

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

“Gumboots and Grassroots”

Exploring leadership for social change at a grassroots level in New Zealand

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of:

Masters of Business Studies

in

Management

at

Massey University, Albany, New Zealand

Eloise Alison Neeley

2017

Abstract

The primary aim of this study was to explore the motivations underpinning three agri-women's involvement in grassroots associations. The research investigated leadership processes within the groups and sought to understand the impact of three specific projects in the context of grassroots leadership for social change.

Grassroots associations have been described as innovative networks of people sharing common goals and vision, that recognise and respond to local community needs, often motivated by a need to create societal and environmental change. Future climatic and sustainability challenges predicted for New Zealand's agri-sector provide the impetus to support and increase this collective leadership capacity.

Voluntary groups such as these have largely been ignored by leadership scholars, however their informal, decentralised structures and collective decision-making processes offer unique opportunities to view leadership in a different way, a way that may be essential in the complex world of the 21st century. Furthermore, the context of this research in rural and provincial New Zealand provides a fresh perspective relevant to rural and urban alike, for a country largely reliant on its primary sector for economic prosperity.

A qualitative multiple case study design was chosen for its ability to achieve a holistic result, rich in content and meaning, through employing multiple data collection techniques in a naturalistic setting. Thematic analysis was used to draw out themes from the data, which combined with existing theory in an abductive approach adding new contributions to the current limited knowledge of grassroots leadership processes.

Key findings were the participants' voluntary altruistic principles and their passion, persistence and commitment to their causes. Leadership processes within the groups confirmed an outdated leader-follower influence paradigm and strong parallels with elements of Complexity Leadership Theory, especially in terms of enabling leadership to create adaptive space. However, the major contribution from this study was an adapted framework demonstrating how philosophical foundations, leadership practices and activities of grassroots associations can build community power in the creation of social capital contributing to community resilience for unknown and unknowable future events.

Acknowledgements

In keeping with the grassroots community-led perspective of this thesis, I would like to acknowledge all those in my *community of interest* who assisted me to complete this thesis.

Firstly, I'd like to recognise inspirational *grassroots champions* Nicole Sorensen, Bev Trowbridge, Louise Giltrap and their grassroots associations who are demonstrating such effective and enabling leadership within their communities. Thank you for sharing your lives and stories with me.

I acknowledge the graduates of the AgriWomen's Development Trust "Escalator" governance and leadership programme who inspired this explorative enquiry by choosing to engage in grassroots leadership outside more formal leadership roles.

A huge amount of gratitude goes to my thesis supervisors at Massey University; Dr Margot Edwards who has expertly and patiently guided me through the maze and wonder of producing a thesis and Dr Kaye Thorn for her insightful advice and critique at pivotal moments along the way.

I also acknowledge the unconditional support from my parents, children, extended family and friends who have shared my successes and challenges throughout, especially Robert and Fay Mills, my inspirational mother Alison Sofield and my beloved husband Robert Neeley. Your support has been outstanding and your belief in my ability unwavering.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Abstract | i |
| Acknowledgements | ii |
| List of Tables | vii |
| List of Figures | vii |
| Chapter One - Introduction | 1 |
| 1.1. Research Overview | 1 |
| 1.2. Justification for the Research..... | 3 |
| 1.3. Researcher’s Interest..... | 3 |
| 1.4. Research Questions and Objectives | 4 |
| 1.5. Thesis Structure | 5 |
| Chapter Two - Leadership | 7 |
| 2.1. Introduction..... | 7 |
| 2.2. Leadership Definitions..... | 7 |
| 2.3. Leadership and Followership..... | 9 |
| 2.4. Leadership as a Process and an Outcome | 11 |
| 2.5. Relational Leadership | 13 |
| 2.5.1. Entity and Constructionist Perspectives..... | 14 |
| 2.5.2. Relational Leadership Practices | 15 |
| 2.6. Relational Leadership Theories | 17 |
| 2.6.1. Distributed Leadership..... | 17 |
| 2.6.2. Shared Leadership..... | 18 |
| 2.6.3. Complexity Leadership Theory | 19 |
| 2.7. Chapter Summary | 22 |
| Chapter Three - Grassroots Associations | 23 |
| 3.1. Introduction..... | 23 |

| | | |
|-----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 3.2. | Grassroots Association Definitions and Characteristics..... | 23 |
| 3.3. | Communities and Membership..... | 27 |
| 3.4. | Principles of Grassroots Associations..... | 29 |
| 3.4.1. | Voluntary Altruism | 29 |
| 3.4.2. | Motivation..... | 30 |
| 3.4.3. | Participation, Power and Empowerment..... | 30 |
| 3.5. | Internal Impacts | 33 |
| 3.6. | External Impacts | 34 |
| 3.6.1. | Social Capital and Networks..... | 35 |
| 3.6.2. | Resilience | 37 |
| 3.7. | Grassroots Association Structure and Leadership | 39 |
| 3.7.1. | Symmetry of Entity and Constructionist Approaches..... | 39 |
| 3.7.2. | Grassroots Leadership Theoretical Models..... | 40 |
| 3.7.3. | Leadership Practices..... | 43 |
| 3.7.4. | Intermediate and Long-term Outcomes | 46 |
| 3.8. | Chapter Summary | 46 |
| Chapter Four - Methodology | | 48 |
| 4.1. | Introduction..... | 48 |
| 4.2. | Methodology..... | 48 |
| 4.2.1. | Researcher's Position | 49 |
| 4.3. | Research Strategy | 50 |
| 4.3.1. | Case Study Defined..... | 50 |
| 4.3.2. | Case Study Strengths | 51 |
| 4.3.3. | Case Study Limitations | 51 |
| 4.3.4. | Multiple Case Study Approach | 52 |
| 4.4. | Ethics and Access | 52 |
| 4.5. | Participant Recruitment | 53 |
| 4.5.1. | Secondary Participants | 53 |

| | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 4.5.2. | Participant Choices..... | 54 |
| 4.5.3. | Researcher as Participant | 54 |
| 4.6. | Data Collection | 55 |
| 4.6.1. | Semi-Structured Interviews..... | 55 |
| 4.6.2. | Direct and Participant Observations | 57 |
| 4.6.3. | Secondary Data Collection..... | 57 |
| 4.6.4. | Physical and Cultural Artefacts..... | 57 |
| 4.7. | Data Analysis | 58 |
| 4.7.1. | Manual Analysis | 59 |
| 4.7.2. | Thematic Analysis..... | 59 |
| 4.7.3. | Values Coding Analysis..... | 61 |
| 4.7.4. | Abductive Logic..... | 62 |
| 4.7.5. | Data Triangulation | 62 |
| 4.8. | Research Quality/Credibility | 63 |
| 4.9. | Personal Reflections on Research Methodology | 64 |
| 4.10. | Chapter Summary | 65 |
| Chapter Five - Findings and Discussion | | 67 |
| 5.1. | Introduction..... | 67 |
| 5.2. | Case Descriptions | 67 |
| 5.2.1. | Case One – Courageous Conversations | 68 |
| 5.2.2. | Case Two – Winning Hearts and Minds | 70 |
| 5.2.3. | Case Three – “Keeping It Real”..... | 72 |
| 5.3. | Grassroots Association Definitions | 73 |
| 5.4. | Cross-case Analysis of Practices and Processes | 77 |
| 5.4.1. | Voluntary Altruism | 78 |
| 5.4.2. | Leadership Processes and Collaboration..... | 78 |
| 5.4.3. | Building Collective/Community Power..... | 81 |
| 5.4.4. | Challenging Conventions and Norms | 83 |

| | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| 5.5. | Key Research Participants | 85 |
| 5.5.1. | Skills and Attributes | 85 |
| 5.5.2. | Values..... | 88 |
| 5.5.3. | Motivations and Leadership Drivers | 93 |
| 5.5.4. | Roles, Core Activities and Leadership Practices | 97 |
| 5.6. | Social Change Model for Grassroots Leadership | 103 |
| 5.6.1. | Leadership Drivers | 106 |
| 5.6.2. | Working Assumptions..... | 106 |
| 5.6.3. | Social Change Values | 107 |
| 5.6.4. | Leadership Practices..... | 107 |
| 5.6.5. | Core Activities and Implications..... | 109 |
| 5.6.6. | Creating Community Capacity – Intermediate Outcomes | 110 |
| 5.6.7. | Long-Term Outcomes | 111 |
| 5.7. | Chapter Summary | 113 |
| Chapter Six - Conclusion..... | | 115 |
| 6.1. | Introduction..... | 115 |
| 6.2. | Research Contributions..... | 115 |
| 6.3. | Limitations | 118 |
| 6.4. | Future Research | 120 |
| 6.5. | Final Thoughts | 120 |
| References | | 122 |
| Appendix A - Information Sheet | | 134 |
| Appendix B - Participant Consent Form..... | | 136 |
| Appendix C - Key Participant Semi-Structured Interview Schedule | | 137 |
| Appendix D - Leadership Practices Individual Groups..... | | 139 |

List of Tables

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Table 1 Grassroots associations summary table..... | 26 |
| Table 2 Community definitions | 28 |
| Table 3 Grassroots Leadership Conceptual Framework | 42 |
| Table 4 Data collection tools | 56 |
| Table 5 Six-phase thematic analysis | 60 |
| Table 6 Case studies summary of grassroots elements | 76 |
| Table 7 Grassroots associations themes, practices and processes..... | 77 |
| Table 8 Participant skills & attributes..... | 86 |
| Table 9 Summary of common values..... | 89 |
| Table 10 Roles, leadership practices and core activities..... | 98 |

List of Figures

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Figure 1. The leadership "moment" | 9 |
| Figure 2. The revolution in leadership research..... | 11 |
| Figure 3. Direction, Alignment, Commitment Framework | 12 |
| Figure 4. The Complexity Leadership Model | 21 |
| Figure 5. Heart of Character Model | 30 |
| Figure 6. Dimensions of Grassroots Leadership Model | 41 |
| Figure 7. Theorising Social Change Leadership: A Framework | 44 |
| Figure 8. Qualitative data analysis: "Drilling in and abstracting out" | 59 |
| Figure 9. Adapted social change framework | 105 |

Chapter One - Introduction

1.1. Research Overview

In the days that follow the decision of one world leader to disregard one of the greatest challenges yet to face mankind and withdraw from the Paris Agreement on climate change, small beacons of hope are spreading across the United States as signs that collective leadership is strengthening as a 21st century phenomenon. Condemnation from individuals, communities, district and state governments is transforming to collective action for social change in which climate change imperatives are becoming the responsibility of all. Climate change is therefore a useful analogy for the complexity of the 21st century as something unpredictable and potentially catastrophic to which a cocktail of uncertainty is added in the form of global financial instability, political unrest and an ever-growing world population with an increasing reliance on fossil fuels (Jackson & Parry, 2011; Jansen, Cammock, & Conner, 2011).

Senge (2016) argues that “leadership is the capacity of a human community to shape its future” (p. 67) where leadership is not vested in one heroic individual but across groups and communities. I believe this is the essence of leadership in the 21st century and agree with Jackson’s (2012) assessment that leadership scholars must look outside conventional management theory and consciously seek new leadership practices and processes to effectively manage future natural and man-made challenges. Furthermore, Jackson (2012) views New Zealand, with its relative geographic isolation, unique

governance heritage and small, interconnected population as a suitable place to nurture this intention as a “global testing ground” (p. 16) for new models of leadership. The imperative for society to divest itself collectively of old leadership paradigms to face new challenges is perhaps our chance to completely rethink leadership and where it might exist in our organisations and communities.

With the apparent demise of the heroic leader paradigm, perhaps a new future of leadership can be envisioned where the leader-follower influence relationship also comes into question. Ladkin (2010) and Grint (2005b) are among theorists who urge scholars to look to the spaces between the leadership participants and consider other elements, such as purpose and context. Relational leadership may also come to the fore where social interactions are recognised as the way in which leadership is enacted, as a process and a practice (Crevani, 2015b).

Leadership practices displayed in grassroots community-led groups operating as decentralised, loosely formed networks embedded in their communities may offer leadership solutions that are not apparent in traditional organisations and perhaps these informal groups could be one of the unconventional testing grounds to which Jackson (2012) alludes.

However, an impasse occurs in looking for empirical research on such groups due to their inconspicuous nature. This lack of visibility led renown grassroots scholar David Horton Smith (1997b) to describe community-based grassroots associations (GAs) as “the dark matter of the nonprofit universe” (p. 115), placed near one end of a nonprofit organisation continuum where the groups of interest are those that most closely resemble market-driven organisations. Indeed, many non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have evolved to be pseudo-governmental entities increasingly staffed by paid employees competing for Government contracts for social service delivery, which Rochester (2013) argues is a world-away from most GAs with voluntary membership

and where much low-key social change occurs. Rochester (2013) calls for new empirical research to better understand what processes occur under the banner of voluntary action and what internal and external impacts such groups have. He specifically calls for qualitative investigations into “how things work” including motivations to join a voluntary group, how relationships and organisation aims are determined and “how leadership is exercised” (Rochester, 2013, p. 240).

1.2. Justification for the Research

If there is a paucity of empirical research in grassroots community-led groups, then it appears there has been even less research on GAs in provincial New Zealand and the agri-sector which includes agriculture, horticulture, forestry and associated service industries. Pomeroy (2011) identifies a range of future challenges that are expected to impact on the agri-sector and rural New Zealand and argues that developing a capacity for effective collective leadership is an imperative, particularly the “facilitation of collective ownership of issues and processes for community group solutions” (p. 68). Affirming the need for leadership at this level, Cammock (2001) asserts that “it is the personal, community leadership of a few thousand or a few hundred thousand that will shape the world, not the leadership of the corporate or political elite” (p. 11). These views support Jackson’s (2012) previous assertions about the suitability of New Zealand as a prototype for revolutionary leadership thinking.

1.3. Researcher’s Interest

My interest in this topic stems from a 25-year agri-sector career and previous involvement in grassroots leadership, prior to a mid-life career change, completing an undergraduate business degree and traversing my current post-graduate study. I acknowledge that my previous career and experience as a member of several voluntary

groups has shaped my understanding of grassroots leadership processes, which I now overlay with theoretical thinking from my academic studies.

This has challenged my thinking and made me more inquisitive about what motivates individuals to join grassroots groups and whether the groups might contribute more to their communities and society in terms of social change than perhaps their original objectives. My interest in looking at leadership in this context was also piqued by previous unpublished research in which I evaluated outcomes from an agri-women's governance and leadership programme, highlighting a group of women who were making significant contributions to their communities through their leadership behaviours within grassroots groups, preferring this involvement to that of formal, positional leadership or governance roles (Neeley, 2015).

It is this combination of personal interest and corresponding lack of empirical research around grassroots leadership that has encouraged me to explore further how the process of leadership is being enacted and whether there might be implications for other organisations looking toward different leadership paradigms in the 21st century.

1.4. Research Questions and Objectives

This thesis has two aspects of enquiry that follow on from my original research on this topic:

- 1. Why do agri-women choose an involvement in grassroots leadership?**
- 2. How is the process of leadership enacted within a grassroots context for social change?**

I developed three main objectives to help address the research questions:

Objective 1: To explore the motivations underpinning the involvement of agri-women in grassroots associations.

Objective 2: To discover how the process of leadership is being enacted within grassroots associations.

Objective 3: To consider the impact of a specific project's outcome, both in relation to their contribution towards social change and the development of the key participants.

1.5. Thesis Structure

This thesis contains five further chapters.

Chapter Two defines leadership and traces the evolution of a leader-follower paradigm to a relational one embedded in context and purpose. The commentary proposes an alternative outcome-based ontology and compares that to a framework of relational leadership before assessing three associated theories.

Chapter Three defines grassroots associations (GAs) and their communities and shows how the theoretical understanding of GAs and social change movements has evolved. Principles, participation, power and empowerment are explored in a grassroots membership context before consideration of internal and external impacts of such groups. Three theoretical grassroots leadership models are critically examined for their contribution to the research questions.

Chapter Four considers the methodological approach that will support the research enquiry detailing how epistemology links to a complementary research method and design, incorporating ethical considerations, data collection, analysis and personal reflections on the research process.

Chapter Five introduces the three key participants, their GAs and projects to analyse personal leadership drivers and processes, practices and outcomes of the associated

groups. An adapted social change framework is presented as a key contribution to this limited field of enquiry.

Chapter Six concludes the thesis, revisiting the research questions, literature and objectives of the study. Research implications and limitations are outlined along with further research suggestions and final thoughts on the research process.

Chapter Two - Leadership

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides several contemporary definitions of leadership and traces the evolution of a leader-follower paradigm to a relational one embedded in context and purpose. The commentary then moves to consider an alternative outcome-based ontology and compares that to a framework of relational leadership. I offer some empirical support for an integrated entity and constructionist approach before examining several relational theories as a precursor to my next chapter about groups operating at the grassroots of society.

2.2. Leadership Definitions

“In the 21st century we need to establish communities where everyone shares the experience of serving as a leader, not sequentially, but concurrently and collectively” (Raelin, 2003, p. xi).

The sentiments of Raelin’s (2003) opening quote situate this current research project firmly in a 21st century perspective. I therefore intend to take Bass and Bass’ (2008) advice to consider leadership definitions I consider to be of most relevance to grassroots community leadership, and argue that definitions featuring a single heroic leader and compliant followers may not be appropriate in this context.

There are many definitions of leadership in the literature which relate to leadership as an influence relationship involving leader and follower or some other descriptor for those

involved. For example, Rost (1993), defines leadership as “an influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 99) where the initiation of change can come from anywhere in an organisation and is not limited to a top-down approach. While still recognising the leader-follower concept, Ladkin (2010) emphasises the process of leadership as a collective moment of convergence between context, purpose and participants, where designations may be transient and interchangeable. This view is consistent with a constructionist perspective where leadership is a relational, ongoing emergent process occurring throughout an organisation, not limited to those with positional roles (Crevani, 2015b).

Leadership, according to Grint (2000), is about creating movement, a shift of some kind, rather than merely focusing on any leader-follower dynamic. Extending this premise further, Grint (2005a) and Jackson and Parry (2011) argue that leadership is better understood within the community that it occurs, as a locally generated action of the collective, which places greater emphasis on relations and context than previous definitions. More recently, Crosby and Bryson (2012) define leadership as the “inspiration and mobilisation of others to undertake collective actions in pursuit of the common good” (p. 303), potentially providing a worthy place to situate leadership within the context of voluntary community groups. Raelin (2003, 2011) advances this line of thinking by removing the leader-follower dynamic altogether and suggests that leadership should be considered a practice, based on a process of setting aims and carrying out activities towards those goals. This understanding of leadership as a practice or process show a progression of leadership theory far beyond the single heroic leader to place a spotlight on what might be happening in the process of leadership, see Figure 1, described by Ladkin (2010) as the leadership “moment” (p. 28).

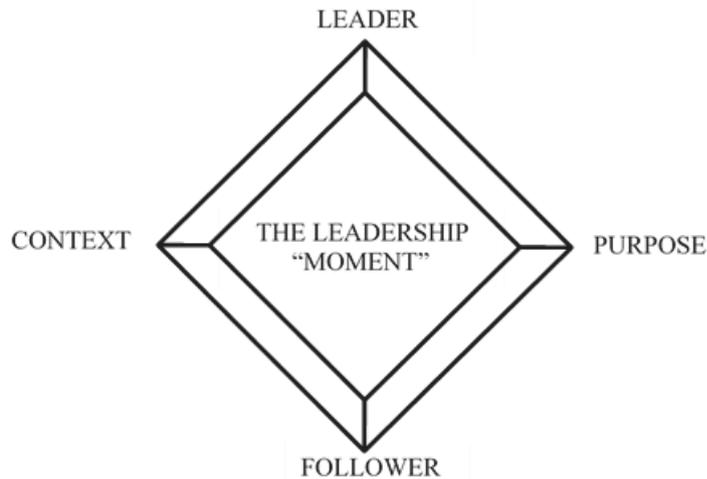


Figure 1. The leadership "moment"¹

Considering leadership as a phenomenon, rather than a series of unrelated components that can be viewed independently of one another, Ladkin (2010) believes enables scholars to envisage a much messier and subjective understanding of leadership as complex and contextually variable, a further disruption of conventional thinking. However, despite seeing the leadership moment as much wider than a leader-follower influence role, Ladkin's model remains problematic with its placement and representation of the leader-follower dynamic where the leader is still placed at the apex and thus depicted as superior to the follower.

