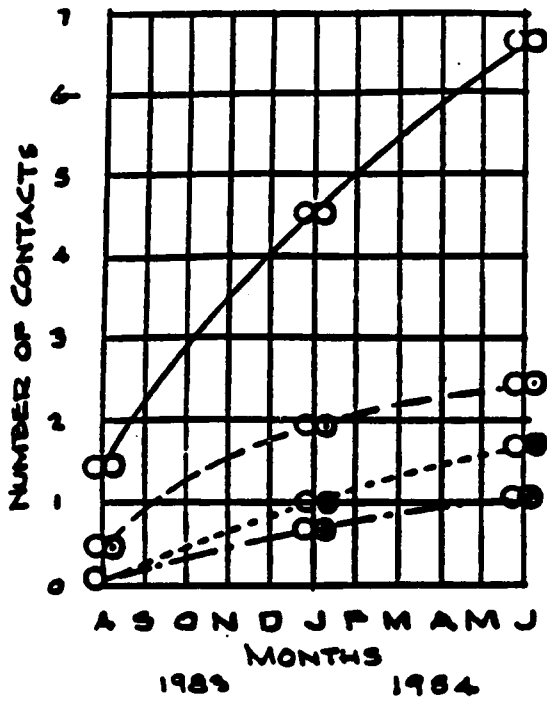
White Male Contacts
with Class Members
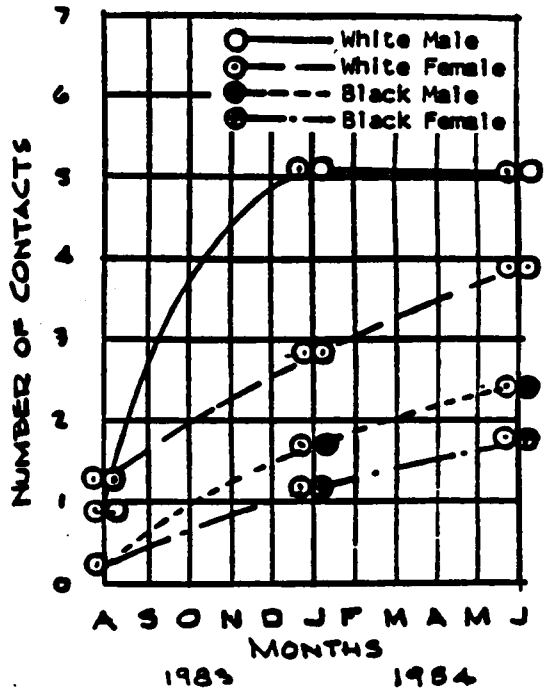
White Female Contacts
with Class Members

Figure 1
Changes in Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants in a
Leadership Class Pre-Program, Post-Program with Race and Sex as
Variables

Sample I: LMR IV

68
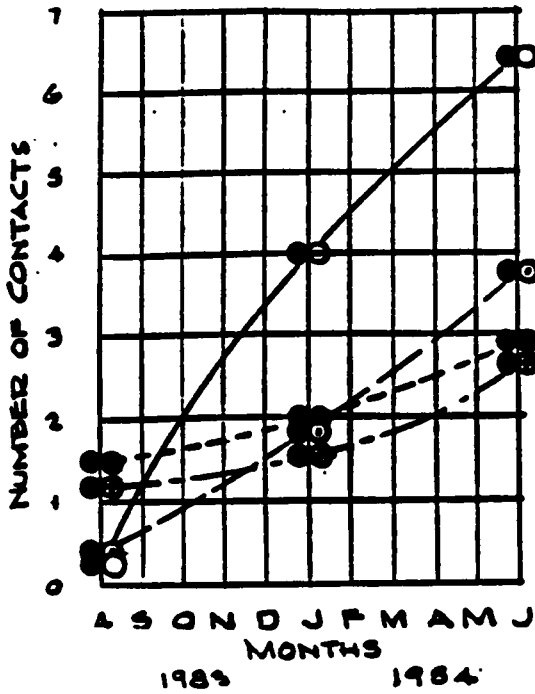
Black Male Contacts
with Class Members
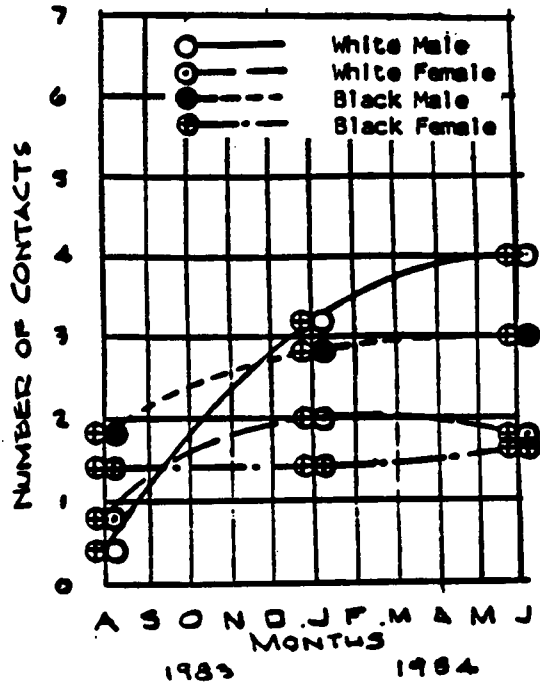
Black Female Contacts
with Class Members

Figure 2

Changes in Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants in a
Leadership Class Pre-Program, Mid-Program, Post-Program with Race
and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV

Raw Data

Raw data for the graphs in Figure 1 and Figure 2 is shown

in Table 3 in Appendix C and suggests that black participants had

more contacts per individual than did white participants pre-

program. Black females with 4.40 average contacts with other

class members pre-program had the largest average number of con-

tacts, followed by black males with an average of 3.25 pre-program

contacts. It should be noted, however, that fewer blacks applied

to the program than whites and the average contacts of blacks may

be an inflated number.

Five months into the program, contacts among Sample 1 partici-

pants had increased 257%, from 129 to 461 contacts. This figure

does not include the monthly contacts at the regular class meeting,

but represents contacts outside the class period. Five months into

the program, white females had the largest number of average con-

tacts with other participants with 10.82 contacts per white female,

followed by black females with 9.40 average contacts per black fe-

male, black males with 9.38 contacts per black male, and white

males with 8.15 contacts per white male. This information is in

Table 3. At the conclusion of the LMR IV program, contacts among

all members had increased another 38%, with black males having the

most average contacts per black male, followed by white females.

Mean Contacts

When the number of contacts reported in Table 3 is con-

verted into mean contacts in Table 4, several trends already noted

can be reemphasized. Prior to participation in the program, white
participants generally had contact with whites and black partici-
pants with blacks. White males record 1.41 average contacts with
other white males, but only 0.04 with black males pre-program.
Black males had an average 1.50 with other black males pre-program
and only 0.25 average contacts with white male participants pre-
program. The same trend is apparent in pre-program contacts be-
tween white and black female participants.

Table 4 also shows that mean interpersonal contacts among
class members changed five months into the program. Whites con-
tinued to have more average contacts with whites than with black
participants. Blacks, on the other hand, had more average contacts
with white males than with any other category. All blacks had fewer
average contacts with white females than with black males five months
into the program. Blacks, however, recorded fewer contacts with
black females than average contacts with white females. At the
conclusion of the class, black females recorded the same trend in
average contacts. Black males did not. Black males reported more
average contacts with both white males and white females than with
black males or black females.

Two professional blacks in the program offered an explanation
of why blacks would seek associations with white participants. Said
a black broker: "I have a lot in common with the aims of the people
I met in leadership in terms of politics, income, habits, both bad
and good. I see my contacts as based on common interests, not race."

A black female administrator expressed her views this way: "I am
not interested in a pepper and salt approach to contacts. I form
friendships because of common interests."

Race Differences in Contacts

Figure 3 traces contacts among Sample I class participants
with race as the criterion. Although blacks increased personal
contacts with whites five months into the program and at the con-
clusion of the program, a difference remained between white and
black contacts. Table 5 in Appendix B records these differences.
Pre-program white participants had 1.92 mean contacts with other
whites in the program and 0.21 mean contacts with blacks. Blacks,
on the other hand, had 2.85 mean contacts with other black partici-
pants and 0.85 contacts with white participants.

At the conclusion of the program whites had 8.97 mean con-
tacts with white participants and 3.08 mean contacts with black
participants. Blacks, however, reported 8.46 contacts with white
participants at the conclusion of the program and 5.15 mean contacts
with black participants.

Gender Differences in Contacts

Figure 3 also traces contacts of LMR IV participants with
gender as the criterion. Five months into the program, female par-
ticipants had more contacts with male participants than with female
participants, and the difference increased at the end of the program.
At the conclusion of the program female participants had an average
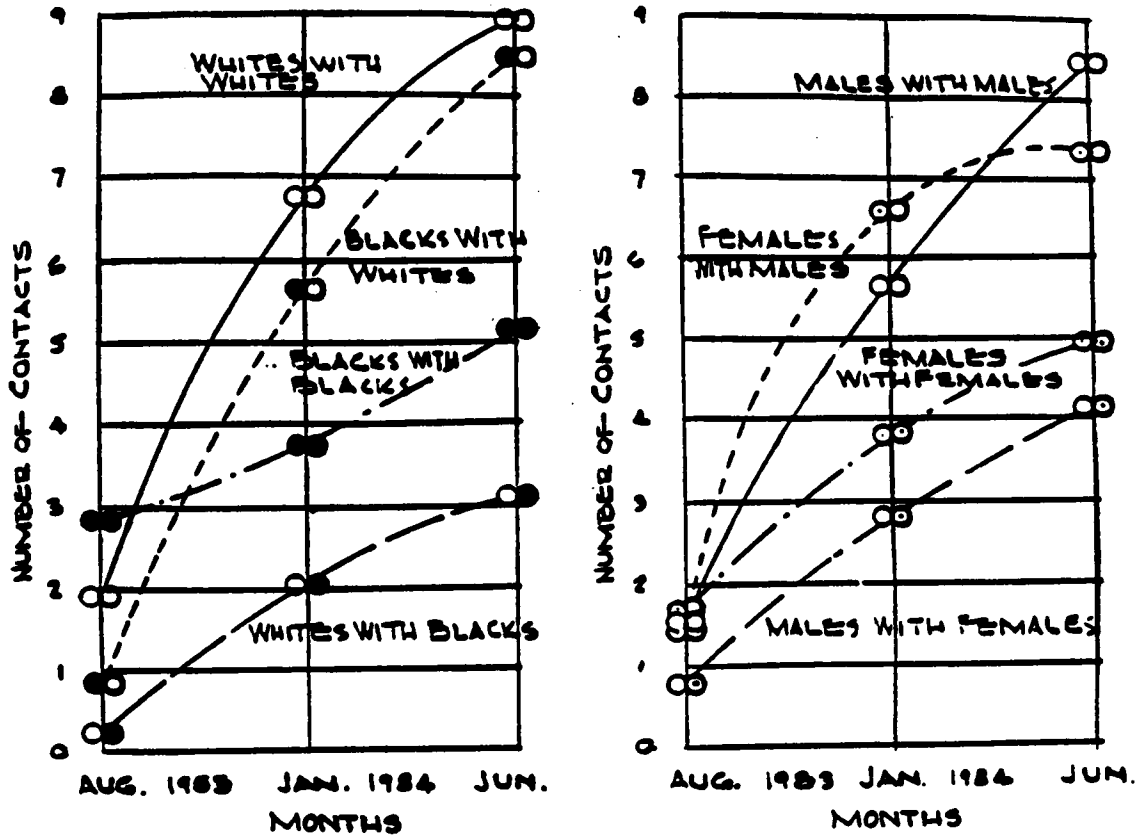
Figure 3

Changes in Interpersonal Contacts Among Participants in a
Leadership Program Over a Ten-Month Period with Race as the
Variable; with Gender as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts

of 7.31 mean contacts with male participants as compared with an average of 4.94 average contacts with female participants. (See Table 6.) The same shift of female to male contacts during the program is similar to the shift from white to black contacts when race is the sole criterion. Black participants recorded more average contacts with white participants than with black participants five months into the program and at the conclusion of the program.

Table 5 shows the calculation of X^2 for the data from Table 3, with race as the variable. In August 1983 the value of X^2 was 59.95 with a significant association at the .001 level. When a X^2 was calculated on the same data with gender as the variable there were no significant differences at the .05 or .01 level.

In summary, it can be assumed that race is an important factor in interpersonal contacts among the members of LMR IV. Gender is not as important a factor in interpersonal contacts, although there are sex differences.

Sample I Contacts Compared with Sample II Contacts

The instrument administered to LMR IV, Sample I, was also given to LMR I, II, and II, Sample II participants. The instrument elicited information on what personal contacts were made among participants before the program began and what contacts were in place in June 1984. The association of race and gender with personal contacts was considered.

LMR I Contacts

LMR I personal contacts followed the trend already noted in Sample I data. Tables 7 and 8 show that LMR I participants began the program with white participants having most contacts with other white participants and blacks with blacks. LMR I white males, for example, had 1.32 mean number of contacts with other white males prior to the beginning of the class and 0.12 mean number of contacts with black males. Black females, on the other hand, had 1.00 mean number of contacts with black males prior to the class and 0.25 mean number of contacts with white males in the class prior to the beginning of the program.

In June 1984, three years after the conclusion of LMR I, there were changes in interpersonal contacts among LMR I participants. Table 10 shows that black males reported the largest number of average contacts with white males. Black females had their largest number of average contacts with black males, but their second largest number of average contacts was with white males.

Both white males and white females reported the largest number of class contacts in June 1984 with white males. However, the second highest number of average contacts for whites was with black males. When contacts are considered among LMR I participants with race as the variable, the data show that blacks did increase average contacts with whites; but whites, on the other hand, had the least average number of contacts with blacks. Although contacts occurred across race, there were differences in contacts among whites and

blacks in June 1984. The pattern differed slightly with gender as the variable. Females in LMR I began the program with more average contacts with males than with other females. Table 11 and Table 12 show that by June 1984 that difference increased.

LMR II

LMR II data on interpersonal contacts among participants followed the same pattern as outlined for LMR I. Whites began the program with most contacts with other whites and black participants with other blacks. The exception among LMR II members was the category of black females, whose second highest number of average contacts pre-program was with white males.

In June 1984, two years after the conclusion of LMR II, there were several changes in interpersonal contacts among LMR II participants. Black female average contacts increased with whites and decreased with blacks. Black males continued to have most average contacts with other black males two years after the completion of the program, but their second highest contacts were with white males. Whites had most contacts at the end of the program with other whites. (See Table 9 and Table 10.)

LMR II participants recorded the same trend as LMR I participants with gender as the variable. Females began the program with more average contacts with males than with females. Two years after the completion of the program in June 1984, the trend continued.

The data suggest that race as a variable seems to be a more important difference in the formation of contacts among LMR II participants than is gender. (See Table 11 and Table 12.)

LMR III

Trends noted in LMR I and LMR II can also be noted in LMR III data. Prior to the program whites had more contacts with whites and blacks had more contacts with blacks. One year later after the conclusion of the program in June 1984, blacks had more average contacts with whites than with blacks. They had the least number of contacts with black females. One year after the conclusion of the program, there were neither race nor gender differences in contacts among LMR III participants. (See Table 11 and Table 12).

Comparison Between Sample I and Sample II

When Sample I data are compared with that of Sample II, there are a number of trends. At the beginning of each program, participants had minimal contacts with one another and those contacts they had were with persons of the same race. This pattern changed for blacks. In three out of the four classes observed in June 1984, black males had more average contacts with white males than with other black males. In two classes black females recorded most contacts with white males in June 1984. Whites reported the most average contacts with other whites. The least number of contacts for all four categories in the study were with black females, the smallest group in the sample. Race seems to be

a more important factor in interpersonal contacts for all of the LMR classes, and gender, with one exception, does not.

Another aspect of the research was whether there would be a difference in the number of interpersonal contacts one year, two years, or three years after the completion of the program. There seems to be no real difference in the number of contacts among participants except in one way. The percentage of surveys returned by participants decreased slightly three years after the class. Highest Return Rate was from participants in most recent classes. For example, for LMR I, three years after the completion of the survey, the return was 64%; for LMR II, two years after the completion of the course, the return was 66%, and for LMR III, one year after the completion of the training, the survey return rate was 74%.

Weak Ties

Another intent of the study was to determine whether the contacts formed in a leadership program such as LMR IV would be weak ties or strong ties. Granovetter (1973), unlike many theorists who stress the power of strong ties, says that many weak ties in a community that cross cultural, race, regional, and gender lines tend to foster community cohesion. He suggests that network analysis of interpersonal contacts may be a useful technique to trace the diffusion of information and influence from the micro to the macro community. The Granovetter definition of strong ties was used as the basis for the survey. Granovetter (1973) claims that strong

ties can be defined by the amount of time spent with the contact,
the number of mutually beneficial services, and by an especially
cordial and friendly relationship.

To follow up on the Granovetter thesis, Sample I partici-
pants were asked to define the strength of ties formed during the
training program as either strong or weak ties. Tables 13 and 14
show that although the amount of time spent, mutual services ex-
changed, and cordial relationships among the class participants
increased, there seems to be no indication of strong ties among
the class members. Sample I white males, who make up the largest
category of the class, report that six months after the program
began, they had spent time with only 1.70 participants other than
at the monthly meeting. By the conclusion of the program, Sample
I white males reported 3.00 contacts with other participants over
a six-month period. Sample I black males, who reported (in Table
18) more social contacts than any other category of the study,
said they had 6.38 contacts with other class members outside the
monthly meetings in the first six months of the program and 7.63
contacts which involved time spent together by the conclusion of
the program.

Similar low mean averages were recorded by participants
concerning mutual services exchanged among participants and cordial
relationships. The data seemed to indicate that, although partici-
pant contacts increased from 129 contacts to 635 contacts during
the training session, only a few of the contacts are classified by

the participants as strong ties. When the raw data In Table 14 are analyzed by race and gender, there were no differences.

Table 15 and Table 16 also show the number of second-order contacts made by Sample I participants with friends of participants. The 321 second-order contacts Indicate that Interpersonal contacts made during the program year do carry over beyond the participants themselves. White females have slightly more second-order contacts, with 4.82 contacts made by the end of the program year. The raw data was analyzed by race and gender, and there were no differences In second-order contacts.

Contact Type

Another aspect of Research Question I was what types of contacts were formed as a result of the Leadership Metro Richmond program? The researcher asked all participants In Sample I to designate all contacts as social contacts, work contacts, or community contacts. The results are plotted on Figure 4 and Figure 5. The raw data and the mean contact type data are In Tables 17 and 18.

Table 18 shows that there were changes In contact type among LMR IV participants during the class period. White females began the class with 1.64 average number of work contacts with other participants. This average was the largest number of work contacts among the participants. Black females, with an average number of 6.00 work contacts with fellow participants, concluded
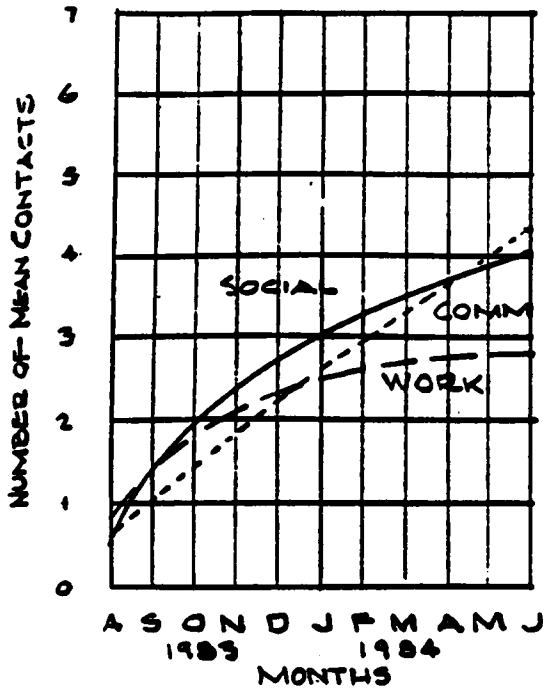
Changes in White Male
Contact Type Across Time
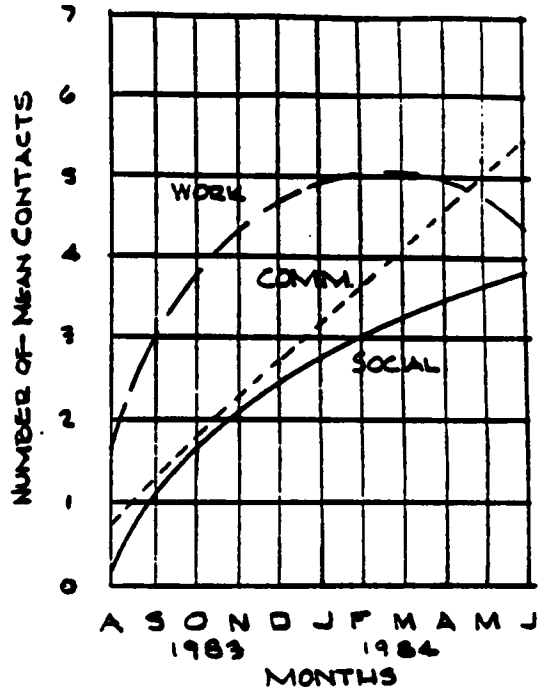
Changes in White Female
Contact Type Across Time

Figure 4

Changes in Contact Type of the Participants in a Leadership
Program Over a Ten-Month Period with Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts
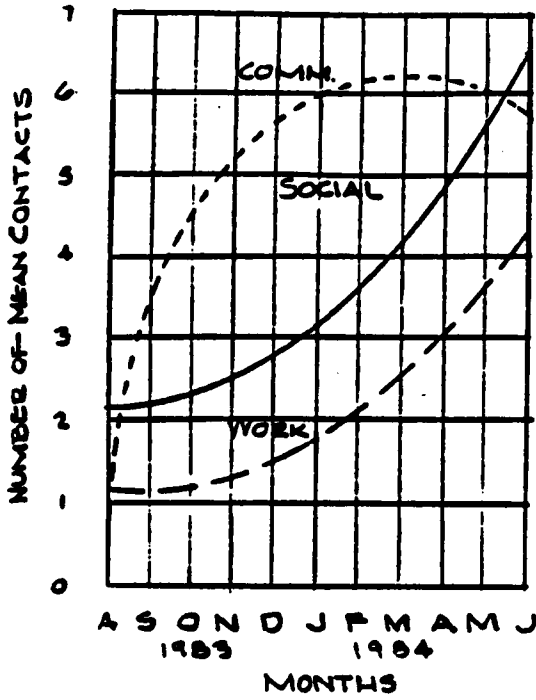
Changes in Black Male
Contact Type Across Time
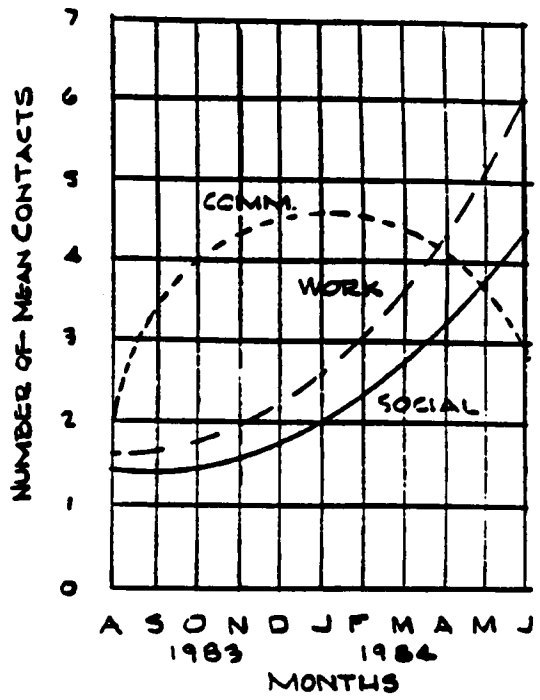
Changes in Black Female
Contact Type Across Time

Figure 5.

Changes in Contact Type of the Participants in a Leadership
Program Over a Ten-Month Period with Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts

the class with the most number of work contacts with other class members. Community contacts also changed during the program year. Black females began LMR IV with the most community contacts, 2.00 community contacts with other class members. Black males had 5.63 community contacts with other class members at the conclusion of the class, and white females had 5.45 community contacts. Black males began and ended the program with more social contacts with other class members.

Race Differences In Contact Type

Changes in contact type of Sample I participants are plotted on Figure 6 with race as the variable, and the raw data and mean contacts are shown in Table 19. Sample I blacks began the program with more social contacts than white Sample I participants, and, with the exception of January 1984 data, that difference persisted to the end of the class. Blacks began the program with more work contacts than whites, and with the exception of January 1984, the trend continued to the end of the program. Community contacts of white and black participants changed during the program. Pre-program and mid-way into the program blacks had more community contacts than white participants had with other Sample I participants. At the end of the class, whites had slightly more community contacts with other participants than blacks. Whites had 4.63 average community contacts with other participants in June 1984 and blacks had 4.54 community contacts. Although there were changes in contact type with race as the criterion, race differences in contact type were
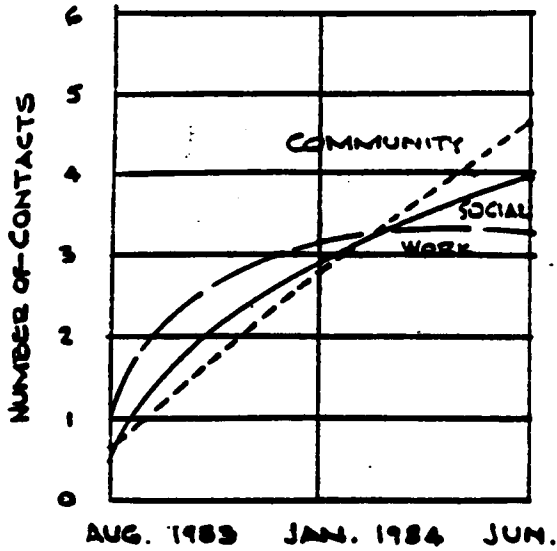
Changes in White Contact
Type Across Time
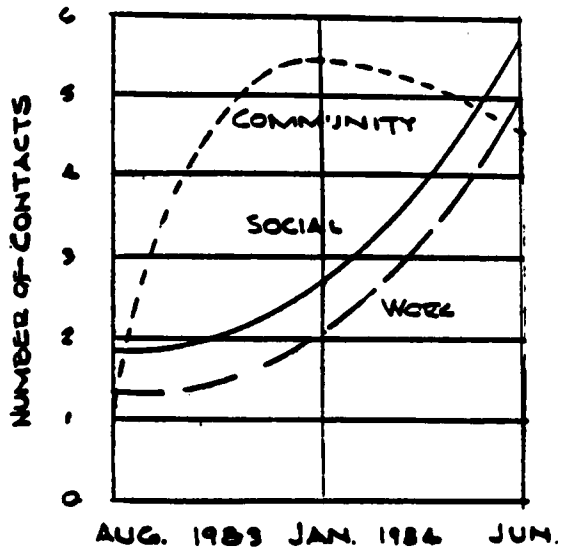
Changes in Black Contact
Type Across Time

Figure 6

Changes in Contact Type of the Participants in a Leadership
Program over a Ten-Month Period with Race as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts

not significant at the conclusion of the program. Table 19 shows a x^2 of 9.00 with race as the variable for contact type in August 1983 but a x^2 of 5.05 in June 1984, which is not significant.

Gender Differences in Contact Type

Unlike race differences, as Figure 7 and Table 20 show, gender differences in contact type were significantly different by the end of the training program. Table 20 shows a x^2 of 6.48 with gender as the variable in August 1983 and a x^2 of 8.69 in June 1984. Males had more social contacts than females throughout the program; females, on the other hand, had more work contacts. Females began and ended the program with more community contacts. Gender does seem to be a predictor for contact type among members of Sample I, LMR IV.

A young black participant suggested one reason why black males become more involved in community contacts, whereas females sought business contacts. He said, "I did not want to use my membership in class for business purposes. I really saw the need to become more involved in the community." One explanation may be that black corporate executives felt secure in their careers; the black women in the program, on the other hand, felt a need to use leadership contacts as business contacts.

Sample I Contact Type Compared with Sample II Contact Type

The contact response form administered to both Sample I and Sample II leadership participants elicited information not only
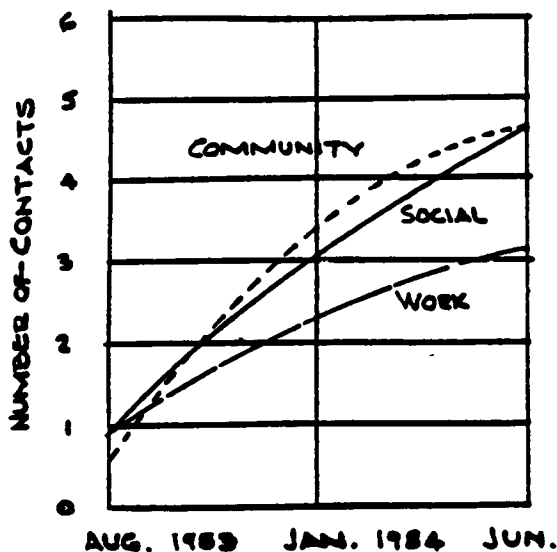
Changes In Male Contact
Type Across Time
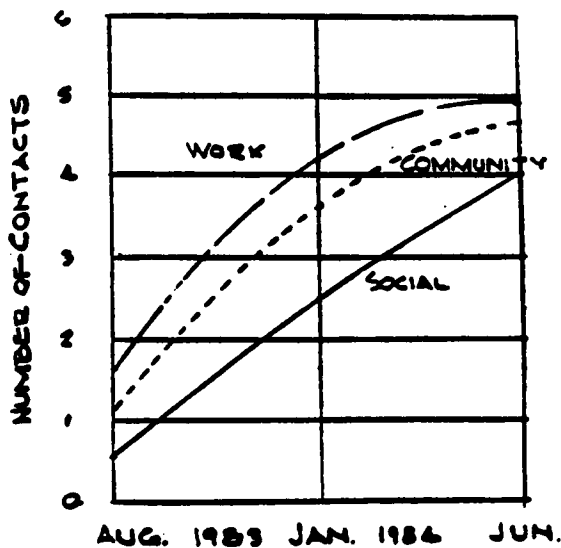
Changes In Female Contact
Type Across Time

Figure 7

Changes In Contact Type of the Participants In a Leadership
Program over a Ten-Month Period with Gender as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts

about interpersonal contacts but also data on contact type for LMR

I, II, and III. Contacts were differentiated as either social

contacts, work contacts, or community contacts.

LMR I

There were similarities and differences in participant con-

tact type in the four leadership classes. LMR I participants

recorded that when the class began, white males had more average

social contacts with other participants than did the other partici-

pants and that black females had the most average work contacts with

their peers. (See Table 22.) Table 24 shows that three years later

in June 1984 there was no change in contact type among LMR I partici-

pants in either social or work contacts. However, there was a shift

in community contact type. Black females began the program having

the highest average community contacts, 1.75 community contacts with

other participants. Black males, with 13.67 community contacts,

had the most average community contacts with other class members

three years after the completion of the class. With race as the

only variable, there was a significant difference in contact type

among LMR I participants three years after the completion of the

class.

This same phenomenon was repeated with gender as the only

variable. Three years after the class was over, there was also a

significant difference in contact type. This data is in Tables

21, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 26.

LMR II

Contact type among LMR II participants differed from the choices of LMR I participants. Two years after the completion of the program, white females generally had the most social, work, and community contacts. Race and gender differences were not important in June 1984.

LMR III

LMR III data on contact type differed from the data of both LMR I and LMR II. Black females had the most social and community contacts both at the beginning of the class and in June 1984. Black males had most work contacts in June 1984 in LMR III. Neither race nor gender was a significant variable in June 1984.

Sample I Data Compared with Sample II Data

Comparing Sample I data on contact type with Sample II data, with race and gender as variables, there are some trends. Black females had the most work contacts in two out of four classes at the beginning of the program and in two out of four classes in June 1984. Black males completed the class with the most community contacts in two out of four classes. White females recorded the highest number of community contacts in one class, LMR II and had only slightly fewer community contacts than black males in LMR IV. Social contact type data was mixed.