2.3. Leadership and Followership

Dilemmas about roles and influences in the leadership relationship are not limited to contemporary management theorists. For example, Follett (1924) suggested that more attention be paid to the follower side of the relationship, although her ideas gained little traction at the time. Meindl (1995) argued against a bias towards dominant leader-

¹ From *Rethinking Leadership* (p. 28) by D Ladkin, 2010, Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar. Copyright © 2010 Edward Elgar. Adapted with permission.

centric approach, championing followers as an integral part of a collaborative leadership process under social constructionist principles, a view also adopted by Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien (2012) and Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, and Carsten (2014). The significance of leader and follower roles, according to S. Wilson (2016) warrants a complete rethink with the potential to disrupt all previous leadership relationship concepts. S. Wilson (2016) further argues that recent thinking on leadership suggests fluidity and flexibility, rather than rigid structure, may be an imperative to capture the essence of leadership in its various guises, and that a one-size-fits-all approach is incompatible with the challenges of the present day.

Such fluidity of thought is also espoused by Kezar (2009), who signals a need to consider a fundamental shift in leadership thinking in the 21st century because the world is becoming ever more complex with increased demands for “transparency, collaboration, cultural diversity and social responsibility” (p. 2). Figure 2 presents Kezar’s (2009) summary of the key revolutionary aspects of current 21st century thinking about the enactment of leadership in contemporary society compared to that of the 20th century and earlier. The key aspects are now firmly focused on context, collaboration and the way people are drawn into the change process via mutual power and influence.

The Revolution in Leadership Research

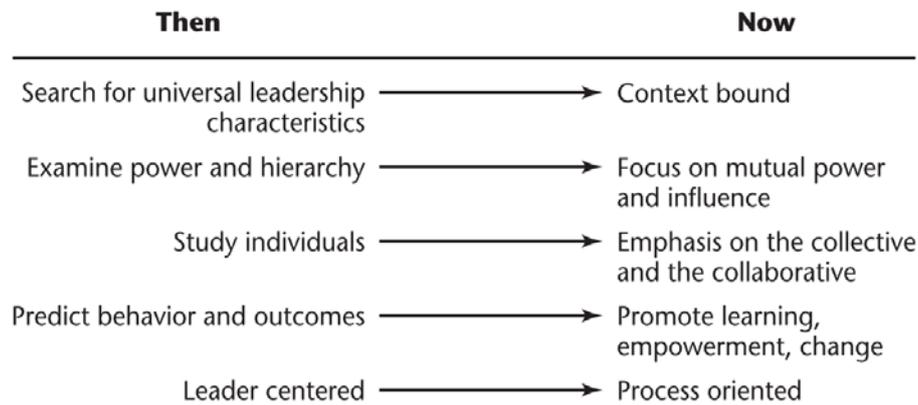


Figure 2. The revolution in leadership research²

In a New Zealand context, Pomeroy's (2011) calls for a collective leadership approach for rural communities are directed to areas such as ecosystem management, building resilient communities and preparedness for natural events exacerbated by climate change. If this shift means formal titles are no longer relevant in the emerging notion of leadership as a collective and collaborative process (Raelin, 2003), then perhaps it is time to shift or modify theory that endorses a strictly leader-follower approach.

2.4. Leadership as a Process and an Outcome

Establishing that the leader-follower dynamic is disrupted or rendered less relevant within the context of research into grassroots groups poses a theoretical challenge that needs to be addressed as one of the objectives of this research: How is the process of leadership enacted within grassroots associations?

As the leadership literature doesn't appear to answer this question or even apply to GAs, Drath et al. (2008) suggest a complete shift away from the traditional leader-follower

² Reprinted from *Rethinking Leadership in a Complex, Multicultural, and Global Environment: New Concepts and Models for Higher Education* (p. 2), edited by A. Kezar, 2009, (Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC) with permission of the publisher, Copyright © 2009, Stylus Publishing, LLC.

influence ontology to an alternative way of viewing reality where leadership is viewed as both a process and an outcome. An example where this might apply could be a collaborative community group made up of peers, meeting to consider an environmental initiative, or an example from my own experience where diverse stakeholder groups converged to develop a collective response to a planned Otago Regional Council Water Plan rule change in 2010.

Looking at leadership as an outcome, according to Drath et al. (2008), provides relational leadership theories with a foundation that supports those with emergent dynamics, rather than trying to fit observations to theories that no longer apply. Thus, Drath et al. (2008) argue for the application of a practical framework that links short to medium term leadership outcomes, such as “direction, alignment and commitment” (DAC) (p. 642), with overall change goals as longer term outcomes, as shown in Figure 3.

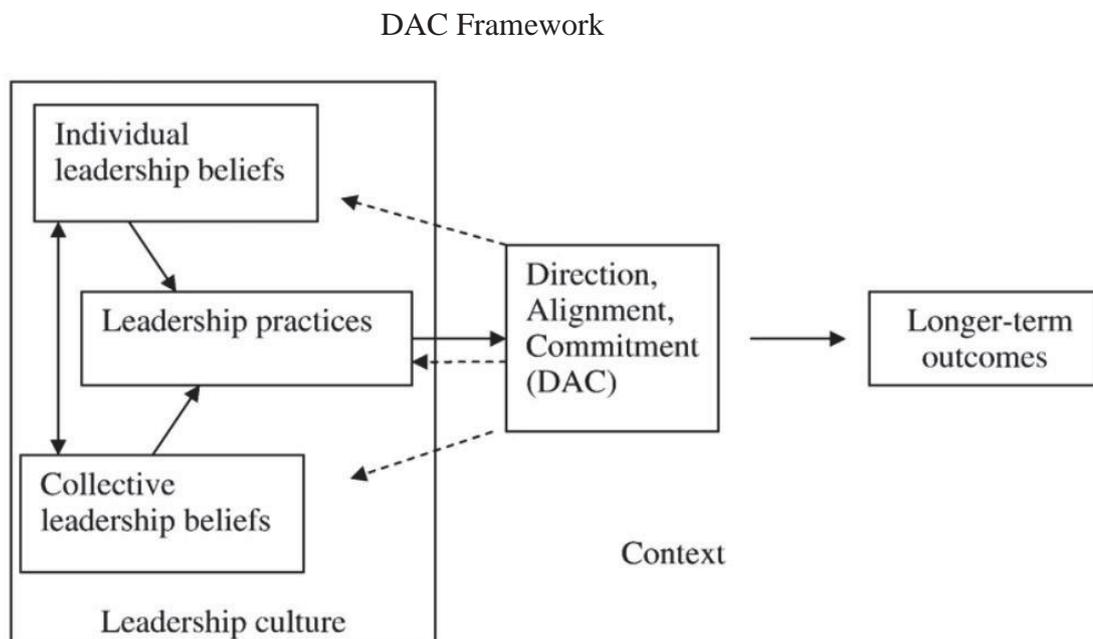


Figure 3. Direction, Alignment, Commitment Framework³

³ From “Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership” by W. Drath, C. McCauley, C. Palus, E. Van Velsor, P. O’Connor, J. McGuire, 2008, *Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6), p. 642. Copyright © 2008 by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

In simple terms, Drath et al.'s (2008) theory specifies direction as a collective aim, alignment focuses on a group's operations and commitment refers to an individual's pledge to a cause. Each of the three elements are recognised as adaptive leadership either separately or collectively. Notable features of the framework are that context permeates the entire leadership process and that leadership effectiveness is valued as a legitimate medium-term objective which can be judged by how well DAC occurs irrespective of any longer-term outcomes. Thus, adopting this framework could provide a voluntary group with motivation and the tools to reach a long-term goal through an adaptive, iterative DAC process that recognises success along the way.

The leadership outcomes utilised by Drath et al.'s (2008) DAC ontology relate closely to the four critical processes that create leadership, described by Raelin (2003) as an iterative process that includes goal setting, necessary organisational tasks that accompany the mission, a need to keep the motivation and momentum going, and a willingness to adapt to cope with change. These elements may be of relevance in a grassroots context with social change objectives. I now move to critique the relational leadership literature and consider another framework which successfully integrates two diverse perspectives of relationality.

2.5. Relational Leadership

Relationality is now understood to be at the very core of the leadership process. Gibb (1958) was among the first to recognise leadership as a process based around an influence relationship, while it was sometime later that the importance of relationship dynamics was fully acknowledged (Hosking, 1988). Uhl-Bien and Ospina (2012) suggest that the need to consider relationality beyond positional leadership may reflect

societal changes created by fast moving, complex issues that can only be tackled in a collaborative manner through effective interactions of engaged people, which aligns to Kezar's (2009) earlier depiction of the revolution in leadership research.

2.5.1. Entity and Constructionist Perspectives

Relational leadership literature has travelled down two distinct pathways, entity and constructionist (Crevani, 2015b), which, at their very extremes, appear to represent a chasm between positivist and interpretivist approaches respectively. Entity perspectives are mooted by Crevani (2015b) as tending to reflect a positivist research approach whereby individuals' values, actions and motivations and their pursuit of common goals through influence are under consideration. In contrast, a constructionist perspective is more about the process itself and this fits with an interpretivist approach where leadership meanings are co-created between equals, in an ongoing process occurring throughout an organisation or group, (Crevani, 2015b).

This divergence in view potentially creates a dilemma for my research in that my research aims to consider both participants and the leadership processes within their GAs. Fortunately, the relational leadership literature provides a solution in Crosby and Bryson's (2012) Integrated Leadership Framework, which links entity and constructionist perspectives, recognised by Uhl-Bien and Ospina (2012) as "paradigm interplay" (p. xxxvi) and thus recognises the value of both approaches. Acknowledging the dichotomy of linking the two diverse approaches, Crosby and Bryson (2012) propose that difficult problems require collective constructionist interventions, while the entity-based skills and abilities of those who seek to solve them, positional or not, also have a great impact on the chances of success. Further support is provided by Fletcher (2012) who argues that choosing either entity or constructionist perspectives in isolation limits the scope of relational leadership theory development. For example, rejecting an

entity-based theory could mean that contemporary emotional intelligence leadership skills such as empathy, humility, self-awareness and resilience are ignored.

Crosby and Bryson's (2012) framework combines leadership practices and capabilities for cross-sector collaborations in five key areas: Scoping an issue, establishing processes, deciding on structure, planning for likely eventualities, visualising success and reflecting on the process. This corresponds favourably with Drath et al.'s (2008) DAC model and Raelin's (2003) four leadership processes. In addition, Crosby and Bryson's (2012) research is contextually relevant to this enquiry as it incorporates case studies of social change organisations.

Another finding from Fletcher's earlier (2004) empirical research is the impact of empowerment in creating power shifts, which aligns with the findings in my previous research (Neeley, 2015). Follett's (1924) "power-with," rather than "power-over" (p. 187) principles, and Freire's (1996) views on redistribution of power, suggest a long-established viewpoint that altering power dynamics can be important catalysts for change and perhaps of critical importance in a collective group situation. Fletcher's (2004) study uses the phrase "fluid expertise" (p. 653) to describe how power shifts occur during a single interaction, via a mutual exchange process of empowerment, with the expectation that each participant in the action understands their capacity to both empower and be empowered. I believe reciprocity of empowerment may be an important factor in this research, which, if identified in grassroots groups, signifies both a willingness to share knowledge as well as accept the expertise of others.

2.5.2. Relational Leadership Practices

Moving from an entity perspective to a constructionist view, at the opposite end of the relational leadership spectrum, brings leadership process and practices to the fore,

challenging scholars to go beyond a focus on individuals, to see what else might be occurring in the spaces between. This subtle shift to observing interactions, may mean relational leadership appears quite unremarkable, according to Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien (2012) as it occurs within normal interactions involving conversations, practices and everyday communications. However, the impact of these subtle interactions may be crucial to the leadership dynamic due to their influence on the way individuals co-construct their social reality and where leadership may be regarded as an ongoing and emergent process rather than a fixed and known reality (Crevani, 2015b).

In terms of engaging with the process of leadership, Crevani (2015b) endorses three relational leadership practices of “framing, positioning and bridging” (p. 189), where framing relates to shifting a focus of attention according to different perspectives bringing certain aspects to the fore and shifting some elements out of sight. Ladkin (2010) suggests visualising a cube with some parts visible and others obscured from sight to illustrate the framing concept. Framing also allows participants to review and replay scenes to consider different aspects of a problem or situation.

Positioning relates to the way people appear in their interactions at a specific place and time, observed in their physical stance or gestures, as well as through dialogue (Crevani, 2015b). Positions are under constant negotiation and appear to be another example of how reciprocity can be observed in a collective group where an individual may be recognised as an authority on some matters and a novice in others, allowing others to bring their expertise to the fore, building on previous conversations in an emergent manner (Crevani, 2015b).

The third practice of bridging refers to building interdependence among participants which Crevani (2015b) believes creates a connection that binds an organisation or group

together, an imperative in achieving truly collective action. The strength of this metaphorical bridge appears to be a direct result of achievements generated by the interdependence of many people and enmeshing of ideas, while still celebrating differences, (Crevani, 2015b; Fletcher, 2004; Ospina & Foldy, 2010). Resonance is an additional feature of bridging that Crevani (2015b) suggests may occur in unexpected moments of interaction when actions or words deliver a feeling of what Note and Van Daele (2016) describe as “wit(h)ness” (p. 283) perhaps demonstrating the depth of interdependencies generated in this context.

I now move to explore the framework of relational leadership further with three relational theories that may be suited to leadership within GAs.

2.6. Relational Leadership Theories

Choosing to look at different leadership theories offers insights into the leadership phenomenon from different vantage points (Ladkin, 2010). As this current research project is about grassroots leadership, it seems appropriate to seek theories that consider decentralised, collective organisations with a follower-centric focus, or with a sole focus on collaboration or process outside the traditional leader-follower paradigm. This includes looking at distributed and shared leadership, which appear quite similar, before considering the more emergent and adaptive Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT).

2.6.1. Distributed Leadership

While recognising the contribution of others, including Benne and Sheats (1948), Follett (1924) and Gibb (1958), to the development of post-heroic leadership thinking, it was a contemporary scholar, Gronn (2002) who mooted the relational concept of Distributed Leadership Theory, as a context-based notion of leadership processes. Activity is the key focus of Distributed Leadership Theory and Gronn (2002) recommends tracking

interactions within networks to help identify where leadership is occurring, although the often-fleeting nature of leadership may make it difficult to detect and open to subjective view about where it might, or might not exist (Ladkin, 2010).

Using distributed leadership to highlight the difficulties in observing the leadership phenomenon, Ladkin (2010) identifies three aspects that contribute to this; its emergence over time, the unpredictability of where and when leadership will emerge given its non-positional, fluid movement among participants, and that the leadership task may surface in ways other than via dialogue.

In later work, Gronn (2009) rescinds some of his understandings about distributed leadership, and more recently, concedes the concept has been incorrectly applied to situations and taken out of context (Gronn, 2016). It appears that the concept of distributed leadership may be waning and have limited relevance outside a typical hierarchical organisation.

2.6.2. Shared Leadership

As early as 1924, (Follett) championed theoretical thinking towards shared leadership with her situational law which espoused that the role of leadership should not default to a positional leader, but instead fall to the person with the most relevant knowledge in that situation. Current thinking on shared leadership is defined by Pearce and Conger (2003) as a “dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organisational goals or both” (p. 1). While this definition removes any hierarchical boundaries for leadership to occur, shared leadership still appears to be based on an influence dynamic.

The evolutionary process of shared leadership has gained pace since the 1970s, both with organisational applications and within nonprofit enterprises (Pearce, Perry, &

Sims, 2001). However many of the studies referred to by Pearce and Conger (2003) and those exploring distributed leadership still perpetuate a reliance on a static leadership role, albeit one not reliant on a positional individual, which perhaps has limited its advancement in leadership theory. A theory that offers less reliance on an entity basis and therefore an openness to collective leadership as a process may be Complexity Leadership Theory, which has its basis in the field of natural sciences.

2.6.3. Complexity Leadership Theory

In Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT), leadership is framed as a “complex, interactive dynamic” that leads to innovation and learning, (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007, p. 298). The theorists’ premise is that complexity thinking is a massive departure from leadership as an influence relationship, instead viewing leadership as “embedded in a complex interplay of numerous interacting forces” (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007, p. 302).

Complexity Leadership Theory draws on natural science principles (Wheatley, 2006) to consider organisations as a series of interconnected networks, including one element that is informal, adaptive and highly responsive to change, and where operational and entrepreneurial leadership is moderated by enabling leadership to create adaptive space (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017). Earlier work by Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) identified adaptive space as occurring within a complex adaptive system (CAS), a concept primarily developed to demonstrate how formal organisations might retain their capacity for adaptive and entrepreneurial dynamics that may otherwise wane as an organisation matures.

Complex Adaptive Systems enable collaborative change to occur from the spaces between participants, as part of a collaborative change where leadership is a collective

function of the group, not an individual (Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000). In this sense, CLT may translate well to a decentralised, informal community group as leadership is considered a process which emanates from engaged group members acting in good faith with each other (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2011). The possible benefits of applying CLT to the nonprofit sector seeking social change were explored by Malcolm (2014) where it was found that applying a CAS framework was effective in an environment where ongoing uncertainty and environmental changes frequently occur.

Uhl-Bien and Arena's (2017) most recent work however, shifts the focus from CAS to the leadership behaviours that create the environment for adaptive space to occur.

Figure 4 illustrates how three functions of operational, entrepreneurial and enabling leadership combine to support the emergence of new ideas that occur within an adaptive space. While operational and entrepreneurial leadership functions are well documented in leadership theory, Uhl-Bien and Arena (2017) believe it is the *enabling leadership* function that allows the creation of adaptive space. The significance of this in complexity thinking and contribution to leadership theory is only just being realised (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017). The theorists believe this is partly because enabling leadership cannot be explained by conventional leadership language alone, but most importantly in the context of this study, is that enabling leadership may be rendered invisible because it sits outside standard leadership conceptualisations altogether.

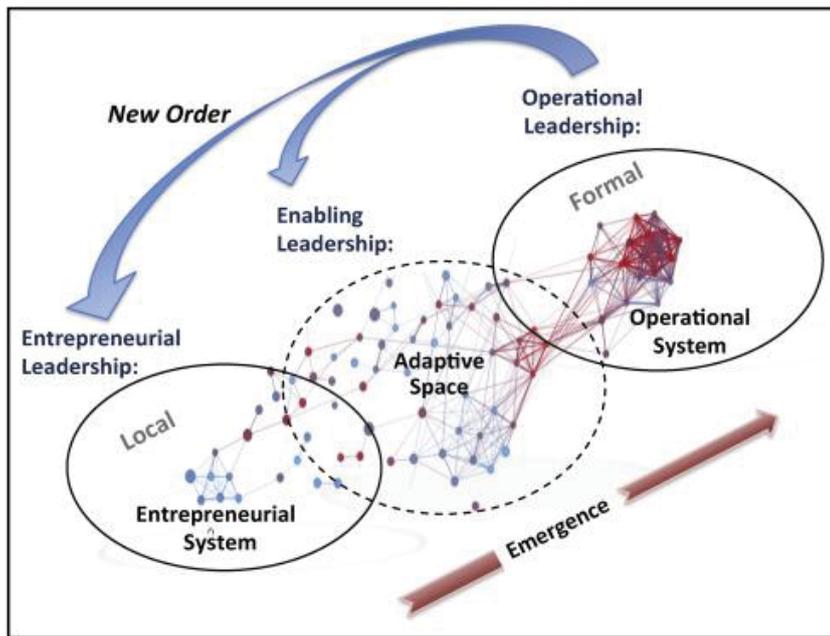


Figure 4. The Complexity Leadership Model ⁴

In attempting to conceptualise it, Uhl-Bien and Arena (2017) believe the principles and practices of enabling leadership include the bridging practices referred to by Crevani (2015b), to create the types of networks that bring diverse agents together and the complexity principle of knowing how to read a situation to anticipate emergence of ideas. Other enabling leadership skills include recognising the need for collective energies to create change and that an objective or cause is of greater importance than any personal recognition. An example of this may be an individual having the conviction to create adaptive space for others and the humility to then “step back so others can step forward” (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017, p. 18). With the application of CLT for nonprofit groups already identified by Malcolm (2014), I hope this current study may add to the emerging knowledge about complexity theory and the possibilities of enabling leadership existing within GAs.

⁴ From “Complexity leadership: Enabling people and organisations for adaptability” by M. Uhl-Bien and M. Arena, 2017, *Organisational Dynamics*, 46, p. 15. Copyright © 2016 by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

2.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter on leadership began with some scene setting applicable to the current knowledge era of the 21st century, with an intrinsic need to define and consider leadership in a different way. I challenged the relevance of a traditional leader-follower paradigm for this current project based on groups that are decentralised and collaborative by nature, instead exploring Drath et al.'s (2008) alternative outcome-based Direction, Alignment and Commitment (DAC) framework. The work of Crosby and Bryson (2012) demonstrated possible synergies created through considering both an entity and constructionist research approach for leadership within community-led groups. I concluded the chapter by appraising three relational leadership theories, of which Complexity Leadership Theory shows the most promise in its relevance to the grassroots focus of this research project, particularly the discovery of enabling leadership. In the next chapter I turn my attention to community-led groups operating at the grassroots, as I discover more about how they operate and consider what leadership opportunities and challenges they present.