With race as the single variable, the data was also mixed. There is a tendency for blacks to have more social contacts as well

as work contacts at the beginning of the class and again in June 1984. Community contacts are divided between white and black participants in June 1984.

With gender as the sole variable, social contacts are mixed; work contacts are female and community contacts are generally female. Unlike race differences, gender differences are significant in two classes. This data suggests that gender may be a more important indicator of contact type than race. Raw data and mean contact data for these conclusions are in Tables 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 26.

Question II

This study of the Richmond community leadership development program was not only concerned with what interpersonal contacts were formed, but also with how these contacts were used in community organizations. The second research question of the study was:

What was the effect of Leadership Metro Richmond on community organizational memberships during and after the training course? Subquestions concern the association of race and gender with organizational memberships, and did the memberships address the issues discussed in the training?

Memberships held by participants prior to the program were catalogued from the organizational memberships listed by Sample I participants, LMR IV, in their application forms for admission to the leadership program. The contact response form was administered mid-program and at the conclusion of the program to determine organizational membership changes. For the purposes of the study, all organizational memberships were categorized as political/government,

civic/community, religious/education, and business/professional. Changes were recorded in the four categories of the study: white male, white female, black male, and black female.

.Table 27 shows that black females began the program with the highest average number of organizational memberships. White females ended the program with the most mean organizational memberships. Black males increased their memberships least during the training period. A black banker, a participant in LMR IV, expressed one reason why black males do not become more active in community organizations: "My bank told me that they wanted me to become involved in Leadership Metro Richmond; but then they did not commit themselves to give me the time to do what I wanted to do in LMR."

Table 27 and Table 28 list what types of memberships were added during the program. Prior to the program, Sample I participants generally had the highest average number of business/professional memberships. Table 27 shows that at the end of the class civic/community memberships generally had first rank with Sample I participants. Table 28, however, shows that black females joined more business/professional organizations by June 1984. The least organizational memberships were the political/government category.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 plot Sample I membership changes before the program began, mid-program, and at the completion of the course. Black females began and completed the program with more business/professional memberships than other participants. (See
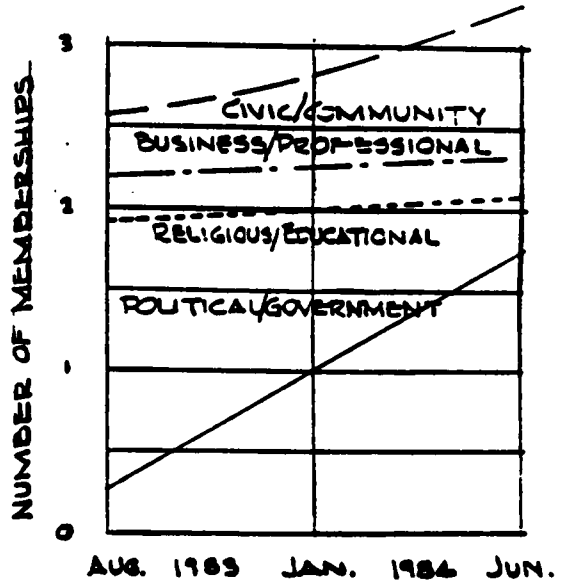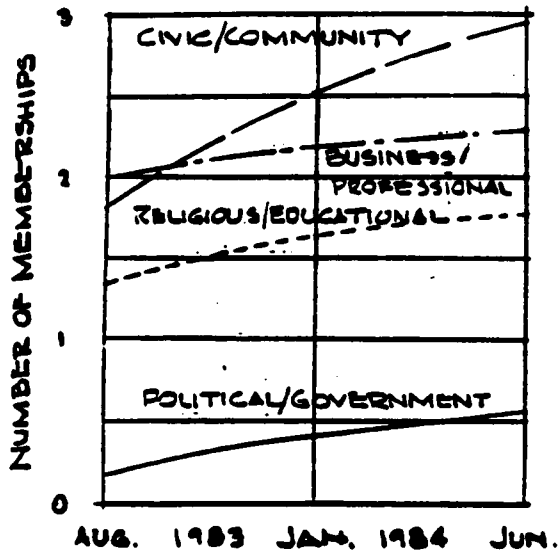
Changes in White Male
Memberships Across Time

Changes in White Female
Memberships Across Time

Figure 8

Changes in Organizational Memberships of Participants in a
Leadership Program over a Ten-Month Period with Race and Sex
as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts
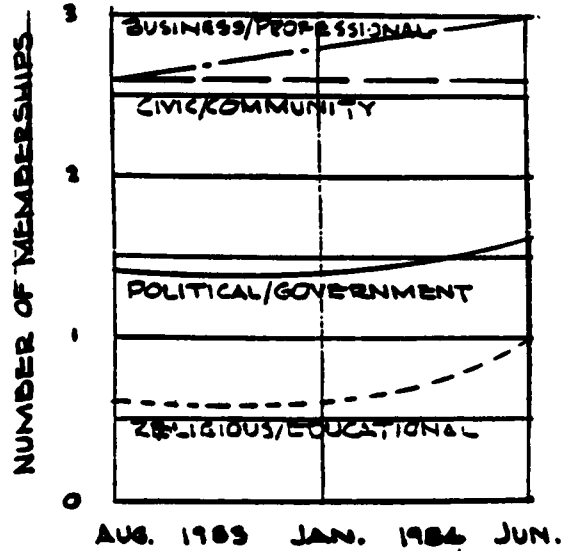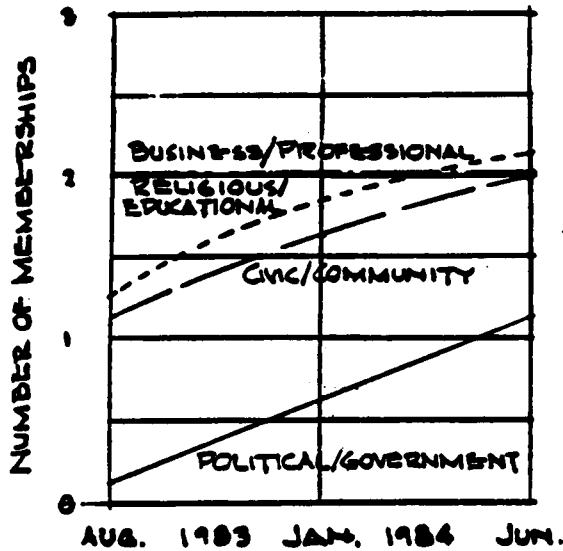
Changes in Black Male Memberships Across Time

Changes in Black Female Memberships Across Time

Figure 9

Changes in Organizational Memberships of Participants in a Leadership Program over a Ten-Month Period With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Contacts

Tables 27 and 28.) Sample I black females also began the program
with more political/government and civic/community memberships
than other participants, but white females completed the program
with slightly more political/government and civic/community
memberships. Black males added the most religious/educational
memberships.

Race Differences in Memberships

Table 29 enumerates the same Sample I organizational mem-
bership data with race as the criterion, and the data is plotted
on Figure 10. Blacks had more political/government memberships;
whites had more civic/community and whites had more religious/
educational memberships. Business/professional membership mean
averages were split between white and black. Race differences in
memberships were not significant.

Gender Differences in Memberships

Unlike race differences in participant organizational member-
ships, gender differences increased as the class progressed. Females
had the most political/government, civic/community, and business/
professional memberships. Males joined more religious/educational
organizations. (See Table 30.) Although political/government mem-
berships are the lowest number of memberships among Sample I partic-
ipants, of those political/government memberships listed most were
added by black females. A black female administrative aide to the
mayor and a LMR participant offered one explanation of why women
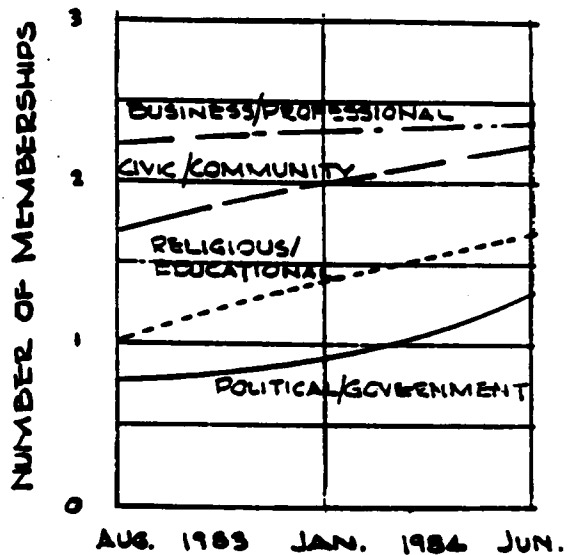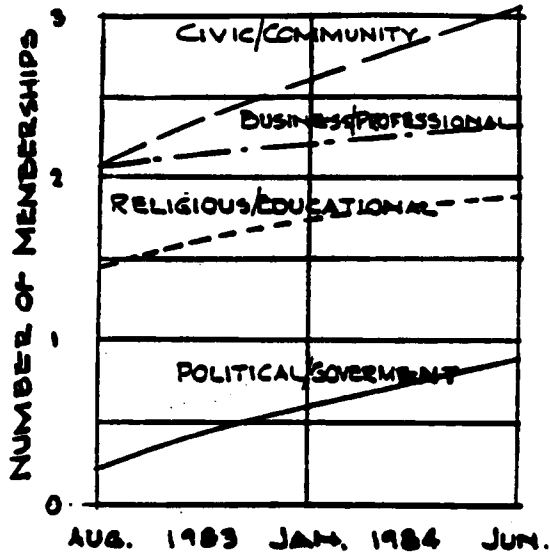
Changes in White Participant
Memberships Across Time

Changes in Black Participant
Memberships Across Time

Figure 10

Changes in Organizational Memberships of Participants in a
Leadership Program over a Ten-Month Period with Race as the
Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Memberships
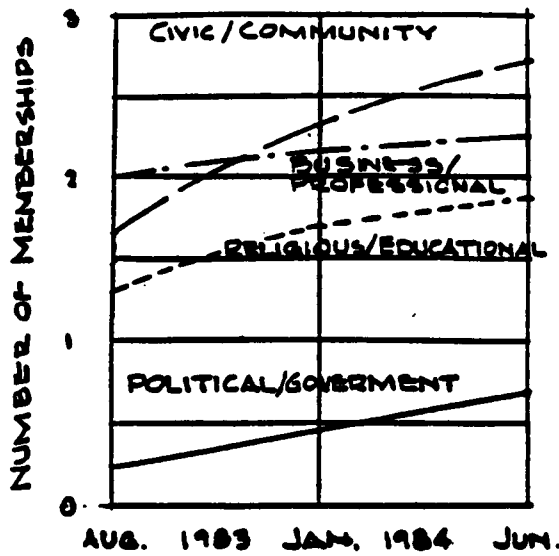
Changes in Male Participant
Memberships Across Time
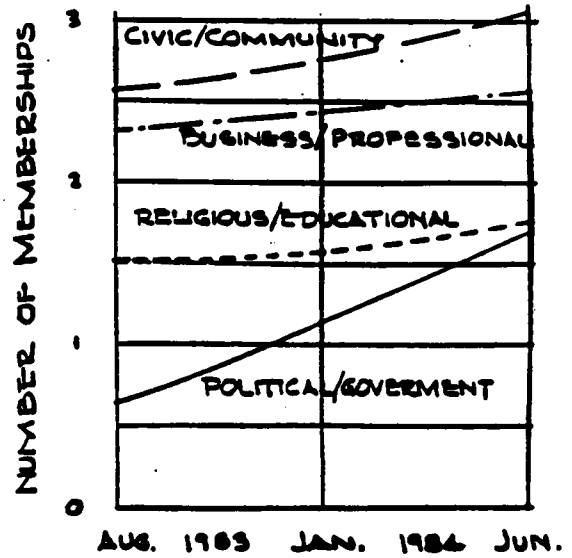
Changes in Female Participant
Memberships Across Time

Figure 11

Changes in Organizational Memberships of Participants in a
Leadership Program over a Ten-Month Period With Sex as the
Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Mean Memberships

in general and black women in particular join political/government

organizations. Said she: "One way that the black female can be

visible is in political/government agencies and institutions.

Government is generally more sensitive to placing females, and

especially black females, in political office." Another black

female participant pointed out that "political office is perhaps

the only way a black female can gain visibility in the community."

She asserted further that black females selected for the program

were known because one, for example, was a member of City Council,

and another held an executive position in the Mayor's office.

In summary, gender does seem to be a predictor of organiza-

tional memberships among Sample I participants, but race does not.

Comparison of Sample I Memberships with Sample II Memberships

When Sample I data is compared with Sample II data, several

trends are evident with both race and gender as variables. White

females held more civic/community organizational memberships in June

1984 in four leadership classes. Black males belonged to more

religious/educational organizations than other categories in three

out of four classes in June 1984; black females began the leader-

ship program with more political/government memberships in two of

the four leadership classes surveyed and black females held more

political/government organizational memberships in June 1984 in

two out of four leadership classes. Black females also joined

more business/professional organizations than did other categories.

When race and gender are considered as single variables, the same

trends are indicated. Tables 30, 35, and 36 show that neither race nor gender is significant generally in participant organizational memberships.

Residence was another factor that was investigated. Whether a participant lived in the city or in the county did not seem to affect the number or type of organizational memberships of LMR participants.

Another aspect considered was whether participants joined action-oriented organizations as contrasted with religious or aesthetic organizations. Three out of the four leadership classes began with participants belonging to more business/professional organizations than any other category. But in June 1984 three out of four leadership classes reported more civic/ community organizations. These figures suggest that leadership participants did change memberships from business concerns to organizations that were action-oriented and organized to address the needs of the community (see Tables 27, 31, and 33).

Another part of the study was whether participants joined organizations that addressed the issues discussed in community leadership classes. The fact that three out of four classes in June 1984 reported most memberships as civic/community memberships suggests that graduates did join organizations that addressed issues discussed in leadership. It can be assumed, however, that other categories of membership also addressed community issues.

Another fact that is suggested by the data is that black fe-
males may be the one category in the study that joined more organ-
izations that were action-oriented and also addressed issues studied
in the program. The data indicate that black females in two classes
joined more political/government organizations than did other cate-
gories of the study. (See Tables 33 and 34.)

Case Study

In addition to the quantitative data that was completed
from the survey administered to the first four leadership classes,
a case study of one class, LMR III, 1982-1983, was conducted by
interviews with 16 members of the group who represented the con-
tingencies of the study: white male, white female, black male,
and black female.

The interview schedule elicited participant opinion on both
the content and process of the training course as well as on the
major objectives of the program: (a) the formation of networks of
communication and understanding among the class members represent-
ing a diversity of backgrounds, and (b) organizational memberships
in action-oriented groups that addressed the issues studied during
the class.

The Training Program

In response to the first interview question which asked
participants to say what they really liked about the program, there
was unanimous agreement. The most positive aspect of the program

was the opportunity to meet persons in the community from diverse

backgrounds with whom, under normal conditions, there would have

been little basis for interaction. A black administrator said, "I

was exposed to persons I would not have been exposed to except for

this experience. " A white lawyer echoed this opinion when he

claimed:

> I liked the opportunity to meet and develop relationships
> with people that I never would have had an opportunity to
> meet. There just would not have been a process so that that
> could have happened. I like meeting a broader cross section
> of people."

The same feeling was also expressed by a black female executive

who explained:

> I liked meeting so many people about my own age who were
> doing exciting things and whom I did not know. That was an
> advantage of the program, particularly after we have been
> able to maintain those ties. It's sort of strange. I
> probably had seen the face before at some activity or
> function; but, now when I run into a fellow participant,
> we can work together on things. Before, they were a face
> in the crowd.

A black health administrator viewed the contacts made during the

training period as a time saving device.

> I was able to get information from individuals first hand
> rather than having to rely on second sources. I was able
> to have a dialogue with persons who are making decisions
> in the community. It saves you a lot of time.

Unlike the agreement of what participants liked about the

program, there was a diversity of views of what participants did

not like. Of those interviewed, one-third said there was nothing

they did not like about the training. The remaining interviewees

named three areas they did not like. They were the process of the

selection of participants, program content, and follow-up after the completion of the training.