Chapter Three - Grassroots Associations

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter I define and characterise GAs and their communities. I explore the overarching principle of voluntary altruism, describe other motivating factors and consider the relationship between participation, power and empowerment in GA membership. I then investigate the types of internal and external impacts that may occur because of involvement in these community-led groups, before comparing three theoretical grassroots leadership models to critically examine how they might contribute to an overall understanding of GAs and leadership. In doing so I identify an important gap in the literature about studies that focus on informal volunteer-based community groups working towards social change.

3.2. Grassroots Association Definitions and Characteristics

This research project is situated at the grassroots of rural New Zealand, inhabited by ordinary citizens within their communities. Groups operating with a grassroots membership are defined by D. Smith (2000) as “locally based, significantly autonomous, volunteer-run, formal (or informal) nonprofit groups” which establishes a starting point for the discussion about voluntary “bottom up” (p. 3) group activity within communities. This definition is extended by Knoke (1986), who adds achieving collective goals to the primary objectives of GAs.

A range of GA characteristics exist on a continuum, including whether social change objectives are internal or external, the level of formalised structure as well as the degree of “socio-political change orientation” (D. Smith, 2000, p. 9). This concurs with Gerlach and Hine’s (1970) earlier proposition that the level of social change objective allows for a wide range of groups to be classified as GAs, from self-help groups such as Weight Watchers, where personal change may be the prime objective, through to highly politicised anti-globalisation movements that often feature in news reports when global leaders meet.

Hovering around the mid-range of this continuum are the myriad of voluntary community groups, often attracting little attention or visibility, a feature which D. Smith (1997b) alluded to in the opening section of this thesis, resulting in a lack of recognition for their contribution to society. The invisibility of GAs is also discussed by Cnaan, Milofsky, and Hunter (2007) who are not surprised that their informal community network structures, often lacking material resources but rich in relationships, may render GAs invisible or not easily defined by conventional organisational theory.

Participant activity appears to be the main resource of GAs, with Gundelach (1982) noting other key characteristics such as decentralised autonomy, collective decision-making, shared ideology and cohesion of different working groups. As one of the first scholars to conduct grassroots-based research, Gundelach (1982) classified GAs into five categories; single issue, rural, urban, those battling oppression, and idealistic GAs. More recently GAs have been framed in terms of their change or movement objectives. For example, Van Til, Hegyesi, and Eschweiler (2007) adopt the term “grassroots movements” (p. 374) to signify a group purpose and origin, while Beaford, Gongaware, and Valadez (2000) prefer the term “social movement” (p. 2728). Chetkovich and Kunreuther (2006) believe “social change” (p. 4) is an apt description for groups

operating within their communities to address a variety of issues, adopting this term at the request of research participants.

Van Til et al. (2007) endorse D. Smith (2000) and Knoke's (1986) themes of participation and the importance of ordinary people's views, adding that the life span of GAs is often fluid and defined by a need rather than a desire to establish permanently. This is consistent with Beaford et al. (2000) who see having a distinctive goal an advantage of GAs, enhancing participation and building a strong group dynamic for the duration of a project or initiative.

Contributing to a more contemporary perspective of GAs, Radu (2012) uses examples from five European Union (EU) case studies to demonstrate how such groups develop valuable community capabilities through activating social strengths. The ability to produce capacity alongside a group's primary aims was articulated more simply by earlier scholars, (see for example Gundelach, 1982; Van Til et al., 2007) who view preparedness for future events as a worthy GA achievement. It appears that building capacity to draw on later is an important, perhaps underrated, characteristic of GAs and I will endeavour to find out whether this is an objective of the three cases in this study.

The definitions and characteristics thus far highlight a richness and depth about grassroots community groups that is reflected in my summary in Table 1.

Table 1 Grassroots associations summary table

| Author/ Period | Types of groups | | | | | Primary Resource | Member resources: Voluntary or paid | Primary Motivation | Philosophy | Decision Making | Level of Autonomy & Group Location | Benefits | | Desired Achievements |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|
| | Social Movement / Grassroots Association | Grassroots Organisations - 5 types | Single-issue | Rural | Urban | | | | | | | Oppressed | Idealistic | |
| Gerlach & Hine 1970s → | Social Movement / Grassroots Association | Member activity | Voluntary – lack of bureaucracy | Seeking social change | Actively influencing others | Decentralised, collective | Autonomous | Yes | Yes | Change endeavour realised | | | | |
| Gundelach 1979 → | Grassroots Organisations - 5 types | Participant activity at grassroots level | Voluntary (“unrelated to working situation”) | Seeking change | Political/ social networks Decentralised & expressive | Collective | Local / Autonomous “loose, open, fragmented organisational structure” | Yes | Yes | Primary goal Preparedness Raising consciousness Knowledge & experience | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | Single-issue | Rural | Urban | Oppressed |
| D. Smith 1980s → | Grassroots Associations Includes self-help, socio-political, activists & deviants | Member activity at grassroots level | Majority voluntary, <50% paid | Seeking change through advocacy | GAs, local, voluntary altruism, involved of own volition & receive significant non-monetary value | Collective | Local & significantly autonomous | Yes | Yes | Change in socio-political, economic &/or physical environment | | | | |
| Van Til, Hegyesi & Eschweiler 2000s → | Grassroots Movements (Sees late 20th century as “golden age” of United States social action) | Participant activity at grassroots level | Voluntary | Seeking change – “justice & human rights” | Challenging & changing societal norms & cultures | Collective, democratic | Association, unstructured temporary, recurrent or ephemeral | Yes | Yes | Change in societal structure and control | | | | |
| Chetkovich & Kunreuther 2006 | Social change organisations | Employees & members | Mix of paid employees/voluntary member focused | Seeking change in context of own communities | Encourage & build self-advocacy capacity | Formal decision making/ some board governance | Embedded within communities | Yes | Yes | Increase power of marginalised groups/ community empowerment | | | | |
| Cnaan, Milofsky & Hunter 2007 | Community movements & Local organisations | Participant activity | Mostly voluntary | Various change initiatives | Driven by community needs | Often informal, collective, democratic | Embedded within communities | Yes | Yes | Social benefits/ community good | | | | |
| Radu & Radisic 2012 → | Grassroots/ voluntary/ community-based associations or organisations | Member activity | Volunteer-based, may include paid | Mutually reinforcing personal & collective capabilities | Low degree of formality but broader purpose than exclusions | Varies between EU countries | Varies between EU countries | Yes | Yes | Advance capabilities/ activate social strengths | | | | |

This cross-group analysis allows me to create my own GA definition, while broadly adopting components of each example. I support D. Smith's (2000) idea of a continuum and all the scholars' premises of participants being the primary resource in a GA. I consider the voluntary nature of GAs as critical and that they seek change at some level, whatever title they adopt. In the following section I consider the nuances of community but for now I recognise the importance of community in this context, as well as the ability to have some autonomy and decision-making processes that reflect the membership of the group.

I believe it is unlikely that my participants and their GAs are at either the self-help or the more socio-politicised ends of D. Smith's (2000) continuum and they may not even view themselves as driven by social change. It is these mid-range grassroots groups, embedded in their communities and rich with relationships that I intend to explore in this research project. I now move to consider some definitions of communities to help establish the contexts of GAs based on their understanding of what constitutes a community.

3.3. Communities and Membership

Some theorists believe that a definition of community should confine it to a discrete geographical location (D. Smith, Stebbins, & Dover, 2006; G. Wilson, 2012), while others, (Ledwith, 2011; McMillan, 1996; McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Middlemiss & Parrish, 2010; Onyx & Leonard, 2011) view community with boundaries limited only by individual perception. Cnaan et al. (2007) question the need for a definitive definition at all, preferring to let people choose emergent and adaptive network configurations to suit themselves, including those of globally connected virtual communities. While G. Wilson (2012) justifies his view of communities within specified geographic boundaries to aid measurement, I believe we should review our

perceptions of communities to look beyond convenient measures and adapt to a rapidly changing world. I have captured this diversity of views in Table 2, which shows the evolution of communities from rigid geographical boundaries to communities of limitless boundaries determined by their members.

Table 2 Community definitions

| Theorist(s) | Community Definitions |
|------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| D. Smith et al. (2006, p. 50) | Collectivity of people interacting in networks, organisations and small groups within a more or less definable geographical area |
| G. Wilson (2012, p. 8) | Totality of social system interactions, usually within geographical boundaries |
| Onyx and Leonard (2011, p. 2) | Complex systems not only defined by boundaries such as geographical location but open to different participants despite their location |
| Cnaan et al. (2007, p. 1) | Group of people connected by a physical (or virtual) location bound by connections developed from shared values and symbols |
| Ledwith (2011, p. 34) | Complex system of interrelationships woven across social difference, diverse histories and cultures, and determined in the present by political and social trends |
| Dahlander and Frederiksen (2012, p. 988) | User (online) communities with a social structure built on continuous interaction, distributed talent and highly collaborative innovative processes |

More recently the term *communities of interest* has gained popularity amongst academics (Cnaan et al., 2007; Middlemiss & Parrish, 2010) as it provides individuals with the ability to identify with more than one community to allow for a diversity of interests and cross-community interactions. For example, Onyx and Leonard (2011)

identified 62 different voluntary organisations in a small Australian town with a population of just 1200, which suggests overlapping membership. Thus, in my study I need to be mindful that although my key participants are in groups within the geographical boundary of Northland, they may well have multiple communities of interest to consider. Having established some definitions about GAs and the communities that they are part of, this next section returns to consider some of the founding principles and the reasons that individuals might be drawn to such groups.

3.4. Principles of Grassroots Associations

In this section I expand on the foundational principles that exist in relation to GAs from the literature thus far and I examine some of the impacts generated by GAs, first as internal (within their membership) and then as external impacts (experienced outside the group), for their communities and mankind.

3.4.1. Voluntary Altruism

Voluntary altruism is described by D. Smith et al. (2006) as a guiding principle and “special set of human core values and attitudes” (p. 238) that exists within the membership of all nonprofit organisations, including GAs. To display voluntary altruism D. Smith et al. (2006) argue that an entity (individual or group) must be involved of their own volition, display core values of humanity including empathy, be moderately autonomous, either voluntary or receive minimal recompense and should receive significant non-monetary value from their involvement. Voluntary altruism incorporates Monroe’s (1996) idea of a shared sense of humanity, where individuals are all linked and entitled to fair and equitable treatment. Similar sentiments are evident in Cammock’s (2001) Heart of Character Model, Figure 5, which originates from a personal leadership context, where concern for others and a sense of self are a foundational partnership creating a powerful synergy and force for good.

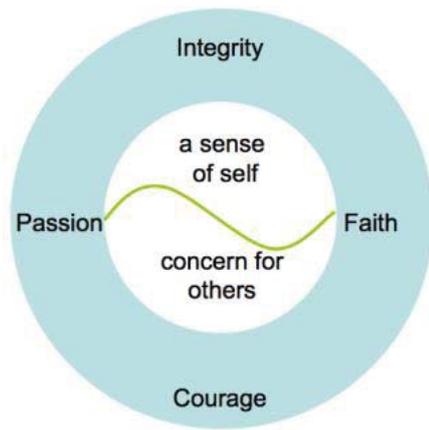


Figure 5. Heart of Character Model ⁵

3.4.2. Motivation

Aside from voluntary altruism, the other motivating factor behind an individual choosing to join a GA is finding a cause that they care deeply about. For example, a study of volunteers carried out by Stebbins (2009) found that participants had a strong sense of “wanting to give something back,” however their choice of activity was based on where their true interests lay, which the theorists interpreted as “intrinsic satisfaction” through “altruistic expression” (p. 157). It appears that motivations for GA membership essentially reflect an individual’s values and beliefs developed throughout life, with strong links between how embedded or connected an individual is in their community and their choice to be involved in a certain voluntary organisation (D. Smith & Wang, 2016).

3.4.3. Participation, Power and Empowerment

The earliest writings on grassroots movements describe a process of participation by ordinary citizens, intent on change of some description through a pathway of

⁵ From *The Dance of Leadership: The call for soul in 21st century leadership* p. 135, by P. Cammock, 2003, Malaysia, Pearson Education. Copyright © 2003 by Pearson Education. Reprinted with permission.

empowerment and a subtle (or not so subtle) redistribution of power to reach a collective goal. This section explores the inextricably linked relationship between the grassroots principles of participation, power and empowerment.

Participation is used as both an indicator of community health and a reflection of whether opportunities exist for citizens to participate in their communities. Highlighting a lack of scholarly research on the connection between citizen participation and well-being, Radu (2012) draws on the work of Amartya Sen and his paradigm of personal growth leading to greater levels of societal freedom. Reaching beyond purely economic and production-based ideology, Sen (1999) believes that opportunities to create social change are driven through the ability of people to make choices. In this arena, GAs appear to provide a platform for citizen participation and fulfilment, through actualisation of things that people value and believe they can achieve. A theoretical model that shows the relationship between participation and power is Arnstein's (1969) "Ladder of Citizen Participation" (p. 217) in which eight rungs represent varying levels of citizen participation from the lowest levels of input, to those in the mid-range with nominal power, and the top three rungs, which represent the highest degrees of citizen power through partnership, delegated or total citizen control.

Judging by the examples in the literature and exemplified in the context of the changing power dynamics of civil rights' movements, (see for example Ransby, 2003), grassroots activity appears to be a mechanism to elevate communities to reach higher rungs of participation via a redistribution of power. One of the key reasons for this, Messer (1994) argues, is the unique nature of voluntary involvement, where collective action occurs outside state control, providing an independent platform for citizen initiated social change.

Empowerment is often applied as a catchphrase for any personal growth experience, however Ledwith (2011) believes this belittles its true meaning as the "ability to make

critical connections in relation to power and control in society to identify discrimination and determine collective action for change” (p. 144). One description of empowerment that resonates in a grassroots context is expressed by Christens, Inzeo, and Faust (2014) as collective participation by group members to gain a higher level of control over resources, including environment, systems and rights.

While Couto (1998) considers empowerment to be a trait available at an individual level, Peterson and Zimmerman (2004) disagree, believing empowerment is an active process extending to organisations and their communities, which allows them to gain a greater level of control over their situations and environments, while building effectiveness for future endeavours. The use of narrative is highlighted by several theorists as a critical tool of empowerment, (Christens et al., 2014; Freire, 1996; Ledwith, 2011; Lekoko, 2007) involving sharing personal stories in a way that builds trust and recognises lived experience. I agree with Ledwith (2011) that narratives need to be shared collectively, to create opportunities for shifts in power with an emphasis on collective empowerment. For example, action research by Christens et al. (2014) established the use of narrative to underpin the social justice work of the Gamaliel Foundation, to first identify community issues, establish communities of interest and collectively co-create solutions with those directly affected.

The link between participation, power and empowerment was at the heart of the teachings of educator and grassroots’ champion Freire (1996), who argued that power exists everywhere and thus gives ordinary citizens the opportunity to critically assess the world around them and realise that they have the capability to transform a situation (Freire, 1996).

Echoing the thoughts of scholars earlier in this chapter, one of Freire’s (2007) propositions was that people often underestimate the foundational impact of their work as capacity created towards future social movements. This chapter will now discuss

possible internal impacts for GA members before focusing on the external impacts generated outside the organisation.

3.5. Internal Impacts

Internal impacts of GA activity are those experienced directly by group members, according to D. Smith (1999b) with social interaction within the group perhaps providing an immediate impact and anchor-point for its members.

At one extreme of the GA continuum, D. Smith (1999b) found that self-help GAs, such as Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) provide a higher level of internal member impact than other groups, as intense peer to peer support is a key feature of how this type of programme achieves results. Other internal impacts experienced by members, across the GA continuum, are freedom of expression in a safe, supportive environment and the opportunity to learn by participating in social and political processes, depending on the purpose of the group (D. Smith, 1999b). Displaying authenticity through their voluntary participation in causes they felt strongly about and the ability to connect with others outside their traditional social networks were two other benefits noted by von Essen (2016) in research conducted with Swedish civil society groups.

Feelings of happiness and well-being, created due to the social support factors within the group, were additional internal impacts that Radu (2012) found across EU member grassroots organisations. Involvement in grassroots groups led to unexpected surges in emotion and total enjoyment of an activity, which several research participants said caused them to lose track of time and place (Elkington & Stebbins, 2014). This corresponds with Note and Van Daele's (2016) research into the tangible rewards volunteers felt, where something meaningful occurred during the process of volunteering that research participants labelled as "unexpected, fleeting and often beyond their control," (p. 285). In addition to the individual self-development outcomes

for group members, Elkington and Stebbins (2014) highlight the collective internal benefits gained by the group, such as successful collaborations, achieving goals and collectively participating in voluntary altruistic behaviour.

For some community groups intent on social change, however, the focus on internal impacts is of lesser importance than creating external impacts at a community or societal level, which Ospina et al. (2012) believe sets such groups apart from traditional market-driven organisational structures focused on creating change with their own organisational structures.

3.6. External Impacts

External impacts that occur from the activities of a GA, according to D. Smith (1999a), are usually through a change of some type outside the immediate membership, whether in the wider community or beyond, and include changes through advocacy in socio-political, economic and/or physical environments. The chances of a GA achieving their desired external impact are enhanced by forming an effective cohesive group, having a specific goal and creating effective relationships with external stakeholders (D. Smith, 1999a).

A GA that successfully pressures for a legislative change in its own community may result in change elsewhere or stimulate other groups to form (Gundelach, 1982). The literature also points to positive future impacts from unsuccessful change initiatives. For example, Van Til et al. (2007) argue that a failed German student movement helped to create positive future external impacts in the country's democratic process by demonstrating the ability of citizens to participate in seeking social change.

While highly visible social change movements are well documented and represent fundamental shifts in society through righting social injustice and oppression, Zald, Morrill, and Rao (2005) draw attention to less visible GAs acting within their

communities that also contribute to social change on a smaller scale. This may be through a policy change or in raising consciousness, altering the way people see themselves and others and acting like glue to their communities, collectively drawing them together to find solutions for both known and future unknown issues.

Community groups also contribute to significant environmental change through collective efforts to improve their communities with activities such as recycling initiatives, community gardens or planting trees in a wetland project, utilising the collective expertise of members to find the best solutions with limited resources (Seyfang & Smith, 2007). The cumulative external impacts of such projects have been recognised in a UK Government (2005) environmental policy statement as being beneficial to the environment while also inspiring and informing similar action by other groups.

An example in the UK energy sector has been the creation of innovative energy projects, ranging from power conservation efforts to those addressing climate change, which may begin as supported incubator-type approaches while groups become established, with assistance to develop clear project aims, gain knowledge and form network connections (Martiskainen, 2016). As shown in previous examples, Martiskainen (2016) highlights the associated beneficial impacts of such projects when they can be used as exemplars to inform other groups embarking on similar initiatives. This ability to pass on learning through networks extends the external impacts of GAs through allowing knowledge to be shared without the restrictions often created by organisations around commercial sensitivity and profit imperatives.

3.6.1. Social Capital and Networks

The knowledge sharing, empowerment and connections created via networks shown as external GA impacts also embody social capital, which collectively builds community

strength and capacities (Stebbins, 2009). Putnam (2000) maintains social capital is an aspirational objective, available as a collective benefit from networks, generating trust and increasing the transfer of knowledge and cohesion within communities to help resolve societal problems.

Schneider (2009) identifies three separate schools of thought regarding social capital, however, for the purposes of my research I draw primarily on Putnam's (2000) theories on social capital, applicable in my view as they originate from his focus on voluntary organisations, relating to social networks rather than individuals. Fundamentally, social capital is a qualitative concept and Schneider (2009) contends that the divergence in understanding can be partly attributed to a reliance on quantitative methods for earlier research, which concentrated on individual responses rather than the network interactions through which social capital is formed.

Putnam (2000) draws a distinction between "bridging" and "bonding" (p. 22) social capital whereby bridging social capital is generated by outward actions to diverse network connections, often to seek external knowledge or support, while bonding social capital is generated by strengthening existing bonds and networks, building momentum for change within an organisation.

Of the two types, Svendsen and Svendsen (2009) believe bridging social capital is harder to achieve as it requires inclusive networks that generate trust, typically generated by voluntary associations with open membership rather than closed groups. An example of bridging social capital emerged from research conducted into farmer participation in EU "agri-environmental schemes" where it was found farmers were more willing to adopt new farming practices when they met with approval and recognition from non-farming stakeholders outside their traditional farming community network (de Krom, 2017, p. 354). Converting environmental capital to social capital where changes to environmental practices occur, is not an easy transition, according to

Allen (2003) and requires a large amount of power to influence others to join in with collective action. Middlemiss and Parrish (2010) agree that the success of low-carbon initiatives at a grassroots level requires first a willingness for individuals to initiate their own learning process before empowering others as a group process and lastly to change and enable any social structures that might constrict change. As an example, a community group wanting to implement a low-carbon project built an alliance with a local civic society who let them utilise their charitable trust status and resources as well as bridging social capital with other community groups and local government (Middlemiss & Parrish, 2010). This implies that bridging social capital occurs when members of networks can reach across a divide and are open to the views and thoughts of other networks, thus building a strong outward looking culture of inclusion.

Although seen as a more inward-looking approach, bonding social capital can also be a powerful tool, such as an example of a voluntary community empowerment programme that Aiyer, Zimmerman, Morrel-Samuels, and Reischl (2015) found increased social capital and cohesiveness through promoting a vibrant neighbourhood environment with the aim of reducing crime, rather than focusing on the negative aspects of disengagement previously linked to high rates of vandalism and lawlessness.

In this next section I explore the link between social capital and resilience and how GAs might contribute to the generation of these to create stronger community bonds.

3.6.2. Resilience

While social capital may be viewed as a resource or reservoir of community strength, Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche, and Pfefferbaum (2008) view resilience as a transformational process which draws on those resources in a dynamic, adaptive manner. Resilience is described by G. Wilson (2012) as a measure of how well an ecosystem of any type responds to a sudden altered state, with Ganor and Ben-Lavy

(2003) extending this definition to include developing the flexibility to adapt to a completely new situation. Magis (2010) agrees that resilience is both an action and a cycle in which resilience can be simultaneously used and gained, while Masten (2014) believes that the key to creating resilience are simple everyday things, which she calls “ordinary magic” (p. 8). This has parallels with relational leadership and the small unremarkable acts noted by Uhl-Bien (2006) in the previous chapter.

In a grassroots community context, my definitional summary is that social capital is the collective resource gathered from all the small actions over a long period that build and bind communities together and community resilience is a means of accessing that resource and adapting it into further benefits for that community.

Resilience and its subset community resilience are created when bottom-up grassroots groups work on building capacity to prevent, adapt or recover from surprise events such as economic or political shocks, accidents or environmental events such as floods, droughts and climate change (G. Wilson, 2012). Ganor and Ben-Lavy (2003) caution that there must be on-going social investment by communities, including creating networks of trust and leadership development to ensure that there are sufficient reserves of community resilience able to be called on when needed and replenished for future use. Norris et al. (2008) stress the importance of the adaptive nature of resilience particularly in a community context where networks are of prime consideration.

Displays of community resilience by GAs in Christchurch following the 2010 and 2011 earthquakes demonstrate the importance of long term community development to build social capital. For example, members of the Lyttleton Voluntary Fire Brigade knew the location of fuel, water and generators and could access these immediately while the community-led Lyttleton Information Centre quickly mobilised as a central network hub, as Christchurch Civil Defence agencies struggled to cope with the scale of the disaster (Everingham, 2012). Evaluation following the events identified the benefits of

having established groups prior to a natural disaster and future initiatives to improve the cohesion of different groups to work more synergistically together (Everingham, 2012). The ability of GAs to spontaneously mobilise and innovate, without bureaucratic processes, demonstrates their advantage over authorities in volatile circumstances.

In the next section I turn to grassroots leadership which represents the point of convergence between the two elements of the literature and then introduce three theoretical models that have greatly informed my thinking on grassroots leadership.

3.7. Grassroots Association Structure and Leadership

As discussed in the previous chapter on leadership, community-led groups operating at a grassroots level present both challenges and opportunities for scholars in considering the type of leadership that might exist in a group of volunteers, with little or no authority and where collective decision-making appears to be the norm (Cnaan et al., 2007; Gerlach & Hine, 1970; Gundelach, 1979; D. Smith, 1997b; Van Til et al., 2007). GAs also present an opportunity for scholars to explore leadership outside the confines of a hierarchical structure with formal positional leaders, and consider alternative structures perhaps more appropriate in the convoluted world of the 21st century (Klau & Hufnagel, 2016).

3.7.1. Symmetry of Entity and Constructionist Approaches

Although the grassroots literature sometimes attributes the original concept for a change initiative to a visionary individual (Onyx & Leonard, 2011; Selsky & Smith, 1994; A. Smith, Hargreaves, Hielscher, Martiskainen, & Seyfang, 2016), in every case study I reviewed, it appears to require action by a collaborative community group to grasp an opportunity and continue the leadership work. This aligns with Crosby and Bryson's (2005) Integrated Leadership Framework from the previous chapter, that assimilates leadership across the spectrum of individuals, groups and organisations to achieve

action on policy change. Middlemiss and Parrish (2010) support this view, describing how energy conservation groups attributed their successes to the power of collective leadership strength, far beyond what they could achieve as individuals. To quote Chetkovich and Kunreuther (2006); “organisations may work with a theory of change that includes a significant role for individual transformation and yet be oriented toward collective action” (p. 22).

The literature reviewed thus far shows the complex relationship between individual commitment and collective group achievement, which gives me further confidence to adopt the integrated approach suggested by Crosby and Bryson (2012) in the previous chapter, to explore both entity and constructionist perspectives. I continue this section by introducing three grassroots leadership models as visual representations of how the process of grassroots leadership for social change is being presented in the literature.

3.7.2. Grassroots Leadership Theoretical Models

I introduce the three theoretical models in chronological order to demonstrate the critical role of context and an endorsement of Drath et al.’s (2008) DAC model that considers context an omnipresent feature of the leadership dynamic.

Delgado Bernal’s (1998) Dimensions of Grassroots Leadership model, Figure 6, shows the core leadership activities that underpinned more visible protest action in a historic 1960s grassroots movement, aimed at achieving greater citizen participation and civil rights equality in the education system. The relevance of this model lies in its illumination of behind the scenes grassroots leadership work and promotion of themes such as developing consciousness and networking that have featured in the literature thus far. The fact that Delgado Bernal’s (1998) model displays all dimensions as non-sequential and of equal importance has exciting parallels with Uhl-Bien and Arena’s

(2017) recent findings about the function of enabling leadership in complexity leadership thinking.

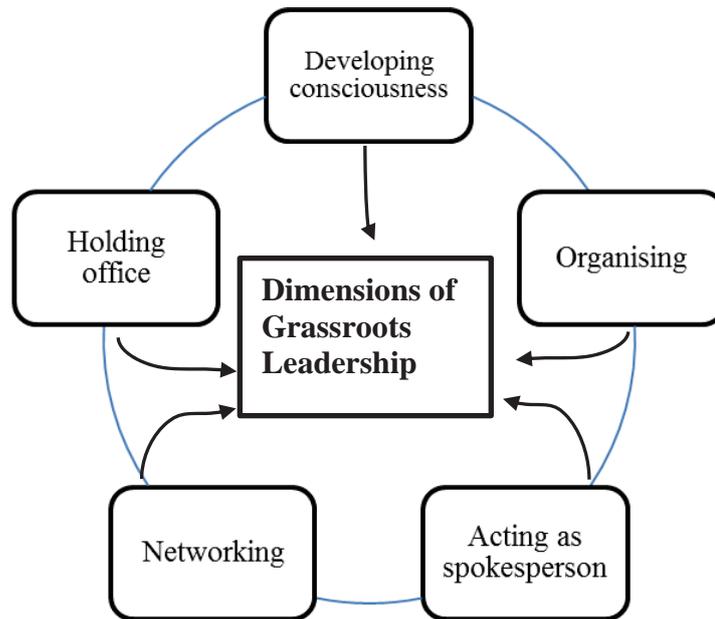


Figure 6. *Dimensions of Grassroots Leadership Model*⁶

This model demonstrates the possibility that the function of enabling leadership to create adaptive space may have been part of GA leadership processes historically, while the significance of this is only just being recognised in contemporary leadership theory. For example, developing consciousness is a critical and undervalued part of gaining momentum for a social change objective, according to Delgado Bernal (1998) as it requires others to listen and be open to new possibilities to create the impetus for change. The women involved in the grassroots initiative also recognised the value of *sponsors*, by linking with diverse groups to help provide legitimacy for their cause (Delgado Bernal, 1998) a point also noted by Crosby and Bryson (2012) in their integrated leadership work.

⁶ From “Grassroots leadership reconceptualised: Chicana oral histories and the 1968 East Los Angeles school blowouts,” by D. Delgado Bernal, 1998, *Frontiers: A Journal of Women’s Studies*, 19(2), p. 124. Copyright © 1998 University of Nebraska Press. Adapted with permission.

The second model, Table 3, displays a portion of a conceptual framework developed by Mars (2009) to compare grassroots leadership processes with those of an entrepreneurial nature in a study about voluntary student movement groups at a tertiary level. I include only the grassroots leadership processes section of the framework relevant in this context. The framework reiterates Messer's (1994) view of the unique place that voluntary groups such as GAs occupy, outside the control of authority, providing an element of independence and perhaps a more nimble, adaptive capacity alluded to by Norris et al. (2008), reminiscent of Uhl-Bien et al.'s (2007) adaptive space, which aids the development of community resilience.

*Table 3 Grassroots Leadership Conceptual Framework*⁷

| Grassroots Leadership: Process and Features | |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Position to establishment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Not reliant on established authority or in-place power structures – Potentially in opposition to established authority |
| Mechanism for change/action | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mobilisation of actors and groups outside of dominant power structures – Empowerment through collective action |
| Strategic Approaches | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Strategically generating resources through member pooling, grant based fundraising and similar syndicated methods – Strategic creation of networks of similar but otherwise disconnected actors and groups |

The final model is a comprehensive theoretical social change framework developed by Ospina et al. (2012) Figure 7. The framework is based on the findings of a seven-year multi-modal research project of 60 exemplary social change organisations that cover every aspect of the selected organisations from their humanist worldview to achieving

⁷ From "Student Entrepreneurs as Agents of Organisational Change and Social Transformation: A grassroots leadership perspective," by M. Mars, 2009, *Journal of Change Management*, 9(3), p. 341. Copyright © 2009 by Taylor & Francis. Adapted with permission.

long term goals (Ospina et al., 2012). A humanist worldview is based on principles which reflect the potential for members of society to contribute to transformational work that redistributes power as a fundamental aspect of social change (Ospina et al., 2012). Middlemiss and Parrish (2010) suggest that only worldviews offering a humanist perspective are compatible with social change organisations with an emphasis on the collective action of humans as the key to creating a fair and just society.

This social change leadership model is important because it builds on the previous two theoretical examples and ably represents the intersection in concepts between the literature on leadership and community activity at a grassroots level reviewed thus far. It is a holistic depiction of how worldview, values and assumptions create the motivating factors that drive a combination of leadership practice and activities to produce collective capacities and long term social change (Ospina et al., 2012). I now summarise some of the key features and interactions within this framework with a focus on its leadership practices and intermediate and long-term outcomes.

3.7.3. Leadership Practices

Reframing Discourse

Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework identifies three leadership practices of “reframing discourse, bridging difference and unleashing human energies,” (p. 256) which help frame the study in a similar way to Drath et al.'s (2008) identified leadership tasks of direction, alignment and commitment (DAC) introduced in the leadership chapter.

Reframing discourse requires a clear understanding of a current situation, before setting it aside to create new pathways, which has parallels to the developing consciousness dimension raised in Delgado Bernal's (1998) model.

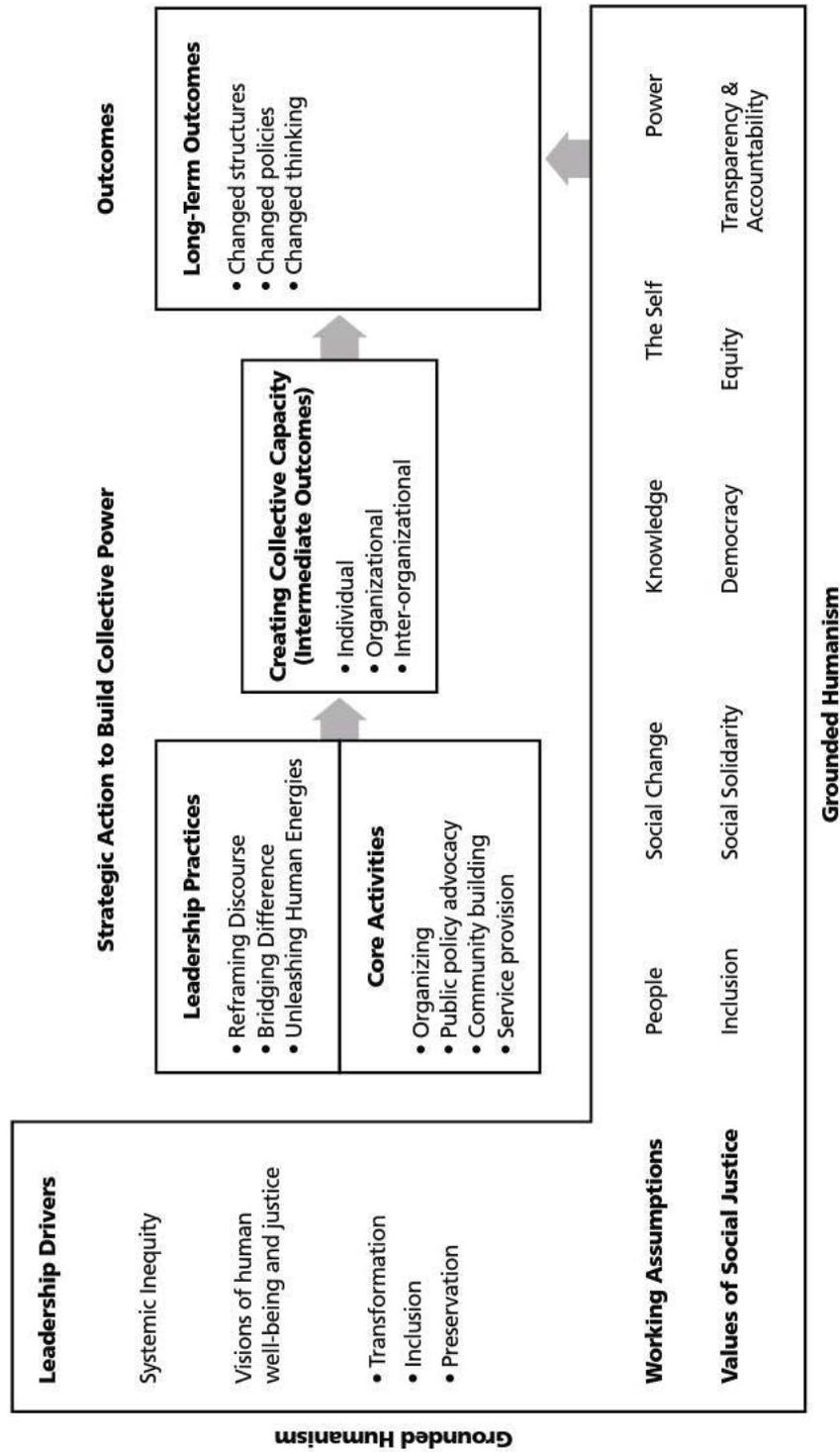


Figure 7. Theorising Social Change Leadership: A Framework⁸

⁸ From Advancing Relational Leadership Research: A dialogue among perspectives (p. 256), edited by M. Uhl-Bien and S. Ospina, 2012, Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing. Copyright © 2012 by Information Age Publishing. Reprinted with permission.

Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky (2009) suggest that the nature of leadership required to reframe discourse is adaptive, a practice which works first to create stability while enabling substantial change to follow. The literature has demonstrated that adaptive leadership may be required in a social change organisation due to the complexity of the environment while organisations hold steadfast to their core values and principles of social justice (Ospina et al., 2012), which adds weight to Uhl-Bien et al.'s (2007) concept of Complex Adaptive Systems (CAS).

Bridging Difference

I argue that the problem-solving aspect of adaptive leadership is also relevant for the second leadership practice of bridging difference (Ospina et al., 2012), which incorporates bringing diverse groups together to share narratives without trying to change views, creating interdependency through trust, greater understanding and respect. Networking is one of the tools that enables bridging of differences to occur and was demonstrated in Delgado Bernal's (1998) research as a strategic move to keep momentum going within the women's communities and to reach out to other external networks that would help validate the campaign.

Unleashing Human Energies

The third leadership practice of "unleashing human energy" (Ospina et al., 2012, p. 275) involves increasing knowledge in a conventional education setting as well as through communities realising their own power, returning to Freire's (1996) principles where the use of storytelling as narrative can enable people to recount and recalibrate their perspectives of power. It appears that when life experience is given the same status as knowledge gained academically or via technical training, this can be a watershed moment of clarity for people that leadership can exist everywhere (Freire, 1996).

3.7.4. Intermediate and Long-term Outcomes

Finally, Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework provides a way of visualising how power dynamics are altered through a combination of leadership practices and core activities that culminate to achieve medium and long-term change objectives. There is no doubt that the scholars have met their research aims through elevating the work that social change organisations do to address complex societal injustice issues, with limited resources, as well as showing possibilities to integrate entity and constructionist relational leadership perspectives (Ospina et al., 2012).

However, I have identified some potential limitations with Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework at the junction of medium and long-term outcomes, as my research focuses on community-led grassroots groups and not social change organisations primarily motivated by inequity and injustice of a systemic nature. I will be mindful of this as I carry out my research and revisit the three models introduced in this section as my study progresses.

3.8. Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have defined and characterised GAs and the types of communities that make up their membership. I drew attention to the key principles of voluntary altruism, motivations for participation with an emphasis on power and empowerment, before moving to GA internal and external impacts particularly in terms of networks, social capital and resilience. Three theoretical models were explored to help summarise the intersection between the leadership and grassroots literature and finally I suggested some limitations may exist in applying a framework developed for organisations seeking to right social injustice and inequity to grassroots community-led groups.

I conclude this section with the following quote because it succinctly captures all the elements and context of my grassroots leadership research topic:

Grassroots leadership, in the broadest sense is the collective efforts of actors at lower hierarchical levels to create and manage desired changes. This bottom up change process is characterised by the strategic mobilisation of actors and resources, the alignment with existing networks and social movements, and the expansion of desired change across applicable environments. (Mars, 2009, p. 340)

Chapter Four - Methodology

4.1. Introduction

Drawing on the literature discussed in the preceding two chapters, this chapter considers the methodological approach that will best support the research questions:

1. Why do agri-women choose an involvement in grassroots leadership?
2. How is the process of leadership enacted within a grassroots context for social change?

I identified two areas in the literature that make researching grassroots community-led groups problematic. The first is the informal nature of many GAs which may render them less visible than formal nonprofit groups and the second is the limited literature about how leadership occurs within such decentralised, collective community groups. I intend to shed light on both issues within a context of rural, provincial New Zealand, utilising a research design methodology adopted by others seeking knowledge in similar limited fields of enquiry. I will also demonstrate how my own epistemological assumptions informed my choice of research design, including ethical considerations, data collection, analysis and personal reflections on the research process.

4.2. Methodology

Positivism and interpretivism exist at either end of an epistemological continuum, as two representations of how the social world can be studied (Bryman & Bell, 2011). A positivist paradigm involves applying scientific methods and using objectivity to assess

empirical data where the role of research is to test data against theory. In contrast, interpretivists look beyond scientific methods to also consider subjective and shared meanings with an interest in how people interact and where analysis occurs, through interpretations which are fluid and therefore subject to change (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). Quantitative research methods tend to be preferred by those at the positivist end of the continuum who favour collecting data as numbers or facts that can be measured statistically, while those with an interpretivist epistemology tend to favour qualitative research methods which focus primarily on words and the complexity of social life, eschewing absolutes (Braun & Clarke, 2013). I believe this research topic lends itself to qualitative enquiry, with Klenke (2008) and Ladkin (2010) agreeing that the nature of leadership is such that it should be studied in its own environ, especially when the boundaries between the leadership phenomenon and context are difficult to establish.

4.2.1. Researcher's Position

My epistemological stance, or philosophical understanding of how knowledge is constructed, shapes my thinking and thus influences my research approach.

Understanding the linkage between epistemology, methodology and method is a critical part of creating a basis for enquiry, including quality assessment of the final research product, (Carter & Little, 2007).