Some respondents felt that a few of the persons selected for the class were pre-selected by corporate sponsors, and that actual personal interest was minimal. Another selection concern was that the category of white male was over represented in the classes. Several respondents pointed out that 50% of the class were white males, and that the number of blacks and women in the class needs to be greater. To correct these selection problems, it was suggested that a set of criteria for selection be developed, and that all candidates for admission to the program be judged from a single set of admissions standards developed by a national testing agency.

Other objections concerned the program content. Some respondents thought that some seminar program planning groups focused on too narrow an interpretation of issues, and other groups relied too heavily on a lecture format rather than an experiential activity.

Still another criticism was the lack of follow-up after the completion of the course. It was suggested that the Leadership Alumni present regular programs and special events which would have the dual role of keeping the network of communication and understanding viable and would also have the added benefit of integrating all the leadership classes into a single alumni body.

Program Elements

Another section of the interview asked respondents to class-ify as strengths or weaknesses four elements of the program: the

seminar subjects, the use of advisors, freedom to develop seminar subjects as the planning group saw fit, and the small group discussion methodology. All respondents agreed that the subjects were appropriate. Two, however, suggested that the Curriculum Committee drop the seminars on race and regionalism. They felt that progress was being made in both areas and that the subjects were dead issues. Said a black broker, "I did not find the program on race useful at all. The subject is a tired old horse . . . . The interaction itself among class members is more meaningful than to drag that horse out again." Other respondents felt that race and regionalism were the most important content for the year, and that they affect every other subject throughout the year.

The use of past participants from the program as advisors for the current planning groups was viewed as both a strength and a weakness. Over 50% of the respondents interviewed viewed the advisors as "offering valuable suggestions" and "being able to share with planning groups information on past seminars on the same subject." Negative reactions to the use of advisors were, "Some advisors want to take too large a role and direct the program" and "advisors never attend the planning sessions." One interviewee believed the poor attendance of advisors had a positive effect on the program as "it forced us to draw upon ourselves, and looking back on the process, it was good."

Respondents viewed positively the other program elements: the practice of having each seminar planning group free to develop

Its topic as the group saw fit, and the small group discussion method
used in most of the programs. Said one corporate executive: "I was
impressed by the diversity of ideas in presenting programs which
showed the creativity in the group. If program planners had been
given too much direction, all the programs would have turned out
alike."

A positive element of the program, which 75% of the re-
spondents spontaneously mentioned was the practice of having the
monthly seminars take place at different locations throughout the
metropolitan area. One respondent said that the varied program
locations allowed participants "an opportunity to visit and check
out the newest things in town" and "let us see what is coming of
age in Richmond."

Another section of the survey elicited participant opinion
on positive and negative aspects of both the opening retreat and
the monthly seminars. Participant opinion was unanimous that the
high point of the retreat weekend was the small group discussions
with the current metropolitan Richmond leadership, which included
the Mayor, the state superintendent of public instruction, an
editorial-page editor, a county manager, a corporate executive,
and an arts director. Participants viewed the exchange as an
opportunity to interact with the city's decision makers. Negative
views varied. Several respondents mentioned not enough time with
the current leadership, and others viewed the particular choice of
community leaders with mixed reactions.

The two seminars singled out for approval both featured ex-
periential components. In one seminar, "Quality of Life," partici-
pants were assigned the role of welfare recipients and actually
applied for welfare from the city. Exercises in the other
seminar, "Women and the Power Structure," were designed to
illustrate how discrimination was perceived by women.

In response to the question, "What was the most significant
learning outcome as a result of program participation?" each in-
stance cited was an example of communication across race, gender,
or location. A white lawyer remembered:

> When I first looked at the list of participants and noticed
> one was a black Muslim, I had a completely different image
> from looking at his name on paper of what he would be like
> than what he really was. Through the process of getting to
> know him in a number of conversations, I discovered that he
> shared many of the same values I have: family, education.

Similarly, a black businessman commented on the significant learning
outcome for him as "networking." "I now know names and phone
numbers and faces of people I can call when I have a problem. I
now have empathy for certain things that I did not have before."
The actual process of "networking" was also significant for
another black male, a bank officer, who commented: "One thing I
learned, and I think about it often, is that although we have
differences, what we should do is talk. Other people are just
like you, and they have concerns for the city just like you."

Better understanding between races was the most significant
learning outcome for a number of other black and white respondents.
A white corporate executive described his experience by saying:

"You would be sitting in a small group and one of the blacks would say "If you were black, you would view it this way.'" A female executive expressed similar ideas:

> I learned that we do have a great many qualified, interested people who want to cooperate. I was impressed with the people who were there to work together and did so, even though shy. The program generally brought out those folks who were interested in getting things done. There is a synergism in the process, and basically, it is working. When we see people (from the class), we are old friends.

A divergent opinion on cooperation between races was expressed by a female community volunteer who said that the most significant learning experience for her was the realization that improvement in race relations will come slowly even among persons of good will. She commented: "I came up against a very strong individual. Whatever my good intentions were, they were not enough. You can't do enough. Whatever I did, it was not enough."

When asked if respondents would recommend the program to a friend, all answered, "I have."

Racial Attitude Change

The survey elicited participant opinion on racial attitude change. A consensus among those interviewed was that the community leadership class did offer participants an opportunity to meet and to interact with persons of a different race, and that there was heightened understanding of how persons of a different race view community issues. Most respondents felt that a total racial attitude change was not possible in a ten-month course.

A white lawyer explained his racial attitude change as a class participant:

> I think I did change my attitude toward how people of a different race view community issues. I found that things I never even thought about were viewed differently by persons of a different race or were thought of as problems.

On the other hand, a black banker said he changed his understanding of whites: "Mainly, I saw that there was a whole different world that I did not come in contact with. My concerns are a bit different. It made me think about things I had not thought about for a long time." Although blacks agree that the community training program did result in better understanding between races, "more has to be done." A female administrator said:

> Although I do believe that the class engendered a great deal more understanding, you're talking about only a few people. I'm not sure that outside classmembers can accomplish the same kind of understanding. However, I could see just from the comments that were made that people were tending to look at things differently than when they came into the program. When they hit racial situations, they cannot help but remember what happened.

Another black male city administrator took the position that race is not a divider in the leadership class. He pointed out that most of the participants from both races have similar economic, educational, and professional backgrounds. His comment: "If you are trying to assimilate persons of similar education, similar ideas, it has done that. But if you are trying to bridge the gap, it has not done that. People have been trying to do that for 200 years."

The questionaire also addressed another aspect of the research. Respondents were asked if the interracial contacts carried over into

their everyday lives and whether the contacts were business, community, or social contacts. Interviewees agreed that interracial contacts did carry over into their everyday lives, but that the contacts were weak contacts. Said one black class member: "I see only two or three members of my class regularly. Others, I would call if I needed them." Although there was some disagreement, in general, types of contacts were described as primarily business and community contacts with social contacts fewer than other contact types.

Gender Attitude Change

Although generally male respondents claimed that their attitude toward persons of a different gender was good, some statements reflect differently. A white lawyer admitted an attitude change toward women. He recalled that at the Retreat he called a female a "lady."

> I had never realized until up to that point what female
> human beings felt about labels attached to them. I
> realize now that you have to be sensitive to where people
> are coming from. It is consciousness-raising on different
> levels. With most of my older female clients, if I should
> call them "women," they would be offended. You are also
> aware that there are females who do not want to be called
> anything but "women." They object to being called "ladies."

A black male discussed his attitude change. "I had worked with women. But I had not had an opportunity to work with a lot of aggressive women and learn their point of view, their concerns, their wishes. Maybe, I changed my attitude toward women." A white male, on the other hand, admitted: "I sort of turned off those women I considered

to be strident. I would not let myself be affected by them. Some
of them sounded like something you would hear on television."

One comment made by several male respondents was that the
program did offer them an opportunity to get to know women who
held professional jobs. They also saw the program as giving male
participants a better understanding of "women who are doing things
in the community."

Most of the contact types enumerated by class members were
community contacts followed by business contacts. There were
fewer social contacts between male and female participants than
between black and white male class members. A black male explained
why he thought that males listed more community contacts than busi-
ness contacts. "I do not do business with friends. I refuse to
exploit my friends." Women participants did list more business
than community contacts. A black female reporter gave an explana-
tion of this phenomenon.

> Women have to work harder to get half as much done. Women
> who would be accepted in a program like this are looking at
> all ends that lead to the middle. They are maximizing their
> contacts. They are not conniving, they are smart. They are
> smart enough to know an opportunity and to use it.

City/County Attitude Change

In response to the question whether the training program
changed participant attitudes toward city/county issues, the con-
sensus was that the class did tend to make participants understand
the issues involved as metropolitan concerns. However, even though
interviewees understood the need for regional cooperation between

the city of Richmond and its surrounding counties, the question of how cooperation was to be accomplished remained a political issue with strong views expressed by both city and county residents.

Several city residents pointed out that county residents describe themselves as residents of the city. Said one participant: "When LMR participants go to New York, they are not from Goochland. They are from Richmond. That's the way it should be. So goes the city, so goes the county." It was his perception that the class seminar on regional cooperation "gave a far better impression of the city for county residents than vice versa."

Other city residents, on the other hand, felt that their understanding of county concerns had broadened as a result of the class. One white female city resident said: "The program on regional cooperation did away with the stereotypes I had in my mind. I had felt that the county residents were racially bigoted." A LMR participant who works and lives in the county said:

> I learned the city perspective at the seminar on regionalism.
> I live fifteen minutes away from the city, but I now see that
> the problems are the same. Since finishing the course, I
> have become involved with Richmond Renaissance and the Sixth
> Street Marketplace in downtown Richmond. I don't believe
> that would have happened without LMR.

Two black females expressed the idea that the seminar on regionalism was an impetus to seek solutions for the problem. A black city resident said: "I didn't realize the severity of the problem. The seminar brought that out. The effects of this inability to coordinate and cooperate must be recognized." Another suggested that the leadership course should develop a seminar on how the different governmental

city/county entities work and how a community leader "can get things
accomplished" in his own jurisdiction.

A negative opinion to the consensus that the seminar on region-
alism underlined the need for regional cooperation was expressed
by a black female health administrator who said that "real feelings
did not come out. The basic cause of friction is a black/white situ-
ation. Everything has to do with the black/white situation."

Organizational Memberships

A major objective of the training program was that partici-
pants use contacts formed during the class in action-oriented commu-
nity organizations that address the issues discussed in the course.
Respondents agreed that the program did make participants aware of
community needs and, for some, it was the impetus to join community
organizations. There was disagreement among the participants as
to whether or not the program compelled class members to join action-
oriented organizations.

A white female community volunteer, already involved in a
number of community organizations before taking the course, said
that the class changed the direction of her volunteerism. "I am
more sensitive to civic matters, and they mean more to me now be-
cause I know more. I'm interested in action-oriented organizations."

A black female administrator said that through contacts made in
the LMR class she was offered opportunities to join civic organizations
which had not been open to black females.

In the past, [an organization such as] Planned Parenthood has been a West End woman's need. Now it is beginning to be understood in the black community. Another organization is the Women's Resource Center at the University of Richmond. Very few black women attend the University of Richmond or attend the Center. I'm encouraging black women to take advantage of this resource.

A black female expressed an opposite opinion in that she did not think that graduates of the LMR course would join action-oriented boards, especially LMR participants whose class participation was sponsored by a large corporation.

When you get people [in the class] because somebody made them go, they will not change into the kind of person who would be useful on an action-oriented board. They're not going to stick their neck out. Expecting them to get on action-oriented boards and then be catalysts is unrealistic. Maybe it would happen in the future.

Several respondents suggested that the training program take a more active role in placing its graduates in action-oriented community organizations. A white male personnel manager said: "When people finish the course, there is a high energy level ready to join community organizations. If that strong desire is not immediately converted into memberships, the energy may be dissipated into other directions."

The consensus among the individuals interviewed was that Leadership Metro Richmond had provided a unique opportunity to form interpersonal contacts with persons of a different race, gender, and residence, that "networking" was the most significant outcome of the program, that networks of communication and understanding had been developed during the program and that these networks would be activated in organizations that addressed community concerns.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the present study, includ-
ing its purpose, methodology, and findings. The summary is followed
by the researcher's conclusions and recommendations for further study.

Summary

Purposes of the Study

The problem explored in this study was the effectiveness of
a community leadership development program in training identified
emerging community leaders to develop networks of communication and
understanding between the governmental, economic, and educational
segments of the city and to use these contacts in community organ-
izations that address the problems of the city. Particular aspects
of the problem which were analyzed were:

1. What interpersonal networks were set in motion during and
   after a short leadership program;

2. The use of the network structure by program participants in
   community organizational membership both during and after the
   completion of the program.

3. The association of race, gender, and residence as they relate
   to the origin, nature, and continuance of interpersonal net-
   works and community organizational memberships; and

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4. The importance of network analysis as a method of evaluating

   the outcomes of a community leadership development program.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 181 adults who were

selected by a committee of the board of Leadership Metro Richmond,

a volunteer organization and an arm of The Metropolitan Foundation,

to participate in the first four Leadership Metro Richmond classes,

1980-1984. Each class was a ten-month educative experience. Those

selected represented the diversity of the metropolitan population

and were black and white, male and female, city and county residents

of the area. They were identified further as emerging community

leaders with an interest in seeking governmental, political, and

volunteer roles in the future. Age ranged from the late twenties

to the fifties, with 33 being the median age. The group was repre-

sented in approximately equal parts by representatives of business

and industry, professional persons, and representatives from govern-

mental bodies and private agencies.

The Sample was divided into two groups for the purpose of com-

parison. Sample I was LMR IV, 1983-1984. Sample II was LMR I, 1980-

1981, LMR II, 1981-1982, and LMR III, 1982-1983.

Methodology

Data for this study was collected through a questionnaire and

in-depth interviews. The questionnaire was designed to answer the

two major questions of the study on the formation and continuance

of interpersonal networks and the formation and continuance of participant organizational memberships. The interviews were conducted to determine participant perceptions concerning the formation of interpersonal networks and community organizational memberships.

The questionnaire, designed by the researcher, contained three sections. Section 1 elicited personal demographic material. Section 2 concerned participant contacts and included a Contact Response Form which asked participants to check the names of those class members with whom they had contact before the class began, the frequency of that contact, and the type of contact. Section 3 investigated community organizational memberships and asked participants to identify which memberships addressed issues studied during the training class. The question of organizational memberships before the program began was addressed by an application form which elicited information on community memberships from all potential participants.

All 192 participants in the first four leadership programs completed both the contact response form and a membership application form. Of this number it was necessary to discard those of 11 individuals for various reasons, leaving a total of 181 usable responses.

Sample I participants, LMR IV, 1983-1984, completed the questionnaire three times: once in August 1983, again in January 1984, and in June 1984. Sample II, LMR 1980-1981; LMR II, 1981-1982, and LMR III, 1982-1983, filled in the questionnaire twice: once in August of the year each class began and again in June 1984.

An in-depth interview was conducted with 16 members of LMR III, 1982-1983, who were randomly selected to represent the diversity of the metropolitan population. LMR III was selected to be interviewed because the class was a recent class, but one that reflected any changes in the program since the first two classes.

Findings

In answer to Question 1, what interpersonal contacts were formed and maintained as a result of the Leadership Metro Richmond program, several findings were evident. Prior to the program contacts among emerging selected leaders were minimal. By June 1984 contacts among participants in all four classes had increased since the beginning of the class from a range of 70% to 392%. These percentages represent the percentage change in original recorded contacts with class participants pre-program as compared with participant contacts with class participants in June 1984. Time did not seem to affect the networking process. LMR I, 1980-1981, three years after the completion of the course in June 1984, reported a 363% increase in contacts which represented 348 contacts over a six-month period from June to December 1984, as compared with 81 contacts with fellow participants six months prior to the beginning of the program in August 1980. Although these percentages reported by participants do not indicate a percentage loss of contacts with class participants three years after the completion of the program, it can be assumed that contacts among participants will decrease over time.

Further research may indicate at what point in time contacts among class members begin to decrease.

Another finding was that contacts among participants prior to the program were not only minimal but were with participants of the same race, that is, white participants knew other white participants and blacks knew other blacks. Entry gender differences were not as apparent, but females named more contacts with male participants than with female participants in three out of four classes prior to the beginning of the program.