My understanding of how knowledge is gained is interpretive, with an underlying assumption of social constructionism as a view of the world in which the nature of reality (ontology) is not fixed and thus constantly evolves through social interaction and relationships. As two of the main proponents of this perspective, Grint (2005b) argues that one version of events, on reflection, may take on an entirely new meaning, while Gergen (2009) believes that remaining open to new possibilities is fundamental to a constructionist ontology. Grint and Jackson (2010) emphasise the ability of social

constructionist approaches, while accepting a continuum of thought exists, to investigate how leadership is enacted rather than who the leader is. Adopting a constructionist approach where I employ qualitative research methods in this project is therefore a natural progression for me, providing the philosophical foundation on which to base a qualitative multiple case study designed to focus on leadership behaviours within GAs.

4.3. Research Strategy

In this section I define case study, expand on my decision to use this form of enquiry in my research strategy and discuss the strengths and limitations of such an approach.

4.3.1. Case Study Defined

Stake's (1995) definition of case study is a "study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi). This definition confines his enquiry to cases of a qualitative nature that include naturalistic, phenomenological and holistic methods (Stake, 1995). According to Yin (2014), the use of case study is appropriate when the research question is "how" or "why," events are outside the researcher's control and the subject is a contemporary event in a "real-life" situation (p. 12). A case study design using multiple data collection methods such as semi-structured interviews, participant observations and secondary data analysis appears to be suitable for this current study due to the potential to achieve a greater depth of understanding and more data triangulation opportunities than other singular qualitative design techniques (Yin, 2014). In addition, the predominance of case studies using qualitative strategies for community-led projects and groups provides support for this design choice over others (see for example Dyck, 1994; Selsky & Smith, 1994; Seyfang & Smith, 2007).

Following Creswell (2015) and Stake's (2005) recommendations to create some tangible boundaries to maintain a singular focus on each case, and in keeping with my third objective to consider the impact of a specific project, I endeavoured to explore a specific contemporary event or project for each group. This is consistent with the methods used by Martiskainen (2016); Onyx and Leonard (2011) and Selsky and Smith (1994), however I maintained a sense of curiosity and flexibility to be open to responding to new insights and opportunities, a proviso suggested by Piekkari, Welch, and Paavilainen (2009).

4.3.2. Case Study Strengths

A key strength of case study is the ability to investigate a phenomenon such as a change initiative from multiple perspectives and look at the dynamics of participant interactions in real time in their natural setting (Simons, 2009). The ability to engage participants in the research process to co-create the findings alongside the researcher is also a strength of case study that Simons (2009) argues may translate as a benefit to participants who realise a power shift in the significance of their knowledge and expertise. This could be especially so in the context of grassroots community groups who may be unaware of their wider societal impact.

4.3.3. Case Study Limitations

While the proximity of researcher to research participants may also be viewed as a limitation of case study in terms of subjectivity, it is one which Simons (2009) believes can be managed through critical self-examination and acknowledgement that the researcher is an integral part of the research project. I recorded my thoughts about subjectivity in my researcher's notebook and discussed them with my supervisors at our meetings to gain a different perspective. For example, during my research I reflected on my interpretative epistemology and social constructionist ontology to appreciate that I

too am a fluid personality, shaped by my values and beliefs, but subject to change depending on context and interactions.

4.3.4. Multiple Case Study Approach

While Yin (2014) believes that the research question should dictate the type and number of cases selected, he is cautious about a single case study approach, advising that even one additional case will add weight to the findings. Creswell (2013) recommends the use of multiple cases and on that basis, I chose to adopt a multiple case study design with three cases. Within each case, I identified a subject and an aspect of the subject to be studied, as recommended by Thomas (2016), where the key participants and their groups were the subject and the leadership practices and outcomes a complementary second element.

Case study is about particularity rather than generalisation (Thomas, 2016; Yin, 2014); however, I believed the opportunity to study three cases concurrently had the potential to reveal greater insights about the grassroots leadership phenomenon than studying a single case, a decision endorsed by Creswell (2009). The key aim of this case study design therefore, was to achieve a holistic result, rich with content and meaning, employing data collection techniques of direct and participant observations, in-depth and semi-structured interviews, and analysis of secondary data through document gathering and collection of physical artefacts (Yin, 2014).

4.4. Ethics and Access

Following discussions with my supervisors about ethical considerations for this project, I completed a Massey University (2016) risk analysis questionnaire which confirmed that a low risk ethics notification was appropriate. As human participants were identified as the key area for sensitivity, I made provisions for how participants would

be protected from harm, shown respect in terms of privacy and confidentiality and that informed and voluntary consent would be obtained prior to the start of the research (Massey University, 2016). The institution has strict rules to follow when students are doing community-based research regarding safe storage of consent forms, raw data and protocols about reports, including release and publication of findings. I also took care not to harm the reputation of the organisations involved, including Massey University as the research institution.

4.5. Participant Recruitment

I selected all three key participants due to their combined agri-sector and grassroots community involvement, identifying them through a combination of desktop online research, local print media and my own networks. Initial contact was made by way of an introductory phone call, followed by an emailed information sheet (Appendix A) and consent form (Appendix B). A follow-up phone call was made to answer any questions and confirm involvement before a date was agreed on for the first face-to-face interview.

4.5.1. Secondary Participants

I also selected several group members from each GA as secondary research participants. These participants were selected from my interactions during participant observations or via a snowball sampling technique, with primary participants recommending other group members, who in turn suggested further people I might contact towards answering the overall research question about how leadership was being enacted in the groups.

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2016) argue that employing theoretical saturation, to limit interview participants when new interviews do not uncover additional insights, may not

be advisable when “meaning” (p. 89) rather than fact is the basis of enquiry, while Creswell (2009) recommends deciding on a set number of participants, perhaps based on similar cases. I hoped to interview at least one other group member other than the main participant and in each case two or more people were interviewed.

Pre-testing, rather than pilot testing was conducted with the assistance of my supervisor in the month prior to the first interview, to refine questions and pre-empt potential problems during the collection process. Although Sampson (2004) recommends pilot testing, Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz (1998) argue that it must be practical and convenient. A preliminary visit to field-work locations also proved impossible as the locations were unknown at the start of the project.

4.5.2. Participant Choices

Prior to each interview, I discussed the consent process with the interviewees and offered to anonymise the data using pseudonyms for names and geographical location. The option to anonymise information or withdraw from the research project was kept open until the final report draft was completed. I also adopted the democratic ethical stance of Simons (2009) where principles of fairness, justice and equity are applied to allow each participant to review their information through providing access to interview transcripts, fieldwork notes and observational notes.

4.5.3. Researcher as Participant

As a researcher using qualitative methodology I recognised my own place as a participant in this case study approach and recognised that my chosen design would involve entering the domain of my participants as the primary instrument of data collection (Yin, 2014). I anticipated my previous agri-sector career and leadership experience in GAs could benefit this research, however I was also aware of potential

biases towards the findings which I referenced in a reflective journal throughout the process. I acknowledge my background and personal interest in illuminating the contribution of women to New Zealand's agri-sector influenced my selection of primary participants, however secondary participants and group membership comprised an even gender balance.

4.6. Data Collection

I used a variety of data collection methods (see Table 4) beginning with the original desktop search for secondary data which assisted in my selection of the three key participants as well as providing further information about the groups they were part of. This was followed with the first of the primary data collection, the key participant interviews.

4.6.1. Semi-Structured Interviews

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with the three key participants with a series of open ended questions and the ability for interviewees to speak about topics outside the line of questioning (Appendix C). I recorded the interviews with an audio recorder and made extensive written notes. Following each interview, I wrote up my field notes and emailed them to the participants inviting their feedback and made changes based on their comments. Each audio recording was transcribed and the verbatim transcripts were sent to the interviewees if requested. The interviews were conducted over a two-month period with one participant interviewed twice due to time and situational limitations on the first occasion.

I also conducted 20-30 minute semi-structured interviews with other group members or associates via phone or in person, focusing on group processes and practices. Although these interviews were not recorded, I made detailed notes and captured verbatim

segments in an interview summary report. Once again, I invited each interviewee to read and give feedback on my interview summaries.

Table 4 Data collection tools

| Primary & Secondary Data Collection Tools | Process and (Outputs) |
|----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Interviews (Primary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In-depth semi-structured (notes taken & interview reports, recorded & transcribed, reflective journaling) - Shorter duration semi-structured (notes taken & report summary, reflective journaling, thematic analysis TA, values coding VC) <i>(discussed in Table 5, p. 60)</i> |
| Direct Observation (Primary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Observations were in context and real time (field notes, written report, reflective journaling, TA, VC) |
| Participant Observation (Primary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Observations were in context and real time active research (field notes, photographs, written report, reflective journaling, TA, VC) |
| Documents (Secondary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Analysis of print & electronic media articles and event reports, advertisements, associated groups (Research memos, reflective journaling, TA, VC) |
| Archival Records (Secondary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Analysis of audio interview, archived electronic documents (Research memos, reflective journaling, data analysis, TA, VC) |
| Physical Artefacts (Secondary) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Items observed during other data collection methods (Supporting information for other data collection methods, reflective journaling, data analysis, TA, VC) |

4.6.2. Direct and Participant Observations

Other primary data collection consisted of a participant observation with one group, direct observation with another group and a joint interview with two members of a third group which was audio recorded and transcribed. I wrote field notes for both observations and sent them to the key participants, one of whom subsequently used them as the basis for the group's own iterative reflective process.

4.6.3. Secondary Data Collection

Secondary data collected at the start of the research process helped me select key participants for the three cases, however collection of secondary data continued throughout the course of the research. The sources included newspaper articles detailing group field days, activities and group membership, the fortnightly columns of one of the participants, as well as historical written and audio interviews with group members. I noted artefacts and visual settings, observed during my data collection and documented them in my field notes, writing ongoing reflections on the process in my researcher's notebook.

4.6.4. Physical and Cultural Artefacts

Yin (2014) refers to artefacts as a sixth source of case study evidence that may be an important element of the case with more relevance in some than others. I noted such items as sports team photographs linking participants to a community, the variety and plentiful quantity of food at a community dinner and the open-plan non-hierarchical seating arrangement in an office environment as artefacts that added to the richness of the case and further scope for analysis. Artefacts were mostly identified alongside primary data collection methods.

Throughout the data collection process, I continued my secondary data and artefact searches and my primary participants generously offered further information to add to the rich data captured in the original interviews.

4.7. Data Analysis

One of the advantages of qualitative research compared with quantitative methods is that data collection and analysis occurs concurrently, with the ability to modify the research questions or approach while still in the early stages of data collection, a hallmark of the intuitive, adaptable nature of qualitative research, (Creswell, 2013; Farquhar, 2012; Saldana, 2015; Thomas, 2016; Tolich & Davidson, 2011). For this to occur, I pursued Yin's (2014) advice to develop an appropriate analysis strategy during the research design phase as a guide to pull together all the case study elements including the research question, link the data to "concepts of interest" (p. 142) and use those concepts to provide direction to data analysis to add to the existing body of knowledge about the research topic.

I also adopted Creswell's (2009) beliefs and thought of my qualitative data analysis as a "non-linear, multi-level, iterative process" to provide guidance on coding text into categories for further interpretation (p. 186). In addition, I found O'Leary's (2014) model (see Figure 8) an effective visual summary of how the data analysis process can transform rather than obliterate meaning and that data reduction is a process from which rich meaning is abstracted (Simons, 2009). I adopted the "drilling in and abstracting out" manner throughout the data collection process as suggested by O'Leary (2014, p. 307).

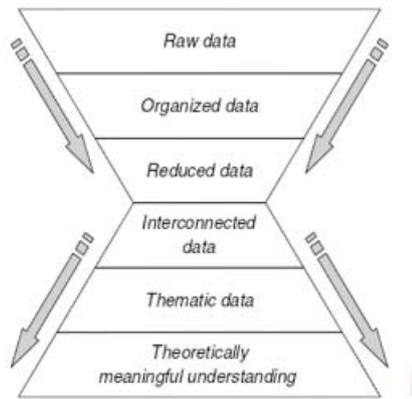


Figure 8. *Qualitative data analysis: “Drilling in and abstracting out”*⁹

4.7.1. Manual Analysis

After originally planning to use NVivo, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software programme (CAQDAS), I chose to analyse the data manually, based on the recommendations of Bryman and Bell (2011); Creswell (2009) and Yin (2014) who all caution against qualitative software analysis due to the volume and complexity of data generated from multiple sources in a case study. Yin (2014) adds that analysis for *how* and *why* research questions needs much thought and reflection which must always be performed independently from any software programme.

4.7.2. Thematic Analysis

Braun and Clarke (2006) define thematic analysis (TA) as a method used to extract patterns or themes from the data. The theoretical adaptability of TA lends itself to a variety of research questions, and the theorists’ six-phase process can be approached in several ways including inductive and deductive reasoning (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Considering a variety of factors, including my limited research experience and the

⁹ From *The Essential Guide to Doing Your Research Project* (p. 307), by Z. O’Leary, 2014, London, England: SAGE. Copyright © 2014 by SAGE. Reprinted with permission.

complexity of case study design, I chose to follow Braun and Clarke's (2006) TA model, as it provided a clear step-by-step iterative process through to the production of the final report as detailed in the following Table 5.

Table 5 Six-phase thematic analysis

| Thematic Analysis (TA) Phases | Procedures | Products |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Planning phase | Develop Research Design | Data collection & Data analysis methods (as in Table 4) |
| Phase 1 Data Familiarisation | Constant review of the collected data, audio interviews transcribed Values coding (VC) integrated into TA phases 1 - 6 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Initial ideas - Revised research design - New research questions - New lines of enquiry (eg participants, questions or data collection possibilities) - Updated database & reflective journal |
| Phase 2 Initial code generation | Features of interest identified across all the data & coding developed (extensive & inclusive of data to maintain context) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coding |
| Phase 3 Search for themes | Themes located from codes Relationships explored between codes, themes and sub-themes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Collection of themes, sub-themes, exclusions & data extracts - Thematic table (or mind-map) |
| Phase 4 Reviewing themes | Theme review & refinement (editing) Level 1: Patterns and coherence within theme extracts identified Level 2: Thematic map or table chosen as best fit with overall data set meanings | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Themes confirmed as good fit - Final thematic table |
| Phase 5 Defining & naming themes | Each theme used to create a detailed analysis: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Story - Overall story - Theme overlap in relation to research | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clear description of themes: Scope and content - Final theme names |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Phase 6 Producing the report | Final analysis opportunity - Incorporate extracts, analysis to research question and literature - Story - Overall Story - Theme overlap in relation to research | Final Products - Thesis - Case study report to primary participants & GAs - Future journal article - Future feature story (agri-sector) |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Adapted from Braun & Clarke (2006, p. 87)

4.7.3. Values Coding Analysis

In addition to thematic analysis, I also opted to overlay the data with a secondary and complementary method of analysis, known as “values coding” (Saldana, 2016, p. 131). Adopting multiple coding methods, which Saldana (2016) describes as “eclectic coding” (p. 212) may provide fresh insights into the analysis process, when there is more than one element or phenomena contained in the research question. In this study, I sought to understand individual motivations and leadership processes within a GA as well as project and individual outcomes for each case so I felt the complexity lent itself to a dual approach.

Values coding is one of a group of “affective analysis methods” that Saldana (2016, p. 68) recommends where there is a need to distil values, attitudes and beliefs (V, A, & B codes), with application in case study design to help understand participant experiences and actions. Like TA, a strength of values coding is that it encourages coding across the entire dataset, including field memos and researcher reflections to gain a holistic sense of how well the values, attitudes and beliefs expressed by the participants translate into actions and interactions with others. I believe that the combined analysis approach resonated with the integrated entity and constructionist stance adopted by Crosby and Bryson (2012) in the leadership literature, where I had chosen to situate my own research project.

4.7.4. Abductive Logic

Thematic analysis also offers paradigm flexibility, catering to both entity and constructionist approaches and is compatible with either an inductive (theory building) or deductive (theory confirming) approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006). There are opposing views over whether the inductive nature of case study in building theory is its explicit purpose or whether it can be driven by existing theory in a deductive manner (Klenke, 2008; Piekkari et al., 2009; Yin, 2014). As an alternative that allows the two approaches to co-exist, Saldana (2015) asserts that abductive reasoning is the perfect tool for qualitative data analysis as it allows all options to be considered before a final decision is made, equally applicable at all the junctions during research planning and design phases.

I chose to engage in what O'Leary (2014, p. 306) suggests is an “inductive and deductive reasoning cycle,” essentially abduction logic, which begins as an inductive process and moves to a deductive phase linking to possible theories from the data, an option that Eriksson and Kovalainen (2016) also recommend. Thomas (2016) argues that abduction is a far more appropriate tool than induction to manage the process of analysing complex situations to provide explanations that may not be absolute but are entirely consistent with an interpretivist stance. Given that Braun and Clarke (2013) state that TA lends itself equally well to inductive and deductive approaches, I argue there is no reason why the same should not apply to abduction.

4.7.5. Data Triangulation

Creswell (2009) maintains that achieving triangulation by examining various data sources can be a way to justify and validate themes, however I agree with Braun and Clarke's (2013) warning that data triangulation based on confirming one version of reality may be counterintuitive to interpreting subjective meaning. Thus, my version of

data triangulation is based on adding to the *thick* description of Geertz (1973) towards case study, rather than isolating one definitive answer to my research question. I think considering values, attitudes and beliefs alongside the themes that I discovered from the thematic analysis of primary, secondary and reflectional sources provided a strong measure of data and method triangulation by viewing the phenomenon from several perspectives.

4.8. Research Quality/Credibility

Braun and Clarke's (2006) 15-point checklist of criteria for good TA and qualitative research suggests that researchers undertaking qualitative research are deeply concerned about research quality however, find it unnecessary and indeed wrong to apply a theoretically inappropriate set of criteria. Both Eriksson and Kovalainen (2016) and Yin (2014) agree that reliability, validity and generalisability are not appropriate concepts, suggesting alternative measures for qualitative researchers to aim for. An "exemplary" case study, according to Yin (2014, p. 200), will feature five elements, including its significance in terms of contribution, whether the boundaries of the case are clearly defined, evidentially sound and that time or resource constraints have not been a factor in completion. The case study should also consider alternative conclusions and be engaging as well as appropriate for its audience (Yin, 2014).

Four quality principles have been mooted by Yardley (2000) to ensure theoretical neutrality in qualitative enquiry, through engaging fully in the research, showing commitment and rigour in the design methodology, being transparent about how the research was conducted and finally showing critical thinking to demonstrate the impact of the research in addressing the research question. Credibility about the quality of research is also built by creating an audit trail with detailed field memos and dates for primary and secondary data, which helps to prevent the criticism that Farquhar (2012)

states is often associated with qualitative research and particularly case study enquiry. Alongside the primary data collection, I maintained robust record keeping procedures including memos, field notes, creation of a database and reflective journaling, as recommended by Yin (2014).

4.9. Personal Reflections on Research Methodology

My desire to gain a greater understanding about how and why agri-women engage in grassroots leadership for social change through an in-depth exploration was pivotal in my choice of case study as a tool in an interpretative research methodology. I was encouraged by the work of theorists such as Flyvbjerg (2006) who railed against critics of case study, finding heavy-weight scholarly support for its value as a context-based learning platform enabling human development to extend from proficiency to expertise (Bourdieu, 1977; Dreyfus, Dreyfus, & Athanasiou, 1986).

My motivation to produce a contextually rich body of work corresponded with my values and beliefs about conducting research with honesty and integrity, showing respect for the work the key participants and their groups do in their communities. Creswell's (2009) suggestions on showing transparency and involving the participants in all aspects of the writing and analysis process resonated with me and corresponded with the previously mentioned ethical stance of Simons (2009) that I adopted. This process also reassured me that I was capturing the narrative provided by my research participants in an acceptable way to them. With the long space of time between the interviews and the final report, these mini-outputs maintained a connection with my participants and their groups throughout the research process and I'm sure added to the richness of the project, with further unexpected insights into how the groups operate. I am certain that my choice of participants greatly aided my first foray into case study, in

terms of their accessibility and generosity in providing me with a glimpse into their lives.

Adopting O’Leary’s (2014) premise of data reduction followed by abstraction helped develop my understanding that reducing or transforming data does not mean losing the richness of the information collected, in fact just the opposite. Another helpful analogy for data analysis was that offered by Saldana (2015) to visualise choosing grocery items from various parts of a store, rearranging them in various configurations from the trolley to carry bags to their respective locations at home before reconfiguring a final time to create a meal, perhaps bearing little resemblance to the original goods but a wondrous collective creation encapsulating the entire ensemble.

At the start of this project I was unaware of the number of options for qualitative case study data analysis such as the 33 variations described by Saldana (2016). I chose TA because Braun and Clarke (2013) and a number of other scholars, (see for example Creswell, 2013; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Grbich, 2013) promote this analytic method due to its application for qualitative research and case studies that generate multiple streams of data. Adding value coding to the TA process helped delineate those themes that also related to values and attitudes of the key participants, which I think supported my overall research design.