Contacts changed during and after the class with race as the variable. By June 1984 black participants had more contacts with white participants than with black participants in three out of four classes. Sample I participants, LMR IV, 1983-1984, filled in the contact form six months after the program began. The switch in interpersonal contacts by LMR IV blacks from black to white contacts began six months into the program. Gender differences did not occur. Females continued to have more contacts with male participants. In June 1984 females had more contacts with male participants in all four classes. Killworth and Bernard's (1978) research concurred with the present study concerning the gender of acquaintance networks. In a Reverse Small World experiment, they asked starters to write down their choice for the first link among 1267 targets. Eighty-two percent of the selection for the first link was male.

In summary, race seems to be a more important factor in the selection and maintenance of contacts than does gender. Even though race differences were reduced, as evidenced in the results

of a X^2 test which was conducted with race as the only variable, race differences seemed to be more important than gender.

The question of residence was not a factor in interpersonal contacts among program participants. Demographically, participants who lived in the city were similar in their interests, education, and professional life to participants who lived in the county. Politically, county and city residents differed on issues such as waste water treatment, county subdivisions, and tax rates, but these issues did not affect the networking process among program participants.

These findings were generally borne out by interviews with members of LMR III, who were asked what was the most significant outcome of the program. The consensus was that the networking process with persons of a different race, gender, and residence was the most significant result of the program. When asked if attitudes to persons of another race or gender changed as a result of the program, the conclusion was that bridges of understanding and communication across race and gender were built, but that real attitude change would come more slowly. One white male voiced his opinion on racial attitude change when he said, "There was not enough time in a ten-month experience to make real attitude change. However," he continued, "I did feel that my understanding of the problem increased and I am more able to view issues from a black as well as a white perspective now."

Question 1 was also concerned with another aspect of interpersonal contacts, and that was whether contacts formed were

social, work, or community contacts. A consistent finding on contact type was that black females in two out of four classes in June 1984 had more work contacts with other participants than did other categories of participants.

This conclusion was generally repeated in the interviews with black females, who stressed the fact that their career goals were of prime importance and that they, of necessity, had to use LMR contacts as work contacts rather than community or social contacts.

Another finding was that contacts among participants were more often community and business contacts than social contacts. For example, when there were social contacts among participants, they were white males and black males, and whites with whites and blacks with blacks, but rarely white males with black females or black males with white females.

Black males in two out of the four classes in June 1984 reported having more community contacts than other participants. Time did not seem to affect these community contacts. Three years after the completion of the course in June 1984, LMR I black males who began the program in 1980 reported having more community contacts than did other participant categories. Black males in LMR IV, immediately at the conclusion of the program in June 1984, also reported having more average community contacts than did other class participants. Since black males entering the program had expressed a desire to become more involved in the community, these figures show a desired outcome of the program.

Generally the data indicate that gender is a more important factor than race in contact type among participants in the first four LMR classes.

The data also showed that Leadership Richmond participants did join action-oriented organizations that also addressed issues studied in the program in the years after the conclusion of the program. Three out of four program participants reported more civic/community memberships than any other category in June 1984. These data also suggest that participants joined organizations that addressed issues discussed in a community development program.

Black females reported more political/government organization memberships in June 1984 in two out of four classes. This fact suggests that black females are a category more likely than other categories of participants to take action to bring about change in the community through political and government agencies.

Neither time nor residence seems to be a factor in organizational memberships. There were no differences in memberships of participants one, two, or three years after the program, nor did residence seem to affect memberships.

These conclusions were also borne out by class interviews. Both black and white males agreed that a community leadership program made them more aware of the needs of the community and also gave them the desire to be involved in meeting community needs with community action. Black females stressed in interviews that a way to gain visibility and acceptance in the community was through membership

in politically oriented groups, governmental appointment, and election to political office.

Conclusions

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the findings presented in Chapter IV. These pertain to the present study's findings related to the appropriateness of the community leadership model presented, the relationship of the findings to previous research, and the use of network analysis as a means of evaluation of community leadership development programs.

Appropriateness of the Leadership Model

The leadership development model of Leadership Metro Richmond did seem to be an appropriate model to bring about the two desired outcomes of the program: interpersonal networks of communication and understanding among emerging leaders of diverse backgrounds and the use of these contacts in action-oriented community organizations that addressed community problems. An objective of the program was to develop interpersonal contacts across race, gender, and residence among an emerging metropolitan leadership representing the political, business, educational, governmental, and volunteer segments of the community. Each of the 16 LMR III participants interviewed stated that the networking process was the single most significant outcome of the program. Said one white male executive new to the city, "I was able to make contacts with persons of a different race, gender, residential jurisdiction faster than I would have in any other way.

Meeting emerging leaders from all political, educational, and busi-
ness segments of the community was beneficial to me." Survey re-
search showed that prior to the program contacts among selected
emerging leaders were minimal. Of the few contacts that existed,
the contacts were whites with whites and black participants with
other black participants. In June 1984 at the conclusion of LMR
IV, and one, two, and three years after the conclusion of the first
three classes, interpersonal contacts with other participants dur-
ing a six-month period ranged from a 70% to 392% increase from
contacts prior to the beginning of the community leadership
program.

Another observation is that minority groups of both blacks
and women should be increased. Criteria for the selection process
needs to be reevaluated to see if the percentage of white male
participants in the first four classes (50%) needs to be reduced
to represent more effectively the demographics of the city
population.

Another conclusion of both the survey and interview data was
that the methodology of having participants present a topic of common
community concern in seminar form and then have the issue discussed
freely was an appropriate method of increasing awareness of community
concerns from differing points of view. Participants reported, how-
ever, that although the program did encourage heightened awareness
of community issues from a variety of views, the program did not
generate immediate attitude change. A ten-month seminar may be too

short a time to bring about attitude change. Some participants expressed the view that old attitudes were likely to re-emerge when participants returned to their own particular environments.

Another negative expressed was that sometimes seminar committees presented too bland an approach to community issues. It was suggested that some individuals representing major corporations did not feel entirely free to express their own personal opinions on issues.

A positive opinion of the program was the opportunity not only to know other participants whom in the normal course of life there would have been no chance to know, but also to enter into dialogue with the current community leadership. The custom of asking current political, educational, business, and volunteer leaders to the opening LMR retreat was viewed by all respondents interviewed as the highlight of the two-day retreat. Another positive element of the program was the custom of having seminars in different locations throughout the city which afforded participants an opportunity to visit educational, business, political, and volunteer locations which they may never have seen before.

An aspect of the networking process viewed as not entirely successful was the fact that participants knew other participants from their own leadership class but they did not know participants from other classes. An LMR alumni group has been formed with the express purpose of "keeping the network alive." This group presents

both social events and meetings where community issues are debated from a variety of viewpoints.

Another negative was expressed by some LMR alumni who wish the leadership group to endorse a community project. This issue has not been resolved. Since the participants have been selected to represent many diverse views, the opportunity to select a community project on which all would agree would be difficult. Many LMR graduates complete the course and return to the varied activities in the community that interested them before beginning the program. Others seem to want to continue as a body with its own projects. One way that this issue is being resolved is that LMR alumni are planning a retreat for all alumni to discuss these concerns.

In summary, the consensus among LMR participants was that the LMR leadership development model offered a unique opportunity to form linkages with persons in the community whom in normal life they may never have known. They felt that in most cases the program did not bring about an immediate attitude change, but that it did engender an awareness of community issues from a variety of views.

Another objective of the LMR leadership development model was to encourage membership in community organizations that addressed issues discussed in the program. This outcome was associated with particular categories of participants in the program. Both white and black males selected for the program entered the class with more business/professional memberships than any other category of membership. In LMR II, white males shifted their largest number of

organizational memberships to civic/community memberships. Males in all four classes believed that the program offered them incentives to become more involved in community organizational memberships.

White females ended the class experience with more civic/community memberships than other group memberships. This fact bears out the notion that women in the community have always gained recognition through community efforts rather than business efforts. This traditional pattern, though changing, is still in evidence in the memberships of LMR white females.

Black females, who, like their white counterparts, entered the program with community organizational memberships, completed the program with a tendency to join business/professional organizations and political/government bodies.

The consensus among LMR graduates was that the program model did encourage networking among participants and membership in action-oriented groups organized to address community issues.

Relationship of Findings to Previous Research

Data from the study seems to substantiate earlier research by Granovetter (1973), Freire (1970), and Gondolf (1980). Granovetter stressed "the strength of weak ties" as a methodology of bringing about community cohesion. Unlike other theorists who stressed strong ties in a community, he pointed out that individuals with strong ties tended to have similar attitudes which do not encourage openness to new ideas. Conversely, individuals with many weak ties with individuals of differing opinions tended to be more open to change. He

concluded that the more weak ties in a community, the more cohesive

the community. Data from the present study seems to suggest that,

although contacts across race, gender, and residence did increase

during the class, most participants regarded these ties as weak

ties. But all expressed the notion that they would feel free to

contact LMR contacts at any time.

The present study also concurred with other earlier network

analysis research. Stanley Milgram's (1967) small world research

attempted to investigate what network structure was necessary for

two strangers to make contact. The sender of a message from one part

of the country was asked to identify each intermediary as acquaintance

or friend. It was found that the chain was more apt to be completed

if the sender was an acquaintance. Korte and Milgram (1970) expanded

the small world study to research network acquaintance across race.

The crossover between white and black elements of the network was

more apt to be successful if the individual was identified as an

acquaintance, and usually the connection was occupational. These

findings relate to the present study's findings that contacts among

leadership participants were weak contacts and more often business

or community rather than social contacts.

The present study also relates well to Killworth and Bernard's

(1978) research concerning the association of gender with network

analysis. They discovered in a reverse small world experiment that

the sex of the next link in a chain could be predicted 82 percent

of the time and that the sex was male. This study showed that

females in all four classes had more male contacts than female contacts both during and at the conclusion of the program.

The leadership study seems also to concur with a Granovetter (1973) notion that structure may be a more important element in an individual's life than motivation. Granovetter conducted a study in 1974 on how individuals get a job. He stated that, although an individual's family and close ties may be motivated to help someone find a job, the opportunity to make a major career shift was conditioned by the number of weak ties an individual had with persons with a variety of different job information. He cites the primacy of structure over motivation. The leadership model also offers individuals in the community who may be strongly motivated to bring about positive change in community affairs the opportunity to form a network of different acquaintances across the contingencies of race, gender, occupation, and residence.

Network Analysis as a Method of Evaluation

Network analysis did prove to be an effective methodology for evaluating the two intended outcomes of the Leadership Metro Richmond program: the formation of interpersonal contacts among class participants across race and gender and participant memberships in action-oriented community organizations that addressed issues studied in the program.

Through a survey instrument designed to document interpersonal contacts over a period of four years after the completion of

the course, the researcher was able to trace contacts, contact type, and community memberships as they occurred and were maintained.

The survey instrument also allowed the researcher to trace across time the effect of race and gender on contacts, contact type, and organizational memberships. For example, survey data suggested that race was more important than gender in the formation and maintenance of interpersonal contacts across time, but that gender seems to affect contact type more than race. Males had more social contacts and females more work and community contacts.

Interview data concurred with the survey data. For example, one black participant explained why she agreed with the research that women were more likely to use LMR contacts as work contacts than men.

> Women understand the way that society is. They understand
> that LMR is an opportunity to make valuable work contacts.
> That's what smart women do.

Network analysis also was an effective way to trace the formation and maintenance of community memberships across time. In June 1984 participants in three out of four LMR classes recorded most average civic/community memberships. Since civic/community organizations usually address community issues, this type membership was a desired program outcome.

Network analysis also documented that before and after two classes black females had more government/political organization memberships than did other categories of participants. This data was also substantiated by interviews. A black government aide said:

Government has been a way in for black women. Government
has been more active in affirmative action than business
and that may be one reason why you see more black women in
government than in business.

Since political action is often required to bring about

social change, black women, although in the minority in the pro-

gram, may have a significant role to play in the future of the

city. This idea may be borne out by the fact that four persons in

the first four leadership classes have run for political office:

one white male, two white females, and one black female. The only

person elected was the black female.

Since the evaluation of community development programs must

be concerned with actual results in community leadership which occur

after a training program, a survey which traces networks across

race, gender, and time and then compares those quantitative results

in interviews may be an effective way of evaluating community devel-

opment programs.

Recommendations for Research

The present study has drawn attention to the formation and

maintenance of networks in a community leadership program and the

use of these networks in community organizations. Network analysis

as a methodology for evaluating a community leadership program has

been considered. The final section of this chapter will discuss

recommendations for further study that have been suggested by this

research.

The use of more precise statistical methods could be used to evaluate the outcomes of a community leadership program. The present use of survey research and in-depth interviews may be limited in precise information needed to evaluate the program.

The survey instrument has certain built-in problems. Persons filling in questions may be hurried and not want to take the time to answer questions precisely and honestly. Participants may also tend to give answers that do not bring out the negatives of the program. This issue was addressed by the researcher in the interviews when questions were asked about negative aspects of the program. Further research needs to be done on the development of an instrument to enable the researcher to obtain precise answers to questions.

Secondly, the sample could be larger and in a different locale. The present study used 181 individuals in a southeastern medium size city. Both larger and smaller community programs in cities in different areas of the country might be used as a basis of comparison with the current research to determine similarities and differences.

Third, the present study indicated that time was not a factor in the maintenance of networks. Since the present study was conducted over a period of four years, research on network maintenance for a longer period than four years is indicated. An a priori notion would be that contacts among participants in a community leadership program would be reduced over time. This finding did not occur in the first four LMR classes.

Fourth, since the program is designed to reflect the demographics of the area, attention should be given to encouraging more minority participation in the program. Criteria need to be developed for the selection process that will encourage the admission of more blacks and women into the program.

Finally, since network analysis is a new methodology for evaluating a community leadership program, further study and research on network analysis is indicated.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENTATION

Appendix A

<u>Letter Sent to Subsample of 1983-1984 Leadership Metro Richmond</u>
<u>Participants</u>

Interpersonal networks across time and across categories of
race, sex and residence, as well as organizational community
memberships that develop as a result of these linkages are of interest
in social science research.

You, as a member of the 1983-1984 Leadership Metro Richmond
program are a part of a class designed to create and maintain
interpersonal networks and resulting community memberships. It
would be of great value to me in developing a doctoral dissertation
if you would share some of your experiences while going through
the program.

You will be asked to complete the enclosed questionnaire three
times during and after the completion of the class. I have enclosed
a stamped, self-addressed envelope in which this first survey may
be returned. You will be asked to complete the same questionnaire
in January, 1984 and June, 1984. If you would like to receive
a summary of the findings of this study, please write the letter
"S" at the top of the first page of the questionnaire.

Your replies will be strictly confidential and will be reported
without the names of the persons, places or firms. I will be
looking forward to your reply. Thank you very much for your
cooperation.

Sincerely,

Anne F. Miller

Appendix A

Letter Sent to Subsample of the 1980-1981, 1981-1982, and 1982-1983 Leadership Metro Richmond Participants

Interpersonal networks across time and across categories of race, sex and residence, as well as organizational community memberships that develop as a result of these linkages are of interest in social science research.

You, as a former participant in the Leadership Metro Richmond program, were part of a class designed to create and maintain interpersonal networks and the resulting community memberships. It would be a great value to me in developing a doctoral dissertation if you would share some of your experiences with me since completing the program.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return to me as soon as convenient in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. If you would like to receive a summary of the findings of this study, please write the letter "S" at the top of the first page of the questionnaire.

Your reply will be strictly confidential and will be reported without the names of persons, places or firms. I will be looking forward to your reply. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Anne F. Miller

Appendix A

IMR Survey of Participant Networks, Participant Community Memberships before, during, and after the 1983 Class

Introduction: The questionnaire solicits information in three sections. Section 1 is background information concerning residency, education and occupation. Section 2 is concerned with participant networks with other members of the program, and Section 3 elicits information on participant organizational memberships.

Directions: · Please fill in all three sections of the questionnaire. Try to answer all the questions that apply to you.
                .   You may use pen or pencil.

Your Name:_____

(1) BACKGROUND INFORMATION

(1) I Live: (Check one)

Within the city limits   _____
In the county   _____
If the county, which county   _____

(2) How long have your lived in this community? (Check one)

Five Years or less   _____
Six to 10 Years   _____
11 to 15 years   _____
16 to 20 years   _____
Over 20 years   _____

(3) How far did you go in school? (Check one)

High School graduate   _____
High School plus short courses _____
Some college   _____
College graduate   _____
College graduate plus short courses _____
Advanced degree   _____

(4) Are you presently employed?

No   _____
Yes   _____
Full Time   _____
Part Time   _____

What is your title:

_____   _____

(2) INTERPERSONAL NETWORKS

Contact Response Form

Your Name:_____

Please check the boxes that describe your contacts over the last six months
with the other members of Leadership Metro Richmond. If you have had no
contact   , please check only the first box. If you have had
some contact, please also check the box that describes the area in which
most of that contact has occurred.

	Contacts Over the Last Six Months (Check One)				Primary Contact Situations (Check One)		
Don't Know No Contact	Less Than Once A Month	Approx. Once A Month	Several Times A Month	At Least Once A Week or More	Mostly Social	Mostly Work	Mostly Comm. Service
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(2) INTERPERSONAL NETWORKS (continued)

(a) Of those with whom you have had contact, please list the number of those with whom your contact involved reciprocal services. That is, the number of those with whom you have shared mutually beneficial services.

Total number of contacts:_____

(b) Of those with whom you have had contact, please list the number with whom you would describe your relationship as being on an especially cordial basis as compared with a casual basis; that is, those with whom you are especially friendly and share mutual confidences.

Total number of contacts:_____

(c) Have you made any contacts (social, business or community) with friends of your LMR contacts?

Yes_____   No _____

Total number of contacts:_____

If you answered yes, were the contacts: (check ones that apply)

Community: _____

Social: _____

Business: _____

(3). COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

Directions: Please identify the community organizations that you belong to currently. Circle your answers as they apply to each organizational memberships. To refresh your memory here are some types of organizational memberships.

Elective, Appointive Government Offices (City Council, Planning Commission)

Advisory Groups to Government Organizations (State Welfare Board, School Board)

Community Service Organizations (United Way, Red Cross)

Civic Clubs and Committees (Rotary, Hillcrest Assn.)

Churches and Religious Organizations (Board of Deacons, Church membership)

Cultural Organizations (Museum Council, Symphony Board)

Fraternal and Social Organizations (Lions, Garden Club)

Local Business Organizations (Chamber of Commerce, Better Business Bureau)

Political Organizations (Republican Party, Young Democrats)

Professional Occupational Interest Groups (State Bar Assn., Professional Engineers)

Veterans, Patriotic Organizations (Navy League, American Legion)

Print Name of Organization	How Frequently Do you Attend Meetings? 1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Occasionally 4. Frequently 5. Regularly	Are you Presently A Committee Member?	Do you Currently Hold Office?
(1)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes No	Yes No

Print Name of Organization	How Frequently Do You Attend Meetings? 1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Occasionally 4. Frequently 5. Regularly	Are You Presently a Committee Member?		Do You Currently Hold Office?	
(2)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(3)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(4)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(5)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(6)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(7)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(8)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(9)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No
(10)	1 2 3 4 5	Yes	No	Yes	No

(3) COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIPS (continued)

Directions: Please answer the following questions on organizations you have joined since beginning the Leadership program.

(1) Of the organizational memberships you have listed in the preceding section, how many addressed issues studied in LMR?

Total Number:_____

(2) Of the organizational memberships you have listed in the above section, how many are new organizations you have joined since beginning LMR?

Total number: _____

(3) Have you dropped any organizational memberships since beginning LMR?

Yes_____   No_____

If yes, list those you have dropped:

_____

_____

_____

(4) Have you taken any new leadership positions in community organizations since beginning LMR?

Yes_____   No_____

If yes, please list the position and the community organization:

_____

_____

(5) Have you run for political office since beginning LMR?

Yes_____   No_____

If yes, please list the political office:

_____

_____

(3) COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIPS (continued)

(6) Have you been appointed to any governmental boards, agencies, or committees since beginning LMR?

Yes_____   No_____

If yes, please list the names of the boards or agencies:

_____

_____

_____

(7) Do you plan to join the alumni group upon completion of LMR?

Yes_____   No_____

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Name: _____

1.   First, I would like to ask you about your experiences in LMR. Based on your own experiences in LMR III, I want to ask you about how you feel about the program in general.

    (a) What are some of the things you really liked about the program?

    (b) What about your dislikes? What are some of the things you really did not like?

    (c) Next, I'd like to ask you what you perceive as strengths and weaknesses of the program as a whole. To jog your memory I've listed a few elements.

        (1) Strengths:

            (a) What were the strengths of the seminar subjects?

            (b) What were the strengths of having individuals from past leadership classes serve as advisors for the seminar planning groups?

            (c) What were the strengths of having each seminar planning group free to develop the seminar topic as each group saw fit?

            (d) What were the strengths of using the small group discussion method as a technique to encourage discussion among all group members?

            (e) Were there other strengths of the program you wish to discuss?

        (2) Weaknesses:

            (a) What were the weaknesses of the seminar subjects?

            (b) What were the weaknesses of having individuals from past leadership classes serve as advisors for the seminar planning group?

            (c) What were the weaknesses of having each seminar planning group free to develop the seminar topic as each group saw fit?

        (d)   What were the weaknesses of using the small group discussion method as a technique to encourage discussion among all group members?

        (e)   Were there other weaknesses of the program you wish to discuss?

(d)   You have told me what you perceive as likes and dislikes, strengths and weaknesses of the LMR program as a whole. Now I'd like to ask you how you feel about specific activities.

        (1)   Which activities were most meaningful to you at the Retreat?

        (2)   Which activities were least meaningful to you at the Retreat?

        (3)   Which activities were most meaningful to you at the monthly seminars?

        (4)   Which activities were least meaningful to you at the monthly seminars?

(e)   As a participant, what was the most significant learning outcome for you?

(f)   Now, I would like you to suppose that a friend is considering applying for the program. The friend knows that you have recently completed LMR and wants to know if you would recommend the program. What would you say?

2.   Next, I would like to ask you about one of the objectives of the program which is that participants continue interpersonal contacts with persons of a different race, sex, and residential jurisdiction formed during LMR beyond and after the completion of the program.

   (a)   First I would like to ask you if the program offered you opportunities to form interpersonal contacts with persons of a different race. You have already completed a contact response form before you entered the program which said that you are a white male and that you had no contact with any of the black participants in the program before LMR III began.

        (1)   What opportunities did LMR offer you to form contacts with persons of a different race?

        (2)   What opportunities did LMR offer you to learn how persons of a different race view community issues of common concern?

(3) After completing LMR, how did your attitude change toward personal contacts with persons of a different race?

(4) How did the interpersonal contacts made in LMR III with persons of a different race carry over into your everyday life after the completion of the course?

(5) Next, I'd like to ask you about how you feel about personal contacts with persons of a different race made in LMR III when the contacts are categorized as community contacts, business contacts, and social contacts.

    (a) How has your attitude toward community contacts with persons of a different race changed since completing LMR III?

    (b) How has your attitude toward business contacts with persons of a different race changed since completing LMR III?

    (c) How has your attitude toward social contacts with persons of a different race changed since completing LMR III?

(b) In the pre-program contact response form you also said that you had had only two contacts with class participants of a different sex before LMR III began.

(1) What opportunities did LMR III offer you to form interpersonal contacts with persons of a different sex?

(2) What effect did these opportunities have on your attitude and perceptions of how persons of the opposite sex view community issues?

(3) After completing LMR III, how has your attitude toward an interpersonal network with persons of a different sex changed?

(4) How have the interpersonal contacts made with persons of a different sex carried over into your everyday life after the completion of LMR III?

(5) Next, I'd like to ask you how the type of contact affects the way you feel about interpersonal contacts with persons of a different sex.

    (a) How has your attitude toward community contacts with persons of a different sex changed since completing LMR III?

        (b)   How has your attitude toward business contacts with persons of a different sex changed since completing LMR III?

        (c)   How has your attitude toward social contacts with persons of a different sex changed since completing LMR III?

    (c) Your pre-program contact response form also stated that you are a resident of the city and that you did know a number of the participants who lived in the county.

        (1) How has LMR III changed your attitude toward the concerns of the persons who live in the county?

        (2) If a friend asked you to state the county position on an issue of common concern to both city and county, how would you do this?

(3) Last, I would like to ask you about a second objective of the program which is that LMR participants take a more active leadership role in community organizations that address the issues discussed in the program.

    (a) What leadership role have you taken in organizations that address the issues discussed in LMR III?

    (b) Has participation in LMR made any change in how you feel about the type of organizations that you join?

    (c) Has participation in LMR made any change in how you feel about cooperative community efforts with persons of a different race, sex, or residential jurisdiction?

    (d) What is the usefulness of LMR as a vehicle for increasing cooperation between persons of a different race, sex, or residential jurisdiction through community organizational memberships?

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY

TABLES 1-36

Appendix C

Summary of Instrumentation, Sample, Data Base,
Data Analysis and Time for Collection of Data

A. Research Question (1)

Instrumentation	Sample	Data Base	Data Analysis	Time
LMR Program Outline	LMR III 1982-1983	Table I	None	August 1982
Summary Data Collection, Treatment	LMR I, II, III, & IV	Table 2	None	August 1980– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 1	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 2	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 3	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 4	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 3	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 5	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 6	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I II & III	Table 7	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– August 1982

Instrumentation	Sample	Data Base	Data Analysis	Time
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 8	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– August 1982
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 9	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 10	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 11	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 12	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 13	Frequency Analysis	January 1984– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 14	Frequency Analysis	January 1984– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 15	Frequency Analysis	January 1984– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 16	Frequency Analysis	January 1984– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 4	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 5	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 17	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984

Instrumentation	Sample	Data Base	Data Analysis	Time
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 18	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 6	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 19	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 7	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 20	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 21	Frequency Analysis	August 1980- August 1982
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 22	Frequency Analysis	August 1980- August 1983
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 23	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 24	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 25	Frequency Analysis	August 1980- June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 26	Frequency Analysis	August 1980- June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 27	Frequency Analysis	August 1983- June 1984

Instrumentation	Sample	Data Base	Data Analysis	Time
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 28	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 8	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 9	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 29	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 10	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Figure 11	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR IV	Table 30	Frequency Analysis	August 1983– June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 31	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– August 1982
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 32	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– August 1982
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 33	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Application, Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 34	Frequency Analysis	June 1984
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 35	Frequency Analysis	August 1980– June 1984

Instrumentation	Sample	Data Base	Data Analysis	Time
Contact Response Form	LMR I, II & III	Table 36	Frequency Analysis	August 1980- June 1984

Table 1

1982-1983 Leadership Metro Richmond Program Outline

September 10-12, 1982   Orientation Retreat: Wintergreen
                        Goals of the Retreat were to provide opportunities
                        for a group of 50 men and women who were black and
                        white and residents of the city and residents of
                        the surrounding counties 1) to get to know one
                        another, 2) to foster a spirit of openness and
                        trust, 3) to develop leadership skills, 4) to
                        focus on current issues of the metropolitan
                        community, and 5) to interact in small groups
                        in an informal manner with current political,
                        governmental, educational, business, and
                        volunteer leaders.

October 1982   "Metropolitan Richmond--Historical Overview"
                        This program will look at the Richmond of the
                        past in order to achieve a better understanding
                        of the Richmond of the present.

November 1982   "Racism"
                        The examination of being "different"; the effects
                        of decision-making based on the color of an in-
                        dividual's skin. How best to manage diversity,
                        particularly in Richmond where many issues are
                        focused on black and white perspectives.

December 1982   "Quality of Life"
                        An in-depth overview of the cultural factors that
                        add to the betterment of life for the individual
                        and the community.

                                              (table continues)

Table I, continued

January 1983   "Public Safety"

                      The complex machinery that is responsible for the

                      protection of all citizens throughout Metropolitan

                      Richmond.

February 1983   "Regionalism"

                      Where are the common areas that the municipalities

                      can come together for mutual benefit? Will it be

                      transportation, education, politics? The pros and

                      cons will be delineated.

March 1983   "The Recession--Its Impact on Metropolitan Richmond"

                      An examination of the economic policies on a federal,

                      state, and local level and its resulting effects on

                      the community.

April 1983   "Business"

                      A comprehensive look at the business world in

                      Metropolitan Richmond. What are the contributions

                      of large and small businesses to the communities

                      and vice-versa?

May 1983   "Women and the Power Structure"

                      An awareness program designed to examine the dynamics

                      between men and women in various organizations--from

                      marriages to multi-national corporations. How have

                      the "sexual" roles changed and the impact on

                      Metropolitan Richmond.

June 1983   "The Future"

                      A study of future needs of the area and an under-

                      standing and commitment from Leadership graduates

                      to meet the needs. Where do we go from here?

                      Where can I make a contribution?

                      Graduation Day

Table 2

Summary of the Data Collection and Treatment

X—Data Collection

O—Treatment

	8/80	9/80	8/81	9/81	8/82	9/82	8/83	9/83	1/84	6/84
Class I 1980-1981	X	O								
Class II 1981-1982			X	O						
Class III 1982-1983					X	O				
Class IV 1983-1984							X	O	X	X

Table 3

Changes In Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In a Leadership Class Pre-Program, Mid-Program, Post-Program
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts

August 1983				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	38	10	2	2
White Female	11	14	3	4
Black Male	1	2	12	9
Black Female	3	2	9	7
Average	1.96	2.55	3.25	4.40 T= 129

January 1984				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	122	56	32	16
White Female	52	31	15	10
Black Male	27	19	16	14
Black Female	19	13	12	7
Average	8.15	10.82	9.38	9.40 T= 461

June 1984				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	177	56	51	20
White Female	65	43	30	9
Black Male	44	26	23	15
Black Female	28	19	21	8
Average	11.63	13.09	15.63	10.40 T= 635

Note N = 51

Table 4

Changes in Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In a Leadership Class Pre-Program, Mid-Program, Post-Program
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	1.41	0.91	0.25	0.40
White Female	0.41	1.27	0.38	0.80
Black Male	0.04	0.18	1.50	1.80
Black Female	0.11	0.18	1.13	1.40

January 1984				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	4.52	5.09	4.00	3.20
White Female	1.93	2.82	1.88	2.00
Black Male	1.00	1.73	2.00	2.80
Black Female	0.70	1.18	1.50	1.40

June 1984				
	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	6.56	5.09	6.38	4.00
White Female	2.41	3.91	3.75	1.80
Black Male	1.63	2.36	2.88	3.00
Black Female	1.04	1.73	2.63	1.60

Note.

N = 51

Table 5

Changes In Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In a Leadership Class Pre-Program, Mid-Program, Post-Program
With Race as the Only Variable

Sample I: LMR IV

August 1983

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	73	11	84	Whites	1.92	0.85
Blacks	8	37	45	Blacks	0.21	2.85
	81	48	T= 129			

$X^2 =$ (N=51) = 59.95 = .001

January 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	261	73	334	Whites	6.87	5.62
Blacks	78	49	127	Blacks	2.05	3.77
	339	122	T= 461			

$X^2 =$ (N=51) = 13.23 = .001

June 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	341	110	451	Whites	8.97	8.46
Blacks	117	67	184	Blacks	3.08	5.15
	458	177	T= 635			

$X^2 =$ (N=51) = 9.39 = .01

Table 6

Changes In Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Gender as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts and Mean Contacts

August 1983

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	53	23	76	Males	1.51	1.44
Females	26	27	53	Females	0.74	1.69
	79	50	= 129			

X^2 = (N=51) = 5.64 = n.s.

January 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	197	105	302	Males	5.63	6.56
Females	98	61	159	Females	2.80	3.81
	295	166	= 461			

X^2 = (N=51) = 0.59 = n.s.

June 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	295	117	412	Males	8.43	7.31
Females	144	79	223	Females	4.11	4.94
	439	196	= 635			

X^2 = (N=51) = 3.34 = n.s.