4.10. Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have summarised my methodology for this research project exploring why agri-women choose an involvement in grassroots leadership and how is the leadership process enacted within a grassroots context for social change? I began by acknowledging that my epistemology had an influential effect on my choice of research approach and that my interpretative worldview and social constructionist beliefs guided me towards a qualitative research design. I defined case study and justified the basis of

my decision to use this method to answer my research question, adopting a multiple case design. Ethical issues were addressed during the research design process and access negotiated with the participants and their groups so I could conduct my data collection. I used tables to show how the data was collected and analysed in an iterative and simultaneous manner using TA as the method to transform the data into themes complemented by values coding. After discussing ways of measuring the quality of a case study research project I reflected on the analytical process. In the next chapter I present my research findings and discussion, a combined approach recommended by Thomas (2016) when adopting a case study design.

Chapter Five - Findings and Discussion

5.1. Introduction

This research explores the experiences of three agri-women and their engagement with grassroots leadership to achieve social change. In this chapter, I explain my research findings and discuss them in relation to the literature on leadership and social change at a grassroots level. I introduce the women and their grassroots projects as cases, analyse the factors that contribute to their involvement, adopting an entity perspective. I also consider the impact of their projects through a constructionist viewpoint, with the intention of drawing from the literature and empirical research to create a social change grassroots leadership framework. Finally, I present an adapted model for social change that incorporates the empirical findings with reference to the relevant literature.

5.2. Case Descriptions

The three women and their grassroots community groups are:

1. Nicole Sorensen and the Northland Collaborative Community Dinner Group (NCCDG)
2. Bev Trowbridge and the Northland Biological Farming Group (NBFG)
3. Louise Giltrap and the Northland Emergency Services Trust Ambassador Programme (NEST)

5.2.1. Case One – Courageous Conversations

Nicole Sorensen is a recognised leader within FMG (formerly Farmers Mutual Group), a member-owned insurer with a strong rural focus. In her role as area manager for the Northland region, she visits farms regularly and manages a team of rural professionals whose work involves understanding risk management and asset protection for their clients within the farming community.

Outside working hours, Nicole is a member of the Northland Collaborative Community Dinner Group (NCCDG), a social change initiative enacted via a series of community dinners taking place throughout Northland since June 2015. This initiative began when a group of rural professionals discussed how they could better support the Northland farming community facing a serious downturn, particularly in the dairy sector.

Group members came to the realisation that their strategy of acting in isolation from one another in their professional roles was potentially resulting in farm visits by multiple agencies, interrupting farmers' work schedules to deliver similar messages. The group also recognised the significant sacrifices in time and money made by farmers to attend centralised field days and that a decentralised model for engagement could instead visualise events hosted in more remote parts of the region.

While the membership of NCCDG is voluntary, it includes representatives from Dairy NZ, Beef and Lamb NZ, Northland Rural Support Trust, Federated Farmers, Fonterra, FMG Insurance, Primary ITO, Dairy Women's Network, Rural Women NZ, NZ Young Farmers, NZ Police and Worksafe New Zealand, an eclectic mix of organisations with diverse communities of interest.

By the end of 2016, the voluntary altruistic NCCDG will have hosted 19 dinners and fed almost 2000 people, utilising sometimes little used community premises in small

rural Northland towns. Nicole recalls the first dinner held at Waiharara in the Far North on a wet, cold day during the 2015 calving season and says the group has come a long way together since that first event when they did not know what to expect, either with farmer response or how the collaborative group and its leadership dynamics would develop.

The dinners also have a serious element in the form of “courageous conversations,” encompassing things like looking out for your neighbours and recognising the warning signs that someone may need help but might not seek it themselves. This recognises the isolation factor that exists by nature within the agri-sector where the nearest neighbour may be “70 hectares away” (Nicole, NCCDG).

The following excerpt from my researcher’s notebook illustrates the various activities that took place at a dinner I attended as an observer, indicative of all the dinners held to date.

The serious part of the evening continues with a debate topic given to diners at each table to prepare and deliver a response to all present. Topics include concerns about the disconnect between urban and rural communities, increasing regulatory pressures and environmental perceptions, and farmers’ love for their land and animals as much as financial returns. NCCDG members disperse themselves around the room so the courageous conversations are not limited to the allotted time between courses. (Researcher’s Notebook, 16.10.16)

I also noted the inclusive way NCCDG members interacted with younger people attending the dinner, showing equal respect for their contributions as those of the adult diners.

Finding herself the sole adult at a table of young people, Nicole supported and encouraged the young speakers, who spoke eloquently and from the heart about issues that affect them. From my vantage point in the hall kitchen, helping to clear up after the meal, the sounds emanating from the room were a buzz of conversation punctuated by laughter, and a delight to observe. (Researcher's Notebook, 16.10.16)

It was evident from comments and interactions during my observation, that the members of the NCCDG also gain great value from their involvement. This is, in part, due to the camaraderie developed over time, but also in extending their networks, and feeling good about being involved in a grassroots initiative with the synergy of a collective achievement, compared to a continuation of the traditional singular approach.

For some of the group members, this may include breaking down barriers and creating new relationships of trust with their clients, especially with groups tasked with being regulatory bodies in rural settings. An example of this was the ability of farmers to discuss the implications of recent health and safety legislation with Worksafe New Zealand representatives in a low-key, neutral location.

Another three dinners were held in late 2016, following the one I attended, and the group is to reconvene over the summer to decide whether to continue with the current format, take a hiatus, or come up with a new initiative to serve their rural communities.

5.2.2. Case Two – Winning Hearts and Minds

My second case features Bev Trowbridge, a dry-stock farmer and ecologist from the Kaipara District. Winning hearts and minds is how I describe Bev's involvement as co-creator of the Northland Biological Farming Group (NBFG), a voluntary grassroots change initiative challenging the norms of traditional pastoral farming and providing

farmers with information to adopt more ecologically and environmentally sustainable farming practices.

The NBFNG approach proactively considers soil health as the precursor to growing healthy crops and animals and believes that farming in this way can bring long term environmental benefits while still allowing for productive, profitable farming systems. “We aim to widen the message of biological farming and change people’s minds about conventional farming methods which don’t seem to consider what is happening in the soil” (Bev, NBFNG).

At their first informal meeting in 2012, Bev and three other key thought leaders agreed on some guiding principles for how the new group, originally called the Kaipara Biological Farming Group, might operate, including no formal committees, recording of meeting minutes and no nominated positional titles. The NBFNG use emails, blogs, meetings and field days as mechanisms to inspire others to consider the benefits of managing soil health and farming in a holistic way. After running a series of introductory field days, the focus is now to bring in experts with specialised knowledge about aspects of biological farming to extend membership knowledge further.

Funding for the group is an ongoing issue, after initially receiving an Auckland council seed funding grant and gaining some business sponsoring. Bev explains that while the funding received so far has been of great assistance, NBFNG faces the challenge of being a group outside traditional industry-good farmer/levy payer funded events or monitor farm projects. The group has now developed to a point where new initiatives are needed and discussion is underway about the next NBFNG event, however there is a limited pool of recognised biological farming experts in New Zealand.

Following our interview, I recorded my reflections on how I believe GAs such as the NBFNG contribute to their communities through practical field days.

Field days to promote and inform on topics such as biological farming, often have a much wider impact, allowing farmers and industry stakeholders to meet, develop and strengthen networks. This helps to build community strength and provide a platform for future exchanges towards the reframing discourse that Ospina et al. (2012) refer to in the literature. In this way, NCFG field days may help to bridge the education gap about the downstream impacts of farming practices that Bev believes exist in the farming community. (Researcher's Notebook, 28.10.16)

5.2.3. Case Three – “Keeping It Real”

“Keeping it real” is the mantra that Louise Giltrap, dairy farmer and agri-commentator from Okaihau closely identifies with. Louise's involvement as an ambassador for the Northland Emergency Services Trust (NEST) which operates the rescue helicopter service in the region, began after her daughter Brittney went into premature labour and was airlifted from Whangarei to Auckland Hospital. Some months later, when the family medical emergency was over, Louise mentioned to one of the helicopter pilots that her family would like to fundraise for NEST in recognition of the lifesaving flight which led to Louise accepting a role as an ambassador in 2014.

The 100% Northland-owned rescue helicopter service is responsible for saving many lives in a region with rugged terrain, roading and access challenges as well as lengthy east and west coastlines, all of which necessitate a dedicated air rescue service. The primary role of the ambassadors is to promote safety messages, generate support and awareness for the service and assist with fundraising, especially during the months of the annual appeal, with a funding target set annually to achieve maximum matched contributions from two Northland electricity providers.

There is real passion in Louise's voice as she sums up the need for the service:

Keeping that thing in the air is paramount to everyone in Northland because of the isolation and geographical challenges. There just cannot, ever not be a service in Northland, because it's just that important. By road from the Cape to Whangarei, it's three hours by ambulance. I mean that's just too long. (Louise, NEST)

There are five NEST ambassadors who contribute their energy and services to the Trust on a voluntary basis, while Vanessa Furze, NEST General Manager, coordinates operational tasks. Vanessa says community connections and grassroots involvement are important factors in choosing ambassadors, often more important than attracting high profile personalities (Furze, personal communication, December 1, 2016).

The ambassador meeting structure is informal with the group contributing to fundraising ideas from conception to implementation. Ambassadors are treated as valued members of the extended NEST family and appear to be a driving force behind suggesting where fundraising activities occur, often in smaller centres within the geographically diverse Northland region. Our interview took place during the NEST annual appeal round and Louise was part of the NEST ambassador team hosting five community breakfasts throughout Northland, raising \$40,000 towards the Trust's overall \$200,000 target. At the appeal debrief meeting I attended as an observer, the ambassadors present were advised the ambitious target had been met and were vocal in their support to repeat this in 2017, demonstrating their ongoing commitment to their roles.

5.3. Grassroots Association Definitions

Having introduced the three cases that are the basis for my exploration into grassroots leadership for social change, I will now appraise the groups in terms of the definitions in the literature. Voluntary community groups seeking social change have many

different titles, however the definitions are remarkably similar. As a frequently cited authority, I adopt D. Smith's (2000), GA definition of a "locally based, significantly autonomous, volunteer run, formal (or informal) nonprofit group" (p. 3). In addition, while much of the literature describes a specific social change objective as the motivation for a community group, Radu (2012) also suggests "mutual reinforcement of personal and collective capabilities," (p. 8) as an equally worthy objective, which I discuss later in this chapter.

Using the above criteria, I argue that the NCCDG members are acting in a voluntary manner outside their normal work hours in a locally-based, informal nonprofit group and that while they may wear branded clothing or drive company vehicles there is little evidence of commercial motivation. My researcher's notebook entry reflects this:

Although it may be naïve to suggest commercial benefits may not ultimately accrue from the interactions between NCCDG members and the dinner attendees, there is no evidence of direct marketing at the dinners, with FMG happy to rely on existing communication channels between other industry groups and the farming communities to promote the dinners. (Researcher's Notebook, 19.10.16)

Similarly, NCFG core members who are in the business of consulting with farmers to promote the use of biological farming products, are acting in a voluntary capacity with NCFG and they have recognised and actively addressed any conflicts of interest as they arise. The informal group has autonomy regarding its events and its community of interest is locally based within the Northland region.

Finally, all the NEST ambassadors are voluntary and while the group is aligned to a parent body, the ambassadors appear to have significant autonomy in decisions around

fundraising and choice in what activities they take part in, another grassroots' attribute defined by D. Smith (2000). In addition, NEST is a charitable trust operating solely for the benefit of the recipients of its service.

The following Table 6 summarises the key elements of the three grassroots organisations in the same format as the summary of groups featured previously (see Table 1, p. 26) and based on the above appraisal, I argue that all three selected organisations fit within D. Smith's (2000) GA definition.

Table 6 Case studies summary of grassroots elements

| Case Study Groups | Types of groups | Primary Resource | Workforce Voluntary/Paid | Primary Motivation | Philosophy | Decision Making | Membership & location of group | Benefits | | Desired Achievements |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|----------|----------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| | | | | | | | | Internal | External | |
| Northland Collaborative Community Dinner Group NCCDG | GA/social change | Member activity at grassroots level | All voluntary Mix of industry-good bodies, farming groups and commercial interests | Build community capacity | Support, challenge and change | Collective and collaborative | Autonomous, Northland region | Yes | Yes | Strengthen communities, empowerment and resilience |
| Northland Biological Farming Group NBFG | GA/social change/ environmental change | Member activity at grassroots level | All voluntary Core group mix of farming and commercial interests | Seeking change through environmental advocacy/ build community capacity | Challenge and change | Non-hierarchical/ collaborative | Autonomous Northland region | Yes | Yes | Change farm practices Environment/ agri-sector benefits |
| Northland Emergency Services Trust (NEST) Ambassador Programme | GA/social change | Ambassador activity at grassroots level | Ambassadors voluntary with paid-employee support | Build community capacity/ resilience Maintain rescue service | Support, challenge and change | Collective and collaborative | Semi-autonomous represent Northland region | Yes | Yes | Community empowerment and “ownership” of rescue service |

5.4. Cross-case Analysis of Practices and Processes

In this section I build on the GA case descriptions established earlier in this chapter by summarising the research findings for the three cases through cross-case analysis as recommended by Creswell (2013) and Yin (2014). I discovered four common themes relating to the groups' processes and practices during thematic data analysis. The first two themes, shown in Table 7, of voluntary altruism, leadership and collaboration represent the guiding principles while the second two themes, building collective/community power through challenging conventions and norms encompass the practices and outcomes of the groups. I will expand on these in the next section.

Table 7 Grassroots associations themes, practices and processes

| |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>Theme 1: Voluntary Altruism</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- NCCDG operates on voluntary basis supported by parent organisations- Core group (NBFG) operates on a voluntary basis with minimal funding support for field days and organisational resourcing- Group operates on a voluntary basis both with their own resources and the support and limited resources of the rescue helicopter trust as funding is primarily allocated to running the trust and maintaining the rescue service (NEST) |
| <p>Theme 2: Leadership/ Collaboration</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Group comprises those in leadership roles from other organisations/agencies/ associations operating with shared leadership (NCCDG)- Core group all in leadership roles within own agri-business situation- Ambassador team all in leadership roles in respective organisations, grassroots associations or communities of interest |
| <p>Theme 3: Building Collective/Community Power</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Developing Consciousness- Renewing community strength- Building community capacity |

Theme 4: Challenging Conventions and Norms

- Creating collaborative synergy through co-creating events on a scale with methods not used before (NCCDG)
- Challenging traditional thinking and practices around farm management practices (NBFG)
- Encouraging ownership of rescue service, funding commitment and changing attitudes towards safety and personal responsibility (NEST)

5.4.1. Voluntary Altruism

Voluntary altruism is a theme which permeates this research as one of the foundational principles of GAs described by D. Smith et al. (2006) as embodying humane core values primarily for the benefit of others but with an element of reciprocity for the voluntary altruistic individual or group. Nicole explained that the NCCDG committed to a vision to act on voluntary altruistic community-good values and “give something back” to rural communities at the outset with feedback from diners reflecting this achievement. Voluntary altruism will also be considered from an individual perspective later in this chapter.

5.4.2. Leadership Processes and Collaboration

A key objective of my research project is to explore how the process of leadership is being enacted within GAs. Findings from my undergraduate research project sparked this line of inquiry after several graduates of the AgriWomen’s Development Trust Escalator governance and leadership programme described their preferences for being part of community groups that operated with a decentralised, collaborative leadership approach (Neeley, 2015).

A collective style of leadership is also apparent within the three GAs in this current project, with the NCCDG reaching decisions through open discussion and consensus,

with a willingness to defer decisions and revisit unresolved conflicts if necessary. One of the more difficult leadership decisions has been whether to accept other groups joining the collaborative group, recognition perhaps that the group is having a positive impact in the communities they visit, encouraging others to want to join the initiative.

I observe that members of the NCCDG work seamlessly together to create healthy, nutritious and substantial meals with members sharing responsibility for sourcing different dinner components. Members take the lead at different times about what needs to be done, often just quietly finding solutions to logistical issues created by working in a new environment at every dinner. I note also that the dinner I attended was my first, but the NCCDG's 17th and several group members told me it had taken some time to build the rapport that I observed. Reflective iteration has been a conscious activity by the NCCDG, as members report on feedback from diners and make their own suggestions about what they might change for future dinners. This has been described as "effective reflections" by Taylor (2012, p. 172), where people look beyond a basic recollection of events to consider something objectively from different perspectives. An example of this was a collective decision to increase variety in the meals, with general agreement that the meals are a lot more adventurous and varied than the first few dinners, with "over catering without wastage" being an important objective (Nicole).

After the dinner, when I was revisiting Ladkin's (2010) model of leadership, I reflected the following in my researcher's notebook:

The NCCDG appear to deviate from the intersection of leader, follower, context and purpose in Ladkin's (2010) model, with a blurring of the lines between leader and follower as advocated by Jackson and Parry (2011). All the group members appear to take equal responsibility for food procurement and meal preparation as well as making sure diners are welcomed on arrival and all take the lead in various ways at different parts of the evening. I believe seeking a

mindset change in leadership thinking about the continued relevance of the leader-follower influence model and GAs may provide a vehicle for greater understanding in this regard. (Researcher's Notebook, 16.10.16)

The NBSFG perhaps has the greatest leadership challenge of the three GAs as they seek a fundamental shift in inter-generational farming practices by the agri-sector towards adopting biological farming practices, before long-term environmental benefits can be realised. Although the meeting processes at the group's conception, detailed in the case description, demonstrate an informal leadership arrangement, several factors have intervened so that Bev takes on most of the organisational workload at present, supported by the other core members. The collective philosophy has not changed however, as Bev states, "it's not about egos, it's very much about trying to keep the ball rolling," with the intention that others will come forward as the group becomes more established.

Attending a NEST ambassador meeting in a busy café provided an opportunity for me to observe the group dynamics and further confirmation that a leader-follower paradigm was not relevant for any of the three GAs in my project. This was demonstrated through the obvious camaraderie and respect shown between the ambassadors and NEST personnel, and the transparent way the recent fundraising campaign results and new sponsorship arrangements were provided to the ambassadors. A good understanding of the helicopter running costs and rescue service helps the ambassadors convey the funding needs to the public. In addition to being briefed on campaigns to ensure their messages are aligned to the goals of the Trust, the ambassadors are also encouraged to suggest their own initiatives. When one of the ambassadors had an idea to approach an organisation about a potential sponsorship deal, they discovered that negotiations were already in progress with a rival group, so their planned approach was immediately

shelved with a quiet acceptance of the earlier decision. I believe this demonstrates the applicability of complexity thinking to GAs where adaptive space occurs when enabling leadership fosters operational and entrepreneurial behaviours (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017).

With diverse communities of interest incorporating sport, media, iwi, agri-sector, voluntary service and business, located across the region, the NEST ambassador collaboration appears to work exceptionally well, creating an extended network representative of its beneficiaries and one that has been perhaps an unexpected benefit of the programme.

5.4.3. Building Collective/Community Power

Building collective power has three distinct processes of developing consciousness, renewing community strength and building capacity. I believe these processes represent the fundamental aims of the GAs and will feature prominently throughout the remainder of this chapter.

Developing Consciousness

The NCCDG use courageous conversations as a mechanism to actively develop consciousness with those attending their dinner initiative. The conversations begin with a predetermined theme, usually led by the initiator of the group, but I observed equal recognition of the expertise of other members to lead the conversations depending on the topics raised. Nicole told me that at one of the dinners, the group was unaware of a recent bereavement in the community and the conversation touched a nerve for some diners. Reflecting on this later, while realising the sensitivity of their messages, the group saw a positive element in having the dialogue and raising awareness about the issue of loss.

My second group, the NCFG, helps to raise awareness about biological farming systems which support the environment, bringing in biological farming experts as presenters at their field days. I interviewed two of the core group members who explained how they create opportunities to develop consciousness by coordinating field days on consecutive days between the NCFG and their own agri-business to help spread the costs involved, an innovative approach that also assists with group funding constraints (NCFG core members, personal communication, November 8, 2016).

Similarly, the NEST ambassadors work to raise consciousness about the rescue service and how people can keep themselves safe to avoid situations that might require an emergency rescue, an equally important but less visible and more long-term initiative than their immediate fundraising efforts.