Table 7

<u>Entry Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants</u>
<u>In Three Leadership Classes with Race, Sex as Variables</u>

<u>Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts</u>

LMR I-August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	33	11	3	1	
White Female	6	2	1	1	
Black Male	3	1	4	4	
Black Female	0	4	4	3	T= 81
Average	1.68	2.25	1.71	2.25	N= 44

LMR II-August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	56	21	17	5	
White Female	20	15	6	4	
Black Male	10	7	40	13	
Black Female	4	5	23	2	T=248
Average	4.29	4.00	7.17	8.00	N= 48

LMR III-August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	23	18	3	8	
White Female	7	8	1	3	
Black Male	4	1	4	8	
Black Female	6	1	4	8	T=107
Average	1.74	3.50	1.43	6.75	N= 38

Table 8

Entry Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In Three Leadership Classes with Race, Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Mean Contacts

LMR I—August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	1.32	1.38	0.43	0.25
White Female	0.24	0.25	0.14	0.25
Black Male	0.12	0.13	0.57	1.00
Black Female	0.00	0.50	0.57	0.75

LMR II—August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	2.67	1.75	1.42	1.67
White Female	0.95	1.25	0.50	1.33
Black Male	0.48	0.58	3.33	4.33
Black Female	0.19	0.42	1.92	0.67

LMR III—August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	1.00	2.25	1.00	2.00
White Female	0.30	1.00	0.33	0.75
Black Male	0.17	0.13	1.33	2.00
Black Female	0.26	0.13	1.33	2.00

Table 9

Comparison of Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In Three Leadership Classes In June 1984 with Race, Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts

LMR I-June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	144	28	32	11	
White Female	21	9	4	5	
Black Male	40	10	10	15	
Black Female	4	4	5	6	T=348
Average	13.06	8.50	17.00	12.33	N= 28

LMR II-June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	80	64	12	6	
White Female	53	50	10	6	
Black Male	37	32	31	6	
Black Female	11	13	9	2	T=422
Average	12.93	17.67	12.40	6.67	N= 31

LMR III-June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
White Male	93	38	16	27	
White Female	53	19	10	17	
Black Male	24	9	10	14	
Black Female	20	8	5	7	T=370
Average	11.18	14.80	13.67	21.67	N= 28

Table 10

Comparison of Interpersonal Contacts Among the Participants
In Three Leadership Classes In June 1984 with Race, Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Mean Contacts

LMR I—June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	9.00	4.67	10.67	3.67
White Female	1.31	1.50	1.33	1.67
Black Male	2.50	1.67	3.33	5.00
Black Female	0.25	0.67	1.67	2.00

LMR II—June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	5.71	7.11	2.40	2.00
White Female	3.79	5.56	2.00	2.00
Black Male	2.64	3.56	6.20	2.00
Black Female	0.79	1.44	1.80	0.67

LMR III—June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
White Male	5.47	7.60	5.33	9.00
White Female	3.12	3.80	3.33	5.67
Black Male	1.41	1.80	3.33	4.67
Black Female	1.18	1.60	1.67	2.33

Table 11

Entry Contacts Compared with Contacts in June 1984
Among Participants for Three Leadership Classes with
Race as Only Variable

Sample II: LMR, I,II and III

August 1980: LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	52	6	58	Whites	1.58	0.55
Blacks	8	15	23	Blacks	0.24	1.36
	60	21	T= 81			

$X^2 = (N=44) = 25.84 = .001$

June 1984: LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	202	52	254	Whites	9.18	8.67
Blacks	58	36	94	Blacks	2.64	6.00
	260	88	T= 348			

$X^2 = (N=28) = 11.54 = .01$

August 1981: LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	112	32	144	Whites	3.39	2.13
Blacks	26	78	104	Blacks	0.79	5.20
	138	110	T= 248			

$X^2 = (N=48) = 68.15 = .001$

Table 11 (Continued)

June 1984: LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	247	34	281	Whites	10.74	4.25
Blacks	93	48	141	Blacks	4.04	6.00
	340	82 T= 422				

X^2 = (N=31) = 28.87 = .001

August 1982: LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	56	15	71	Whites	1.81	2.14
Blacks	12	24	36	Blacks	0.39	3.43
	68	39 T= 107				

X^2 = (N=38) = 21.38 = .001

June 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Whites	203	70	273	Whites	9.23	11.67
Blacks	61	36	97	Blacks	2.77	6.00
	264	106 T= 370				

X^2 = (N=28) = 4.61 - n.s.

Table 12

Entry Contacts Compared with Contacts In June 1984
Among Participants In Three Leadership Classes with
Gender as the Only Variable

August 1980: LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	43	17	60	Males	1.34	1.42
Females	11	10	21	Females	0.34	0.83
	54	27	T= 81			

X^2 = (N=44) = 2.61 - n.s.

June 1984: LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	226	64	290	Males	11.89	7.11
Females	34	24	58	Females	1.79	2.69
	260	88	T= 348			

X^2 = (N=28) = 9.53 = .01

August 1981: LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	123	46	169	Males	3.73	3.07
Females	53	26	79	Females	1.61	1.73
	176	72	T= 248			

X^2 = (N=48) = 0.85 - n.s.

Table 12 (Continued)

June 1984: LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	160	108	268	Males	8.42	9.00
Females	83	71	154	Females	4.37	5.92
	243	179	T= 422			

X^2 = 1.34
X^2 = n.s.

August 1982: LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	34	35	69	Males	1.31	2.92
Females	18	20	38	Females	0.69	1.67
	52	55	T= 107			

X^2 = (N=38) = 0.04 = n.s.

June 1984: LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Categories	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Males	143	88	231	Males	7.15	11.00
Females	88	51	139	Females	4.40	6.38
	231	139	T= 370			

X^2 = (N=28) = 0.07 = n.s.

Table 13

Changes In the Strength of Interpersonal Contacts of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts

January 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Time Spent	46	56	51	71
Mutual Services	43	48	22	20
Cordial Relationship	63	50	28	34

June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Time Spent	81	63	61	15
Mutual Services	83	51	42	23
Cordial Relationship	131	64	69	24

Table 14

Changes in the Strength of Interpersonal Contacts of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Mean Contacts

January 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Time Spent	1.70	5.09	6.38	14.20
Mutual Services	1.59	4.36	2.75	4.00
Cordial Relationship	2.33	4.55	3.50	6.80

June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Time Spent	3.00	5.73	7.63	3.00
Mutual Services	3.07	4.64	5.25	4.60
Cordial Relationship	4.85	5.82	8.63	4.80

Table 15

Changes in Second-Order Contacts of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Race and Sex as Variables

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
January 1984	48	51	10	13
June 1984	100	53	29	17
				T = 321

Table 16

Changes In Second-Order Contacts of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Race and Sex as Variables

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
January 1984	1.78	4.64	1.25	2.60
June 1984	3.70	4.82	3.63	3.40
				T = 321

Table 17

Changes In Contact Type of the Participants
In a Leadership Class Over Ten Month's Period
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts

August 1983

	White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	Average
Social Contacts	14	2	17	7	0.78
Work Contacts	22	18	9	8	1.12
Comm. Contacts	16	8	5	10	0.76
				T = 136	

January 1984

	White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	Average
Social Contacts	81	30	25	10	2.86
Work Contacts	67	54	14	13	2.90
Comm. Contacts	71	35	48	23	3.47
				T = 471	

June 1984

	White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	Average
Social Contacts	109	42	52	22	4.41
Work Contacts	75	48	34	30	3.67
Comm. Contacts	116	60	45	14	4.60
				T = 647	

Table 18

Changes in Contact Type of the Participants
In a Leadership Class Over Ten Month's Period
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	0.52	0.18	2.13	1.40
Work Contacts	0.81	1.64	1.13	1.60
Comm. Contacts	0.59	0.73	0.63	2.00

January 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	3.00	2.73	3.13	2.00
Work Contacts	2.48	4.91	1.75	2.60
Comm. Contacts	2.63	3.18	6.00	4.60

June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	4.04	3.82	6.50	4.40
Work Contacts	2.78	4.36	4.25	6.00
Comm. Contacts	4.30	5.45	5.63	2.80

Table 19

Changes in Contact Type of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Ten Month's Period
With Race as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts and Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	16	24	40	Social Contacts	0.48	1.85
Work Contacts	40	17	57	Work Contacts	1.05	1.31
Community Contacts	24	15	39	Community Contacts	0.63	1.15
	80	56 = 136				

$X^2 = (N=51) = 9.00 = .05$

January 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	111	35	146	Social Contacts	2.92	2.69
Work Contacts	121	27	148	Work Contacts	3.18	2.08
Community Contacts	106	71	177	Community Contacts	2.79	5.46
	338	133 = 471				

$X^2 = (N=51) = 20.92 = .001$

June 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	151	74	225	Social Contacts	3.97	5.69
Work Contacts	123	64	187	Work Contacts	3.24	4.92
Community Contacts	176	59	235	Community Contacts	4.63	4.54
	450	197 = 647				

$X^2 = (N=51) = 5.05 = n.s.$

Table 20

Changes In Contact Type of the Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Ten Month's Period
With Gender as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Contacts and Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	31	9	40	Social Contacts	0.89	0.56
Work Contacts	31	26	57	Work Contacts	0.89	1.63
Community Contacts	21	18	39	Community Contacts	0.60	1.13
	83	53 = 136				

X^2 = (N=51) = 6.48 = .05

January 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	106	40	146	Social Contacts	3.03	2.50
Work Contacts	81	67	148	Work Contacts	2.31	4.19
Community Contacts	119	58	177	Community Contacts	3.40	3.63
	306	165 = 471				

X^2 = (N=51) = 10.96 = .01

June 1984

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	161	64	225	Social Contacts	4.60	4.00
Work Contacts	109	78	187	Work Contacts	3.11	4.88
Community Contacts	161	74	235	Community Contacts	4.60	4.63
	431	216 = 647				

X^2 = (N=51) = 8.69 = .05

Table 21

Comparison of Entry Contact Type of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs with Race, Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts

LMR I - August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	11	2	0	0	= 0.30
Work Contacts	22	6	5	4	= 0.84
Comm. Contacts	9	8	6	7	= 0.68
					T = 80

LMR II - August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	13	13	25	9	= 1.25
Work Contacts	39	23	41	8	= 2.31
Comm. Contacts	31	12	16	5	= 1.33
					T = 235

LMR III - August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	9	9	5	8	= 0.82
Work Contacts	24	8	4	9	= 1.18
Comm. Contacts	7	11	2	10	= 0.79
					T = 106

Table 22

Comparison of Entry Contact Type of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs with Race, Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Mean Contacts

LMR I - August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	0.44	0.25	0.00	0.00
Work Contacts	0.88	0.75	0.71	1.00
Comm. Contacts	0.36	1.00	0.86	1.75

LMR II - August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	0.62	1.08	2.08	3.00
Work Contacts	1.86	1.92	3.42	2.67
Comm. Contacts	1.48	1.00	1.33	1.67

LMR III - August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	0.39	1.13	1.67	2.00
Work Contacts	1.04	1.00	1.33	2.25
Comm. Contacts	0.30	1.38	0.67	2.50

Table 23

Comparison of Contact Type of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs in June 1984
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts

LMR I - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	107	14	9	8	= 4.93
Work Contacts	55	12	14	27	= 3.86
Comm. Contacts	63	18	41	2	= 4.43
					T = 370

LMR II - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	48	68	35	10	= 5.19
Work Contacts	42	29	16	7	= 3.03
Comm. Contacts	64	62	11	18	= 5.00
					T = 410

LMR III - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Social Contacts	58	28	10	17	= 4.04
Work Contacts	64	25	19	15	= 4.39
Comm. Contacts	68	21	12	17	= 4.21
					T = 354

Table 24

Comparison of Contact Type Among Participants
In Three Leadership Programs in June 1984
With Race and Sex as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Mean Contacts

LMR I - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	6.69	2.33	3.00	2.67
Work Contacts	3.44	2.00	4.67	9.00
Comm. Contacts	3.94	3.00	13.67	0.67

LMR II - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	3.43	7.56	7.00	3.33
Work Contacts	3.00	3.22	3.20	2.33
Comm. Contacts	4.57	6.89	2.20	6.00

LMR III - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Social Contacts	3.41	5.60	3.33	5.67
Work Contacts	3.76	5.00	6.33	5.00
Comm. Contacts	4.00	4.20	4.00	5.67

Table 25

Entry Contact Type Compared with Contact Type in June 1984
For Three Leadership Classes with Race as the Variable

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts and Number of
Mean Contacts

August 1980 - LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	13	0	13	Social Contacts	0.39	0.00
Work Contacts	28	9	37	Work Contacts	0.85	0.82
Community Contacts	17	13	30	Community Contacts	0.52	1.18
	58	22 T = 80				

$X^2 = (N=44) = 8.90 = .05$

June 1984 - LMR I

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	121	17	138	Social Contacts	5.50	2.83
Work Contacts	67	41	108	Work Contacts	3.05	6.83
Community Contacts	81	43	124	Community Contacts	3.68	7.17
	269	101 T= 370				

$X^2 = (N=28) = 25.19 = .001$

August 1981 - LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	26	34	60	Social Contacts	0.79	2.27
Work Contacts	62	49	111	Work Contacts	1.88	3.27
Community Contacts	43	21	64	Community Contacts	1.30	1.40
	131	104 T= 235				

$X^2 = (N=48) = 7.14 = .05$

Table 25 (Continued)

June 1984 - LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	116	45	161	Social Contacts	5.04	5.63
Work Contacts	71	23	94	Work Contacts	3.09	2.88
Community Contacts	126	29	155	Community Contacts	5.48	3.63
	313	97 T= 410				

$X^2 = (N=31) = 3.78 = $ n.s.

August 1982 - LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	18	13	31	Social Contacts	0.58	1.86
Work Contacts	32	13	45	Work Contacts	1.03	1.86
Community Contacts	18	12	30	Community Contacts	0.58	1.71
	68	38 T= 106				

$X^2 = (N=38) = 1.67 = $ n.s.

June 1984 - LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks			Whites	Blacks
Social Contacts	86	27	113	Social Contacts	3.91	4.50
Work Contacts	89	34	123	Work Contacts	4.05	5.67
Community Contacts	89	29	118	Community Contacts	4.05	4.83
	264	90 T= 354				

$X^2 = (N=28) = 0.50 = $ n.s.

Table 26

Entry Contact Type Compared with Contact Type in June 1984
For Three Leadership Programs with Gender as the Variable

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Contacts and Number of
Mean Contacts

August 1980 - LMR I

	Number of Contacts Males	Females			Mean Contacts Males	Females
Social Contacts	11	2	13	Social Contacts	0.34	0.58
Work Contacts	27	10	37	Work Contacts	0.84	0.83
Community Contacts	15	15	30	Community Contacts	0.47	1.25
	53	27 T = 80				

$X^2 = (N=44) = 6.26 = .05$

June 1984 - LMR I

	Number of Contacts Males	Females			Mean Contacts Males	Females
Social Contacts	116	22	138	Social Contacts	3.63	1.83
Work Contacts	69	39	108	Work Contacts	2.16	3.25
Community Contacts	104	20	124	Community Contacts	3.25	1.67
	289	81 T= 370				

$X^2 = (N=28) = 18.05 = .001$

August 1981 - LMR II

	Number of Contacts Males	Females			Mean Contacts Males	Females
Social Contacts	38	22	60	Social Contacts	1.15	1.47
Work Contacts	80	31	111	Work Contacts	2.42	2.07
Community Contacts	47	17	64	Community Contacts	1.42	1.13
	165	70 T= 235				

$X^2 = (N=48) = 1.84 = n.s.$

Table 26 (Continued)

June 1984 – LMR II

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	83	78	161	Social Contacts	4.37	6.50
Work Contacts	58	36	94	Work Contacts	3.05	3.00
Community Contacts	75	80	155	Community Contacts	3.95	6.67
	216	194	T= 410			

$X^2 = (N=31) = 4.29 = $ n.s.

August 1982 – LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	14	17	31	Social Contacts	0.54	1.42
Work Contacts	28	17	45	Work Contacts	1.08	1.42
Community Contacts	9	21	30	Community Contacts	0.35	1.75
	51	55	T= 106			

$X^2 = (N=38) = 7.63 - .05$

June 1984 – LMR III

	Number of Contacts				Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Social Contacts	68	45	113	Social Contacts	3.40	5.63
Work Contacts	83	40	123	Work Contacts	4.15	5.00
Community Contacts	80	38	118	Community Contacts	4.00	4.75
	231	123	T= 354			

$X^2 = (N=28) = 1.90 = $ n.s.