Accidents can happen to anyone at any time. People think it's never going to be me or my family needing the service. The reality is that the service has touched most Northlanders' lives at one time. (Furze, NEST general manager, personal communication, December 1, 2016)

At our interview, Louise reminisced about when she first began as an ambassador: "Right back at the beginning, we were trying to raise awareness as much as money because a lot of people didn't even realise that we had our own rescue helicopter". A recent initiative to include young people in developing consciousness about safety and the work of NEST, is the launch of a children's book, *Juliet to the Rescue*, with the launch held at a local Whangarei school and read aloud to the children by one of the NEST ambassadors (Northern Advocate, 2016).

Renewing Community Strength

The NCCDG's hosting of dinners in local halls or sports clubrooms may help to renew community strength as the locations often have special significance as former hubs of

the community, from a time when transportation options were much more limited.

Artefacts such as sports teams' photos spanning many generations attest to this, providing a tangible connection to the community for one of the NCCDG members as she pointed out her partner's image in one of the team photos.

Building Community Capacity

In this grassroots context, I identify with Chaskin's (2008) definition of community capacity to describe the energies created by people, resources and social capital to solve current and future, perhaps unknown, problems for the direct benefit of the community. I believe community capacity can be used interchangeably with the collective capacity that Ospina et al. (2012) found in their research with social change organisations, which the authors describe as "power in repose" (p. 276).

The premise that the leadership practices of all three organisations help create community energy or capital for future benefit, was informally articulated by several participants as "paying it forward". This supports Radu's (2012) concept of creating enhanced power through synergies created by individuals and group capabilities as well as D. Smith's (1997a) assertion that the benefits of knowledge building contribute to a greater collective capacity and power to draw on in the future.

The success of the NEST Ambassador Programme may be attributed to the fact that the ambassadors bring their own communities of interest to the programme, which appear to help build community capacity. This capacity can be recognised through increased donations and funding partnerships as Northland residents and businesses develop a sense of ownership for the rescue service.

5.4.4. Challenging Conventions and Norms

The NCCDG has challenged conventions and norms by developing a new model of engagement with their farming communities in response to feedback to relinquish

reliance on a conventional singular approach and have shown sensitivity by travelling to remote communities rather than expecting them to attend events in central locations. Nicole explained how the group engages with the community by “generating that community wellness vibe, to reinvent ourselves as people who care about the ones on the other side of the fence again”. It is hardly surprising that this display of adaptive leadership, like that theorised by Uhl-Bien and Arena (2017), and unconventional approach has met with support and requests from several other organisations who also want to be part of the collaborative synergy that defines the group.

Challenging conventions and norms particularly applies to the leadership approach of the NBF, as they suggest alternative approaches to conventional farming practices that traditionally use phosphate and nitrogen-based fertilisers to grow grass and crops. Bev believes that adopting biological farming methods has the potential to take environmental sustainability beyond mitigating effects caused by soil erosion and nutrient runoff to consider farming practice that might stop that happening altogether. “We shouldn’t just be looking at the ambulance at the bottom of the cliff; we should be actually moving out into the paddocks and stopping the runoff at source” (Bev, NBF).

The NEST Ambassador Programme has illuminated the work of the rescue helicopter service for the Northland community and extended the traditional ways of fundraising beyond an appeal envelope arriving in the mail or a collector knocking at the door. By encouraging members of the public to take ownership of the service and generate their own fundraising activities, the ambassadors are challenging conventions and norms through their enabling leadership behaviours which create adaptive space where new ideas and innovations towards maintaining this service can occur. This has been achieved through reinforcing a consistent community message that the rescue service is an integral part of the Northland community which all members of the community are responsible for maintaining. This is endorsed by NEST General Manager Vanessa Furze

who told me “ambassadors are pivotal to the success of the trust, as people who know the work the Trust does and pass that on to spread the word” (Furze, NEST, personal communication, December 1, 2016).

5.5. Key Research Participants

My focus now shifts back to the three agri-women as I explain their motivations for involvement at a grassroots level. To do this holistically, I decided to adopt a relational entity perspective (Uhl-Bien, 2006), and consider their skills, attributes, values and beliefs to try to understand how these have helped guide them towards the organisations and projects they have chosen. Additionally, Louise has created a public profile arising from her *NZ Farmer* newspaper columns and I was interested to know how this might create synergy alongside her involvement as a NEST ambassador.

5.5.1. Skills and Attributes

Table 8 includes the participants’ key skills and attributes, either exhibited during observations or established through the course of my interviews, particularly those with other group members. Cross-case analysis shows the women have many skills and attributes in common but equally, I believe, demonstrates that there is a diversity of character among these grassroots’ leaders. I think this emphasises the importance of integrating a constructionist perspective of relational leadership with an entity one, where the leadership practices within the group are of equal or greater significance than the individual skills and attributes of its members (Crosby & Bryson, 2012).

Table 8 Participant skills & attributes

| |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Skills & Attributes in Common |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Passion, persistence and commitment to cause 2. Adaptive/ Innovative/Visionary/ Open to reframing 3. Committed to empowering others and ongoing personal development/ Goal setting 4. Emotional Intelligence: Empathetic, have self-belief, self-awareness, relate well to others |
| Individual Skills and Attributes |
| Generous, kind, confident, courageous, intuitive, spontaneous, considered, ambitious, outgoing, reserved, patient, provocative |

The three participants exhibit wide-ranging and well-developed skills and attributes and all believe that varied life and career experiences have contributed to their development.

I will now discuss the first two items featured in the table while the next two will be covered in the sections that follow, as I recognise the crossover between my categorisation of skills, attributes, values and motivating factors.

Passion, Persistence and Commitment

Persistence and being committed to a cause are key attributes of the women, with all showing a level of commitment that is unwavering and inspiring. These are noted by Cammock (2001) as an “energetic amalgam” (p. 130) of personal characteristics, highlighting passion as capturing the depth of feeling or calling by an individual. Nicole (NCCDG) explains that her persistence stems from life experiences which saw her take on some tough jobs during the early stages of her career to maintain her financial independence, rather than to seek outside support. Bev (NBFG) describes her dedication and passion for the biological farming cause as 100% extending from her

personal beliefs and “feelings of responsibility for the planet”. Louise (NEST) showed total commitment to her ambassador role when she represented NEST at the 2015 Northland Field Days while also managing significant business and personal challenges, indicative of the level of commitment that all participants show towards their involvement.

A note in my researcher’s notebook on the commitment factor sums up my impressions after completing initial interviews;

It appears deep commitment is required to be involved in a GA on a voluntary basis, often with few indications at the outset of the required time commitment or what the benefits of involvement might be. (Researcher’s Notebook, 12.11.16)

Adaptive, Innovative and Visionary

Being adaptive, innovative and visionary are also attributes shared by the women with all being early adopters of practices, with Nicole already envisioning a new change initiative, when I met up with her recently, to help increase the rates of Northland pre-school children gaining access to free dental care.

Bev brought her ecology skills, farm consultancy and practical farming experience from the UK to New Zealand, where she has successfully transitioned two marginal properties to highly productive units. She believes there is a need to make carefully considered decisions about stocking properties appropriately, given the prevalence of steep fragile land in Northland as well as current and future climatic challenges. This example of critical thinking corresponds with Heifetz, Grashow and Linksky’s (2009) call for more adaptive leadership, a move echoed by Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) who view it as a necessary precursor for change to occur.

In one of her *NZ Farmer* columns, Louise took her readers to task over their responsibilities towards helping their young farm employees to learn to budget and prepare simple nutritious meals. Lacking the time and funding to roll out her own nationwide campaign, and finding an approach by farming organisations too slow and bureaucratic, Louise now reaches an online audience of more than 2000 through her Facebook page “Udderly Easy Cooking Classes”. Online comments suggest Louise’s innovative actions are meeting a need for instruction on simple, economical and quick to prepare meals. Perhaps this is the type of online community suggested in the literature (Cnaan et al., 2007; Dahlander & Frederiksen, 2012) that deserves recognition as much as those communities with geographic boundaries.

5.5.2. Values

Values are defined by Shaw (2006) as “beliefs or behaviours that are of particular interest to an individual in the way they live their life and interact with other people” (p. 50). I believe it is important to recognise the holistic nature of how skills, attributes and values, such as empowering others, naturally align with the motivations for the types of projects the women choose.

I reflected on this connection in my researcher’s notebook after concluding my initial interviews with the women, and started cross-case data analysis:

There appears to be a strong connection between skills and attributes, values and the participants’ alignment to the GAs they choose to be part of. Personal experiences such as the life-saving helicopter rescue of Louise’s daughter may provide the catalyst, but the commitment to follow through with actions sets these women apart from those of us who may consider involvement as a fleeting thought while an event is fresh in our minds, but who fail to act on it later.

(Researcher’s Notebook, 20.11.16)

Table 9 describes the values that I perceive to be commonly shared by the three agri-women and appear to be replicated in the culture of the GAs they are involved with. Of these values, I place voluntary altruism at the top as the overarching humane core value for individuals as I did for groups in the previous section. I now discuss those values that D. Smith et al. (2006) identify as being closely linked to voluntary altruism.

Table 9 Summary of common values

| |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Theme: Values |
| Voluntary Altruism – “special set of values and attitudes” (D. Smith et al., 2006, p. 238) |
| Commitment to social responsibility/ Social change |
| <p>Social solidarity /Caring for others/ Inclusion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To foster social support - “Giving back”/ “Make a difference” - Empathy/Compassion - Family values <p>Sense of community/ Social capital</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social capital - Community building (resilience) - Preservation (community spirit) |
| <p>To empower and be empowered</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enable citizen participation - Self-help and self-responsibility - Inclusion |
| <p>Equity and equality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Treating others with respect - Bridging diversity - Non-judgemental - Collaborations/ teams/ shared leadership |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Passion and persistence, commitment and direction - Learning: Self and the other |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transparency, honesty, integrity, courage, adaptability, fairness |

Voluntary Altruism

As described in the literature, voluntary altruism is defined as the grouping of values and attitudes particularly relating to those participating in GAs or social change movements (D. Smith et al., 2006). Ospina et al. (2012) perceive that a humane worldview underpins groups seeking social change, as displayed in their social change framework in Chapter Three (p. 44). Louise's involvement as a NEST ambassador is based on the premise that everyone deserves a chance to live following an accident or medical event, no matter where it occurs, which has parallels to the altruistic equity principle conveyed by Monroe (1996).

During my ongoing data analysis, I recorded the following reflection in my researcher's notebook:

All three participants have an enduring sense of wanting their communities to grow and strengthen, beyond the immediate objectives of their grassroots organisations, as if driven by much deeper values for humanity. The women also speak of a sense of family and belonging in their organisations echoed by other members of the groups. (Researcher's Notebook, 1.12.16)

Commitment to Social Responsibility/ Social Change

Values such as social responsibility and social change are paramount for Bev as she seeks to change mindsets about biological farming amid increasing environmental pressures and regulations governing water standards and nutrient run-off.

You can see what we're doing is not helping us in the long run and that we could be doing things a whole lot better. You do feel a sense of obligation to do something about it; even with how hard it is. (Bev, NBFG)

Social Solidarity

Freedom of choice of activity is another feature of voluntary altruism and all the agri-women in my study have freely chosen their involvement in displays of social solidarity with their communities through their GA involvement (D. Smith et al., 2006). Nicole was part of the initial discussion about how to find a different approach to engaging with farming communities and whether to begin the dinner group collaboration and explained; “we’re doing this for good, we’re not doing it for targeted reasons”. The consensus decision-making process to form the NCCDG follows the principles of Drath et al.’s (2008) DAC outcome-based framework, as well as the five steps of Crosby and Bryson’s (2012) Integrated Leadership Framework.

All three women demonstrate emotional intelligence through compassion and empathy in their chosen areas with Louise calling for this in her columns, encouraging others to gain some empathy for their fellow human beings, even if they don’t always agree.

When I spoke with *NZ Farmer* editor, Jon Morgan, he explained that Louise’s columns are very different from those traditionally featuring in a farming publication and that there had been a “fantastic response” to her writing (Morgan, personal communication, November 30, 2016).

Louise doesn’t mind sharing personal stories and believes it is important that she can be open and people can be open back. She is like someone they know, one of them. (Morgan, personal communication, November 30, 2016)

Social Capital

Bev demonstrates a sense of community through passing on her deep concern for the future of the planet and humanity, as well as interacting directly with consumers of her farm produce, including establishing a butchery some years ago and now marketing her

produce at a farmers' market. This activity helps to generate community spirit and bridge the gap between urban and rural communities, an example of bridging social capital between diverse networks, alluded to by Crevani (2015a), Putnam (2000) and Svendsen and Svendsen (2009). Social capital and its links to resilience as unheralded outcomes of GAs will be covered in more depth later in this chapter.

Empowering Others

Empowerment, which encompasses social capital, also features strongly as a theme throughout all aspects of my research and I believe it underpins the desire for the women's personal growth, and that of others, to create collective capacity within their grassroots organisations (Aiyer et al., 2015). I was interested that Nicole displayed the *fluid expertise*, cited by Fletcher (2004), in which empowerment is viewed as a reciprocal relationship through a mutual exchange showing that Nicole values the knowledge and expertise of others while recognising her own.

A lot of people around me are mentoring, sharing, supporting, giving to me. I think you get to an age and stage in your life and you think how do I give that back and who do I give it to? How can I be of help and value to others? (Nicole, NCCDG)

Learning Te Reo Māori is part of Nicole's plan to extend herself beyond her risk-management career and she says she will be proud to work alongside Māori women to assist in their development, as she has been inspired by others, with the following statement reflecting Freire's (1996) views on empowerment.

I look at their life stories and their journeys and I think if they can do that; there's no reason why I can't. In fact, there's no reason why she can't; she can't and she can't; if we just take on a little bit more of that confidence and believe in ourselves. (Nicole, NCCDG)

Nicole sees her involvement with GAs as part of her own ambitious learning journey, where she is gaining value in her own life while actively practicing voluntary altruism in her communities of interest. This includes being accepted as a trainee Justice of the Peace and gaining a place on the Agri-Women's Development Trust "Escalator" leadership and governance programme in 2017. Although ambition is not specifically mentioned by D. Smith et al. (2006), the set of values underpinning voluntary altruism refer to "an expectation of receiving some sort of satisfaction for action" (p. 238) with all three women commenting on the satisfaction they receive from their grassroots involvement.

5.5.3. Motivations and Leadership Drivers

Exploring the three women's motivations underpinning their choice of grassroots involvement is a key objective of this research and the factors described thus far appear to strongly influence their choices, which was also determined by D. Smith and Wang (2016). In Nicole's case, as I have discussed in the preceding section, the chance to give something back to the communities she works alongside was an opportunity she immediately grasped, while Bev's involvement with the NCFG represents an extension of her life-long commitment to an environmental cause. A family medical emergency may have been the catalyst for Louise to become a NEST ambassador, however it aligns exceptionally well with her values of empathy and empowerment. I now consider, in turn, how these motivating factors link with the three women's GA choices. As there is considerable crossover from previous sections I will discuss only those that I consider primary motivating factors.

Nicole – Community strength

Nicole's personal approach to leadership and choosing projects has been to lead from the heart, commenting "if I lead from the heart I genuinely know I have got my skin in it". She sees the NCCDG as having a much wider impact in communities than the nourishment of one meal and hopes that the initiative may contribute to a renewal of community strength, noting the poignant symbolism behind utilising seldom-used halls to host the dinners. "The reliance on that little hub, the centre of the community, is not as great as when I was growing up" (Nicole).

The courageous conversations section of the dinners actively responds to a need to give attendees knowledge about the type of help that is available, such as having support people available to attend meetings with business financiers. This transferral of knowledge represents a shift in power dynamics advocated by Freire (1996), that may help to build a capacity for resilience to recover from difficult situations.

I believe generation of social capital and resilience are extremely pertinent to this research and that the work of bottom-up grassroots groups should not be underestimated in helping communities to respond appropriately to unpredictable events, a point noted by G. Wilson (2012) in the literature. Throughout my data collection I have observed leadership practices that I believe capture this adaptive capacity by the participants, their groups and communities. They fit very effectively with Masten's (2014) "ordinary magic" resilience explanation where "resilience appears to be a common phenomenon that results in most cases from the operation of basic human adaptation systems" (p. 8).

Bev - Environmental protection and sustainable agri-sector

Bev sees self-awareness as a big factor in her "deeply held passionate beliefs and feelings of responsibility for the planet". From an early age, Bev can recall telling her

parents that environmental damage “shouldn’t be happening and what can we do about it?” Her environmental values have shaped her life, as a child educating her parents, through to her own training as an ecologist, farm advisor and practicing biological, organic farmer. Sitting on Bev’s deck extending out to the Muriwai Valley Farm at Ahuroa with trees and plants all around us, I immediately gained a sense of Bev’s holistic environmental views and her determination to challenge others to consider different ways of farming.

Believing that farmers can “juggle things” for multiple outcomes, Bev thinks that farming practices can be both sustainable and profitable on land which produces healthy, productive animals. Her personal farming philosophy reflects this: “I try to practice regenerative farming, sympathetic to the land, to the biodiversity, as well as producing high quality food”. In leadership terms, Bev walks the talk in her words and actions. In addition to our phone conversations, emails and interview, Bev sent me a link to a Radio New Zealand interview and I found other secondary data that helped me discover more about Bev and her family’s farming philosophy. Following our interview, Bev entered the 2016 Ballance Farm Environment Awards, another example of taking every opportunity to “stick your head up above the parapet” to promote biological farming methods to a wider agri-sector network.

As a farmer and woman, Bev sees real challenges in making women’s voices heard. She also sees that while women may not be the primary on-farm decision makers, often they have empathy for the environment, a willingness to try something different and may have more influence over change than they realise. Making sure the biological farming message is an inclusive one for all is another approach that Bev and the NCFG intend to utilise in the future to challenge convention and reframe discourse.

Louise – Helping others to help themselves

Louise's involvement with her column, Facebook page and as a NEST ambassador centres around a change philosophy of helping others to "gain some empathy" for each other, "stop and think about what they're doing" and be more accepting of other's viewpoints. Ultimately, she would like "everyone to be a bit more real" (Louise, NEST). That sense of "keeping it real" appears to cross over to Louise's work with NEST, as she uses her profile as an agri-commentator to raise funds for the rescue service, whose mission of saving lives is about as real as it gets. Perhaps the best example of this was a NEST fundraising dinner for 100 guests, an innovative idea mooted by Louise in 2015.

Taking the idea from concept to reality saw Louise arrange sponsorship, organise the sales of many of the tables of eight guests to local farming organisations, as well as being part of the catering team for the event. The lead-up period to the dinner coincided with an approach to Louise and her husband Geoff, from the producer of farming television programme *Country Calendar*, which Louise immediately saw as an opportunity to promote NEST and include the fundraising dinner as a feature of the nationwide TV programme. This appears to typify the way Louise integrates her entrepreneurial skills and diverse networks to benefit others and demonstrates her contribution to the grassroots team of NEST ambassadors.

Following my interview with Louise, I made a note in my researcher's notebook:

Louise epitomises someone who is prepared to share her personal experiences with complete strangers in the hope that they realise they are not alone. She sees her work with NEST as a natural extension of this and would love to see more women taking up an ambassador role. (Researcher's Notebook, 10.11.16)

After completing my initial interviews, it appears all three women are superb role models epitomising the entity term “champion” described by Crosby and Bryson (2012, p. 304) as individuals deeply involved and unwavering in a cause, who actively empower others to have the confidence to speak out about issues and follow through with change initiatives.

5.5.4. Roles, Core Activities and Leadership Practices

The following Table 10 looks at the multiple roles, core activities and leadership practices that the three agri-women take part in within their GAs. These were either discussed in our interviews or displayed during my researcher observations. These represent a melding of entity and constructionist perspectives, as I also observe these roles and activities as part of group interactions at both the community dinner and the NEST ambassador meeting I attended, as well as my meeting with other NCFG core members. My researcher’s notebook comment conveys this:

I sense that this is how the process of leadership is being enacted within these GAs, through actions, gestures and behaviours as well as dialogue. Watching the seamless interactions in the kitchen by members of the NCCDG preparing meals was almost like watching a well-rehearsed dance. (Researcher’s Notebook, 8.12.16)

This cyclical process of leadership practice via core activities links with my discovery in the literature of both Delgado Bernal’s (1998) five dimensions of grassroots leadership and Ospina et al.’s (2012) social change framework where core activities and leadership practices combine to create collective capacity. Delgado Bernal (1998) asserts that her model is non-hierarchical and permeable so the dimensions can be encountered in any combination and any direction, which I believe allows GAs to stay adaptive and able to quickly mobilise when needed. I will now look at some of the

roles, practices and activities that particularly relate to the three women's collaborative work within the groups that haven't been discussed thus far in this chapter.