Table 27

Changes In Organizational Memberships of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Ten Month's Period
With Race and Gender as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Memberships

August 1983

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/ Government	5	3	3	7 = 0.35
Civic/ Community	49	28	9	13 = 1.94
Religious/ Educational	36	21	10	3 = 1.37
Business/ Professional	54	24	16	13 = 2.10
				T = 294
Average	5.33	6.91	4.75	7.20

January 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/ Government	11	11	5	7 = 0.67
Civic/ Community	68	31	13	13 = 2.45
Religious/ Educational	44	22	15	3 = 1.65
Business/ Professional	59	25	16	14 = 2.24
				T= 357
Average	6.74	8.09	6.13	7.40

Table 27 (Continued)

June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/ Government	15	19	9	8 = 1.00
Civic/ Community	80	36	16	13 = 2.84
Religious/ Educational	48	23	17	5 = 1.82
Business/ Professional	62	26	16	15 = 2.33
				T= 408
Average	7.59	9.45	7.25	8.20

Table 28

Changes in Organizational Memberships of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Ten Month's Period
With Race and Gender as Variables

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Mean Memberships

August 1983

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.19	0.27	0.38	1.40
Civic/Community	1.81	2.55	1.13	2.60
Religious/Educational	1.33	1.91	1.25	0.60
Business/Professional	2.00	2.18	2.00	2.60

January 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.41	1.00	0.63	1.40
Civic/Community	2.52	2.82	1.63	2.60
Religious/Educational	1.63	2.00	1.85	0.60
Business/Professional	2.19	2.27	2.00	2.80

June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.56	1.73	1.13	1.60
Civic/Community	2.96	3.27	2.00	2.60
Religious/Educational	1.78	2.09	2.13	1.00
Business/Professional	2.30	2.36	2.00	3.00

Table 29

Changes In Organizational Memberships of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Race as the Variable

Sample I: Number of Memberships and Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983

	Number of Memberships			Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Political/ Government	8	10 = 18	Political/ Government	0.21	0.77
Civic/ Community	77	22 = 99	Civic/ Community	2.03	1.69
Religious/ Educational	57	13 = 70	Religious/ Educational	1.50	1.00
Business/ Professional	78	29 =107	Business/ Professional	2.05	2.23
	220	74 =294			

X^2 = (N=51) = 11.13 = .01

January 1984

	Number of Memberships			Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Political/ Government	22	12 = 34	Political/ Government	0.58	0.92
Civic/ Community	99	26 =125	Civic/ Community	2.61	2.00
Religious/ Educational	66	18 = 84	Religious/ Educational	1.74	1.38
Business/ Professional	84	30 =114	Business/ Professional	2.21	2.31
	271	86 =357			

X^2 = (N=51) = 3.70 = n.s.

Table 29 (Continued)

June 1984

	Number of Memberships			Mean Contacts	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Political/ Government	34	17 = 51	Political/ Government	0.89	1.31
Civic/ Community	116	29 =145	Civic/ Community	3.05	2.23
Religious/ Educational	71	22 = 93	Religious/ Education	1.87	1.69
Business/ Professional	88	31 =119	Business/ Professional	2.32	2.38
	309	99 =408			

X^2 = (N=51) = 3.94 = n.s.

Table 30

Changes In Organizational Memberships of Participants
In a Leadership Program Over a Period of Ten Months
With Gender as the Variable

Sample I: LMR IV, Number of Memberships and Number of Mean Contacts

August 1983

| | Number of Memberships | | | Mean Contacts | |
	Males	Females		Males	Females
Political/ Government	8	10 = 18	Political/ Government	0.23	0.63
Civic/ Community	58	41 = 99	Civic/ Community	1.66	2.56
Religious/ Educational	46	24 = 70	Religious/ Educational	1.31	1.50
Business/ Professional	70	37 =107	Business/ Professional	2.00	2.31
	182	112 =294			

$X^2 = (N=51) = 3.78 = $ n.s.

January 1984

| | Number of Memberships | | | Mean Contacts | |
	Males	Females		Males	Females
Political/ Government	16	18 = 34	Political/ Government	0.46	1.13
Civic/ Community	81	44 =125	Civic/ Community	2.31	2.75
Religious/ Educational	59	25 = 84	Religious/ Educational	1.69	1.56
Business/ Professional	75	39 =114	Business/ Professional	2.14	2.44
	231	126 =357			

$X^2 = (N=51) = 5.82 = $ n.s.

Table 30 (Continued)

June 1984

	Number of Memberships			Mean Contacts	
	Males	Females		Males	Females
Political/ Government	24	27 = 51	Political/ Government	0.69	1.69
Civic/ Community	96	49 =145	Civic/ Community	2.74	3.06
Religious/ Educational	65	28 = 93	Religious/ Education	1.86	1.75
Business/ Professional	78	41 =119	Business/ Professional	2.23	2.56
	263	145 =408			

X^2 = (N=51) = 8.18 = .05

Table 31

Comparison of Organizational Memberships of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs with Race, Gender as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Entry Number of Memberships

LMR I - August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	4	3	6	5 = 0.41
Civic/Community	38	9	3	9 = 1.34
Religious/Educational	12	7	3	6 = 0.64
Business/Professional	46	8	9	4 = 1.52
Average	4.00	3.38	3.00	6.00 T = 172

LMR II - August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0	13	12	3 = 0.58
Civic/Community	40	22	6	8 = 1.58
Religious/Educational	26	17	13	5 = 1.27
Business/Professional	41	16	18	6 = 1.69
Average	5.10	5.67	4.08	7.33 T = 246

LMR III - August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	11	7	12	4 = 0.89
Civic/Community	19	21	14	9 = 1.66
Religious/Educational	20	7	4	2 = 0.87
Business/Professional	23	6	5	7 = 1.08
Average	3.17	5.13	11.67	5.50 T = 171

Table 32

Comparison of Organizational Memberships of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs with Race, Gender as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Entry Number of Mean Memberships

LMR I - August 1980

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.16	0.38	0.86	1.25
Civic/Community	1.52	1.13	0.43	2.25
Religious/Educational	0.48	0.88	0.43	1.50
Business/Professional	1.84	1.00	1.29	1.00

LMR II - August 1981

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.00	1.08	1.00	1.00
Civic/Community	1.90	1.83	0.50	2.67
Religious/Educational	1.24	1.42	1.08	1.67
Business/Professional	1.95	1.33	1.50	2.00

LMR III - August 1982

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.48	0.88	4.00	1.00
Civic/Community	0.83	2.63	4.67	2.25
Religious/Educational	0.87	0.88	1.33	0.50
Business/Professional	1.00	0.75	1.67	1.75

Table 33

Comparison of June 1984 Organizational Memberships of Participants
In Three Leadership Programs with Race, Gender as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Memberships

LMR I - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Political/Government	9	4	2	9	= 0.86
Civic/Community	22	8	2	0	= 1.14
Religious/Educational	17	9	5	2	= 1.18
Business/Professional	27	2	3	7	= 1.39
Average	4.69	3.83	4.00	6.00	T = 128

LMR II - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Political/Government	6	11	7	4	= 0.90
Civic/Community	25	23	10	7	= 2.10
Religious/Educational	20	14	9	4	= 1.52
Business/Professional	20	8	6	7	= 1.32
Average	5.07	6.22	6.40	7.33	T = 181

LMR III - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female	
Political/Government	5	2	2	5	= 0.50
Civic/Community	15	14	7	8	= 1.57
Religious/Educational	20	5	4	8	= 1.32
Business/Professional	26	4	2	4	= 1.29
Average	3.88	5.00	5.00	8.33	T = 131

Table 34

Comparison of June 1984 Organizational Memberships of Participants
in Three Leadership Programs with Race, Gender as Variables

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Mean Contacts

LMR I - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.56	0.67	0.67	3.00
Civic/Community	1.38	1.33	0.67	0.00
Religious/Educational	1.06	1.50	1.67	0.67
Business/Professional	1.69	0.33	1.00	2.33

LMR II - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.43	1.22	1.40	1.33
Civic/Community	1.79	2.56	2.00	2.33
Religious/Educational	1.43	1.56	1.80	1.33
Business/Professional	1.43	0.89	1.20	2.33

LMR III - June 1984

	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Black Female
Political/Government	0.29	0.40	0.67	1.67
Civic/Community	0.88	2.80	2.33	2.67
Religious/Educational	1.18	1.00	1.67	2.67
Business/Professional	1.53	0.80	0.67	1.33

Table 35

Entry Organizational Memberships Compared with Memberships in June 1984
For Three Leadership Programs with Race as the Variable

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Memberships and Number of
Mean Memberships

August 1980 – LMR I

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	7	11 = 18	Polit./Gov't	0.21	1.00
Civic/Comm.	47	12 = 59	Civic/Comm.	1.42	1.09
Rel./Ed.	19	9 = 28	Rel./Ed.	0.58	0.82
Bus./Profess.	54	13 = 67	Bus./Profess.	1.64	1.18
	127	45 =172			

$X^2 = (N=44) = 14.51 = .01$

June 1984 – LMR I

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	13	11 = 24	Polit./Gov't	0.59	1.83
Civic/Comm.	30	2 = 32	Civic/Comm.	1.36	0.33
Rel./Ed.	26	7 = 33	Rel./Ed.	1.18	1.17
Bus./Profess.	29	10 = 39	Bus./Profess.	1.32	1.67
	98	30 =128			

$X^2 = (N=28) = 12.14 = .01$

August 1981 – LMR II

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	13	15 = 28	Polit./Gov't	0.39	1.00
Civic/Comm.	62	14 = 76	Civic/Comm.	1.88	0.93
Rel./Ed.	43	18 = 61	Rel./Ed.	1.30	1.20
Bus./Profess.	57	24 = 81	Bus./Profess.	1.73	1.60
	175	71 =246			

$X^2 = (N=48) = 12.41 = .01$

June 1984 – LMR II

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	17	11 = 28	Polit./Gov't	0.74	1.38
Civic/Comm.	48	17 = 65	Civic/Comm.	2.09	2.13
Rel./Ed.	34	13 = 47	Rel./Ed.	1.48	1.63
Bus./Profess.	28	13 = 41	Bus./Profess.	1.22	1.63
	127	54 =181			

$X^2 = (N=31) = 1.79 = n.s.$

Table 35 (Continued)

August 1982 - LMR III

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	18	16 = 34	Polit./Gov't	0.58	2.29
Civic/Comm.	40	23 = 63	Civic/Comm.	1.29	3.29
Rel./Ed.	27	6 = 33	Rel./Ed.	0.87	0.86
Bus./Profess.	29	12 = 41	Bus./Profess.	0.94	1.71
	114	57 =171			

$X^2 = (N=38) = 6.88 = $ n.s.

June 1984 - LMR III

	Number of Memberships			Mean Memberships	
	Whites	Blacks		Whites	Blacks
Polit./Gov't	7	7 = 14	Polit./Gov't	0.32	1.17
Civic/Comm.	29	15 = 44	Civic/Comm.	1.32	2.50
Rel./Ed.	25	12 = 37	Rel./Ed.	1.14	2.00
Bus./Profess.	30	6 = 36	Bus./Profess.	1.36	1.00
	91	40 =131			

$X^2 = (N=28) = 6.10 = $ n.s.

Table 36

Entry Organizational Memberships Compared with Memberships in June 1984
For Three Leadership Programs with Gender as the Variable

Sample II: LMR I, LMR II, LMR III, Number of Memberships and Number of
Mean Memberships

August 1980 - LMR I

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	10	8	= 18	Polit./Gov't	0.32	0.67
Civic/Comm.	41	18	= 59	Civic/Comm.	1.28	1.50
Rel./Ed.	15	13	= 28	Rel./Ed.	0.47	1.08
Bus./Profess.	55	12	= 67	Bus./Profess.	1.72	1.00
	121	51	=172			

X^2 = (N=44) = 10.12 = .05

June 1984 - LMR I

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	11	13	= 24	Polit./Gov't	0.58	1.44
Civic/Comm.	24	8	= 32	Civic/Comm.	1.26	0.89
Rel./Ed.	22	11	= 33	Rel./Ed.	1.16	1.22
Bus./Profess.	30	9	= 39	Bus./Profess.	1.58	1.00
	87	41	=128			

X^2 = (N=28) = 7.59 = n.s.

August 1981 - LMR II

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	12	16	= 28	Polit./Gov't	0.36	1.07
Civic/Comm.	46	30	= 76	Civic/Comm.	1.39	2.00
Rel./Ed.	39	22	= 61	Rel./Ed.	1.13	1.47
Bus./Profess.	59	22	= 81	Bus./Profess.	1.79	1.47
	156	90	=246			

X^2 = (N=48) = 8.48 = .05

June 1984 - LMR II

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	13	15	= 28	Polit./Gov't	0.68	1.25
Civic/Comm.	35	30	= 65	Civic/Comm.	1.84	2.50
Rel./Ed.	29	18	= 47	Rel./Ed.	1.53	1.50
Bus./Profess.	26	15	= 41	Bus./Profess.	1.37	1.25
	103	78	=181			

X^2 = (N=31) = 2.65 = n.s.

Table 36 (Continued)

August 1982 - LMR III

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	23	11 = 34	Polit./Gov't		0.88	0.92
Civic/Comm.	33	30 = 63	Civic/Comm.		1.27	2.50
Rel./Ed.	24	9 = 33	Rel./Ed.		0.92	0.75
Bus./Profess.	28	13 = 41	Bus./Profess.		1.08	1.08
	108	63 =171				

X^2 = (N=38) = 5.21 - n.s.

June 1984 - LMR III

	Number of Memberships				Mean Memberships	
	Males	Females			Males	Females
Polit./Gov't	11	13 = 24	Polit./Gov't		0.58	1.44
Civic/Comm.	24	8 = 32	Civic/Comm.		1.26	0.89
Rel./Ed.	22	11 = 33	Rel./Ed.		1.16	1.22
Bus./Profess.	30	9 = 39	Bus./Profess.		1.64	1.00
	87	40 =128				

X^2 = (N=28) = 7.59 = n.s.

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THE LEADERSHIP METRO RICHMOND PROGRAM: ITS EFFECT
ON INTERPERSONAL CONTACTS AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL
MEMBERSHIPS

by

Anne Folkes Miller

Committee Chairman: Harold W. Stubblefield
Adult and Continuing Education

(ABSTRACT)

The problem explored in this study was the effectiveness of

a community leadership development program in training identified

emerging community leaders to develop networks of communication and

understanding between the governmental, economic, and educational

elements of the city and to use these contacts in community organ-

izations that address the problems of the city.

Attention was given to what networks were in place before,

during, and after a short leadership program. Contact type was

addressed. Secondly, the study analyzed the use of network struc-

ture by participants in community organizations. The association

of race and gender was considered. Finally, the use of network

analysis as a method of evaluating the outcomes of a community

leadership program was researched.

Findings on interpersonal contacts were similar in four

classes. Prior to the program contacts were minimal. By June 1984

contacts among participants in all four classes increased from a

range of 70% to 392%. Another finding was that contacts among
participants prior to the program were with those of the same race.

Contacts changed during and after the class. By June 1984
black participants in three of the four classes surveyed had more
contacts with whites than with blacks. White participants
continued to have most contacts with whites. Race seems to be a
more important factor in the selection and maintenance of contact
than does gender.

These findings were generally borne out by LMR II interviews
who said that the networking process with persons of a different
race, gender, and residence was the single most important outcome
of the program.

Findings on contact type suggest that gender is more impor-
tant than race in contact type. Black females' contacts with
fellow participants were usually work contacts; male contacts were
community contacts.

Neither race nor gender was significant in community organ-
izational memberships of participants. However, participant member-
ships shifted from business/professional memberships to civic/
government memberships, a desired program outcome, in three out of
four classes. Black females joined more political/government organ-
izations both before and after the program as well as business/
professional organizations. White females, on the other hand,
joined more civic/community organizations and black males joined
more educational/religious organizations.

Program outcomes suggest that the leadership development model of Leadership Metro Richmond seems to be an appropriate model to bring about the desired outcomes of the program.