Table 10 Roles, leadership practices and core activities

| |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Roles, Practices and Activities |
| <p>Raising Consciousness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helping build awareness - Creating opportunities for community activities - Developing collective capacity |
| <p>Team Members/Collaborators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Allowing others to have a voice - Promoting others for me to speak with - Acknowledging input and ideas of others - Taking on leadership roles within the group when required |
| <p>Organising</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arranging fundraising events - Cooking classes - Co-creating field days - Arranging catering, publicity - Connecting with wider membership via emails |
| <p>Facilitator/ Spokesperson</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fronting the group within group and in public forums - Liaising with media - Speaking out about sensitive topics/ challenging norms |
| <p>Networking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Brings agri-sector connections to grassroots orgs - Generates greater public awareness through existing networks - Hosting events, meeting and bringing experts in to extend networks of others - Meet & greet/ introducing and connecting others |
| <p>Pastoral Care</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mentoring others within group and external to group - Coaching & assistance with skills development of others - Showing empathy to others through words & practice - Keeping the group functioning through personal contact - Encouraging self-care, health & safety awareness among group members |

| |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>Multiple Roles</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Involvement in other grassroots associations - Creating synergy between groups/roles |
| <p>Advocacy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - History of involvement in area of interest - Often speaking out about issues when no one else does |
| <p>Diverse individual roles: Environmentalist, group co-creator and driving force, columnist, website administrator, ambassador, coach, marriage celebrant, trainee Justice of the Peace, promoting gender equality & opportunities</p> |

Team Members

All three agri-women appear to have chosen grassroots involvement within groups where team members work together collaboratively, with open discussion and consensus decision-making. Rather than a leader-follower relationship dynamic in the NCCDG, Nicole says the group is made up of peers with most members in positional leadership roles within other organisations. There is also no distinction between those in voluntary and paid positions, which was highlighted in the literature as recognition of lived experience (Tuna, 2012) where grassroots groups' collective knowledge and expertise often eclipsed that of any Governmental agencies. This point was reinforced by the other NCCDG members, who, without exception, all suggested speaking with others to gain different perspectives of the collaborative group.

An example of the collaborative nature of the NCCDG was the communal nature of food preparation, where diners appreciated that members had prepared the meal themselves, rather than getting caterers in and “that really counts for something” (NCCDG member, personal communication, November 30, 2016). On hearing this I recalled the feeling of deeply meaningful intangible occurrences during the volunteering process described by Note and Van Daele (2016) as *wit(h)nessing*, (p. 283) which I believe is a strong internal impact, creating an interdependency within the group.

Raising Consciousness

Examples of raising consciousness are not always deliberate and sometimes occur spontaneously when opportunities arise for the three participants and their groups.

When Louise was teaching young farm employees how to prepare simple, nutritious meals at a cooking demonstration, she took the opportunity to subtly educate the group about other life skills such as financial budgeting. This extended to helping a class member with advice on negotiating the terms for a contract milking agreement, an example of what Ospina et al. (2012) describe as unleashing human energies through gaining knowledge, and in Louise's case, something which happened spontaneously through one simple, unrelated action.

Pastoral Care

Pastoral care emerged as a theme for the three research participants within their groups, as social interactions that help to mesh the group together and provide support for each other, sometimes outside the change initiative itself. Like Louise's cooking example in the previous paragraph, these small acts may seem insignificant, however I believe they are relational leadership practices that contribute to the ongoing success of grassroots initiatives, where members are acting collaboratively and voluntarily, an endorsement of Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien's (2012) previous stance.

When the NCCDG hosted a dinner several hours drive from one member's home, Nicole explained how she gently suggested that he should go home prior to the final clean-up, showing empathy and pastoral care through recognising the member had already travelled long distances throughout his working day prior to the voluntary event. I observed further instances of displays of caring for other group members' well-being (and my own) during the dinner I attended.

Pastoral care within the NCFG is demonstrated through maintaining contact and connections outside of actual events with Bev keeping in touch and sending on information that she thinks the wider membership may find interesting about biological farming. In this sense, there is a cross-over into raising consciousness and potential for reframing discourse, which demonstrates the interconnectedness of all the themes.

The NEST ambassadors also appear to support each other and the organisation outside their ambassador roles, especially important when they are spread throughout the region.

Networking

Bringing diverse networks to the NEST family is a strength of the ambassador programme in creating interdependency, however in Louise's case this means several communities of interest, including the readers of her *NZ Farmer* columns, her online followers, local community and the wider Northland farming community. Louise also extends her networks by accepting public speaking opportunities, often travelling long distances from her Northland home to spread her *keeping it real* message.

Louise has also created synergy between her roles by using her column as a means of raising awareness about NEST, even when it meant sharing some difficult news about an on-farm motorbike accident involving a young dairy employee:

Hearing the helicopter that we know so well, coming over our house to attend to someone we love, heightened the importance of what we do to support it and the service it provides. (Giltrap, 2016)

Multiple roles

An involvement in other grassroots organisations also seems to be a factor in bridging networks for all three agri-women as well as other members within their groups. Many of the NCCDG are also members of the Northland Adverse Events Team (NAET), a

group which activates periodically during adverse events such as the 2013 drought, a flood in 2014 and another drought recently confirmed in early 2017. A NCCDG member, who is part of both groups, told me the connections created through the NCCDG initiative have strengthened the adverse events group, creating a high level of preparedness and collective capacity that can be immediately called on, when an adverse event occurs (NCCDG member, personal communication, November 30, 2016).

Three of the core NCFG members are also members of a multi-stakeholder collaboration called the Integrated Kaipara Harbour Management Group (IKHMG), which aims to protect the Kaipara Harbour and catchment (Integrated Kaipara Harbour Management Group, n.d.). Farm properties and businesses operated by NCFG core members have become “flagship sites” for the IKHMG, which Bev says has helped to create closer community connections and was one of the catalysts for the co-creation of the NCFG to broaden the focus to a “whole farm approach”.

Advocacy

All three agri-women bring prior experience and expertise to the kinds of projects and grassroots organisations they are part of. Nicole says that group members are often already established in advocacy roles in the small communities where the dinners have been held and can utilise this as a bridging mechanism to gain trust, acceptance and buy-in from those attending the dinners.

Bev has been an advocate for environmentally sustainable farming practices her whole life and continues to look for new opportunities to extend this, opening her farming operation up regularly to scrutiny by holding field days, both within the NCFG membership, and to the much wider urban constituency of the IKHMG stakeholder group. The value of offering a flagship business or working farm should not be underestimated, with Vale and Vale (1975) arguing that “one live working experiment

will transmit an idea far better than a shelf full of theoretical reports” (p. 18) by generating interest and curiosity, which leads to innovative solutions.

While Louise may not have been involved with a rescue service prior to becoming a NEST ambassador, she has a great deal of life and business experience via multiple career paths as well as her passion for encouraging people to care about each other in a humane and compassionate way. Due to the voluntary nature of their roles and their distinct grassroots identities, the NEST ambassadors can be neutral yet staunch advocates of the service, educating the public about some of NEST costs, such as \$100,000 for a single helicopter blade (Furze, NEST, personal communication, December 1, 2016).

This chapter now moves to consider how each of the factors I have discussed relate to the three models introduced in the literature with relevance for GAs and social change.

5.6. Social Change Model for Grassroots Leadership

Throughout this chapter, I have been informed by the three frameworks introduced in the previous chapter and consider all three relevant to my findings. Of the three, I feel Ospina et al.’s (2012) conceptual framework represents a good starting point for a grassroots leadership approach as I feel its humanistic worldview corresponds to the underlying values, motivations and leadership drivers of the three cases in my research (2012, p. 256).

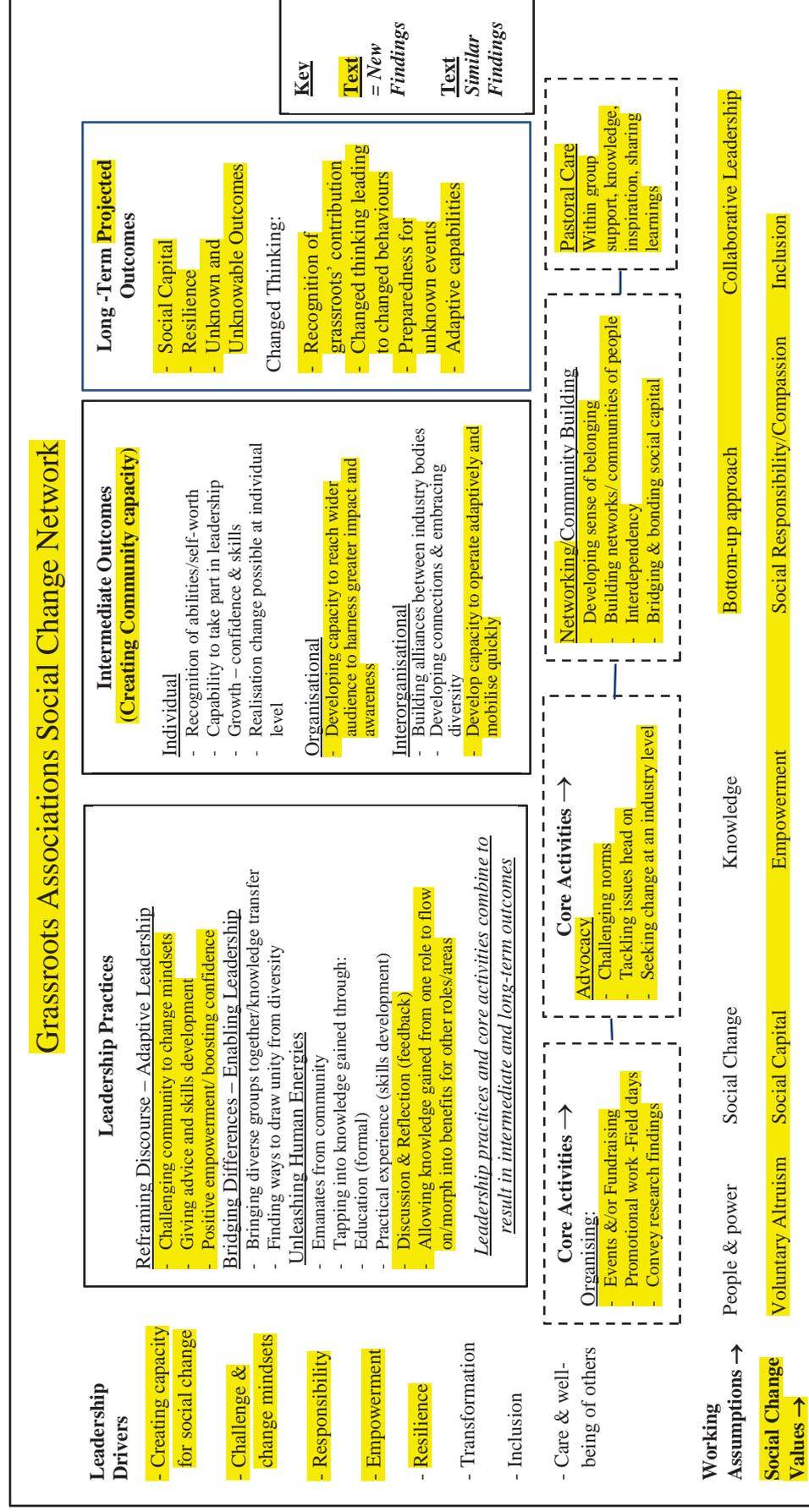
I value the comprehensive, holistic way Ospina et al.’s (2012) framework captures the process of how groups can reach their long-term outcomes of reducing social injustices and am inspired by the extensive empirical research that led to its development.

However, as I noted in the previous chapter, there are distinct differences between social change organisations whose focus is righting social injustices and GAs working

for social change on a much smaller scale, and this is a consideration also noted by Zald et al. (2005) and Rochester (2013).

In the remainder of this chapter I present an adapted version, Figure 9, of Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework to describe how a social change network might operate at a grassroots community level, based on the three cases in this current study. This approach follows my research methodology in which I have considered other models and frameworks from the literature in an abductive manner, cycling between existing theory, data analysis, results and findings in my desire to contribute something new within this limited field of enquiry.

Figure 9. Adapted social change framework ¹⁰



¹⁰ From Advancing Relational Leadership: A dialogue among perspectives (p. 256), by Ospina et al., 2012, Charlotte, NC: IAP. Copyright © 2012 by IAP. Adapted with permission.

5.6.1. Leadership Drivers

To show the key contributions of this current study, I have overlaid the new findings in yellow highlights on the earlier Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework, replacing and refining elements to reflect social change in a grassroots context. In addition, I introduce common elements to the framework that were present in Ospina et al.'s (2012) findings, some of which were discussed in their paper but not displayed on their original framework. I will now discuss the new framework and the important areas where it differs from the earlier study.

The grassroots social change framework I present confirms two key leadership drivers of creating capacity for change and challenging and changing mindsets. These link to the challenging conventions and norms theme that was discovered through the thematic analysis process. Other leadership drivers discovered through analysis and discussion are that the groups have an overriding sense of humanistic concern for the care and wellbeing of others, as well as drivers of responsibility, empowerment, resilience, transformation and inclusion. I consider resilience and the creation of capitals, primarily social capital, as fundamental measures of capacity.

5.6.2. Working Assumptions

I have applied some working assumptions, such as GAs operating with a bottom-up approach and utilising collaborative, decentralised leadership processes. I have also included the Freirean (1996) assumption that when people gain knowledge in this environment they gain power, which can be harnessed for social change objectives, even if those objectives are future-focused or not yet defined. This corresponds with several theorists who believe that the success of grassroots innovations, such as community energy initiatives, are due in large part to existing cohesive community

networks (Ornetzeder & Rohracher, 2013; Seyfang & Longhurst, 2015). For example, when NEST ambassadors interact with their communities to build awareness about taking responsibility for personal safety, that leadership practice is about generating social capital towards accident prevention and being prepared for future events.

5.6.3. Social Change Values

My study adds new dimensions to Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework of social change values. I discovered voluntary altruism as a key theme in my research findings embodying other values of emotional intelligence such as empathy, compassion and empowerment. The three participants saw empowerment of themselves and others as such an important aspect of their grassroots involvement that I felt it earned a distinct place of its own in the list of social change values. Some, such as inclusion, were demonstrated by all the groups in their non-discriminatory and non-hierarchical approaches that I believe are both drivers and values. Inclusion is also a leadership driver in the original model which supports the view that adaptive leadership can occur across an entire community, as a greater number of people feel empowered and responsible for social change action for the betterment of their communities (Klau & Hufnagel, 2016). Such inclusion is thought to be critical in achieving “wicked goals” in social change organisations that need to look beyond conventional solutions but must also find a way to encourage unity where membership is voluntary and thus optional (Ospina & Foldy, 2010, p. 302).

5.6.4. Leadership Practices

Data analysis provided several new contributions in terms of leadership practices compared to Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework. These relate to the way adaptive and enabling leadership contributes to community development, the role of discussion and

reflection and the benefits created through interdependencies. Leadership practices within social change movements or GAs appear to be distinct from other organisational types as the priority appears to be capacity generation for an external benefit rather than for the organisation itself (Ospina et al., 2012; Seyfang & Smith, 2007). All three groups exemplify this as they seek to grow community strength rather than perpetuate or grow their own organisations. This is perhaps a feature of the voluntary altruistic nature of these organisations without the profit imperatives required of a commercial business. Thus, I see the role of power in these grassroots groups as a collective capacity to influence forces external to the organisations. For example, although a primary responsibility of the NEST ambassadors is to raise funds for the rescue service, the funds directly feed into the service itself with no benefits accruing to the ambassadors because of this arrangement. Surplus funds from NCFG field days have been used for future events rather than go towards administration costs of the organisation, even though there is perhaps a need to grow the core membership to minimise the potential risk of burnout.

I have included those leadership practices common among the three groups in the adapted framework, while I elaborate further on the specific leadership practices of reframing discourse, bridging differences and unleashing human energies of the three groups on an individual case basis in Appendix D. The practice of bridging difference is part of what Crosby and Bryson (2012) describe as integrative leadership work, collaborative by necessity and collective in results, when diverse groups bring their own resources, processes and willingness to co-create new directions or solutions. I also recognise that emergence of new ideas and adaptive space in Complexity Leadership Theory, can only come from finding enough commonalities within conflicting views of

interdependent networks whose initial drivers may simply be a mutual desire for change (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017).

Leadership practices which allow human energies to be unleashed originate from communities believing in themselves and that knowledge is power, shown here as a collective power and potential for impact rather than an individual basis (Ospina et al., 2012). In social change organisations where voluntary altruism is the currency for involvement, knowledge gained through life appears to be given as much credence as that gained in formal environments. This is demonstrated by the NCCDG where members' views are treated of equal value whether they are farmers with a lifetime of business experience but perhaps no higher academic qualifications or those members with positional leadership titles or tertiary qualifications.

5.6.5. Core Activities and Implications

Core activities in a GA context may be quite different from those featured in Ospina et al.'s (2012) findings as some social injustice groups were solely focused on service provision to clients or a mix of service provision and other activities. Incorporating aspects of Delgado Bernal's (1998) Dimensions of Grassroots Leadership Model into the adapted framework, I identified organising, advocacy, networking and pastoral care as core activities of the three GAs. Network structures form the basis of complexity theory and the findings of this research mirror this, as noted by Vanessa Furze who explained that the NEST ambassadors have brought together a complex mix of networks to the NEST family that would not have been possible via any other means (Furze, NEST, personal communication, December 1, 2016).

I identified pastoral care as a fourth core activity that has not been specifically identified within the literature, although Putnam (2000) refers to bonding social capital as a

measure of intra-group cohesion. Although pastoral care could be considered solely an internal GA impact I argue that within group social interactions contribute to the longevity of the group and thus its external impacts, through creating the family type relationships described by the NEST ambassadors I spoke with and demonstrated by NCFG as they support each other through resourcing challenges. Ospina and Foldy (2010) agree that strengthening of individual relationships between diverse members of a group, such as a veteran volunteer taking on a mentoring role with a newer member of the group, may create more cohesive collaborative work by the whole group. Consciously extending their informal pastoral care in this deliberate manner could help to attract new core members to the NCFG or bring newer ambassadors into the NEST team, perhaps creating an intern type programme to generate fresh ideas and extend the current communities of interest. This would also allow for ambassadors to serve for a more defined period, if this is deemed to be a limiting factor for attracting new ambassadors.

5.6.6. Creating Community Capacity – Intermediate Outcomes

The generation of collective power as community capacity through a complex mix of worldview, assumptions, values and strategic action is an intermediate outcome of Ospina et al.'s (2012) framework, which I summarise as preparedness for future unknown events or towards a long-term social change objective. This was demonstrated in the literature by Plowman et al. (2007) where a small change initiative led to a radical change benefiting an entire community that could not have been predicted at the outset. I believe there is with potential for similar results over a longer period with the organisations featured in this research. On this basis, my adapted conceptual framework lifts the importance of this capacity generation as an intermediate objective of the three GAs in my research.

At an individual level, intermediate outcomes may be shown through people recognising their leadership capabilities and increased confidence gained through growth in knowledge and skills. For example, writing columns in the *NZ Farmer* has been hugely beneficial for Louise's personal development through the mentoring she has received from her editor, family support and interactions with her readers. In turn, Louise has been able to transfer this social capital to her NEST ambassador role for the benefit of the wider Northland community, generating further community capacity that can be tapped into for longer term outcomes.

Developing capacity to reach wider audiences and achieve greater impact and awareness may be a worthy objective at an organisational level, while building alliances between industry bodies helps to develop connections between organisations and strengthen bonds with unlikely allies. The capacity to operate adaptively and mobilise quickly is a strength that has enormous value for rural communities who may be required to fend for themselves in the aftermath of climatic events, environmental or economic shocks. At an interorganisational level this has already paid dividends in the current Northland drought where social capital from the NCCDG has been available to access by the Northland Adverse Events Team (NAET) as they help farmers access assistance and coordinate enquiries for stock feed supplies (Lambly, 2017).

5.6.7. Long-Term Outcomes

This current research project considers three agri-women and the contribution of a specific grassroots community project towards social change. While intermediate outcomes are evident in building community capacity through a series of dinners (NCCDG), inviting change in farming practices (NBFG) and creating awareness and maintaining a rescue service (NEST ambassadors), longer term outcomes imply

completing a social change objective, which has proven to be beyond the scope of this year-long project. The literature has shown however, that intermediate outcomes are a valid outcome and that Complexity Leadership Theory lends itself to emergent, adaptive change that may not be evident at the outset of a project. Evidence that small initiatives can have longer term outcomes is provided by Malcolm (2014) who described a change initiative in Mataura, that started with one person's desire to create a community garden which led to "unknown and unknowable" (p. 8) spin-off projects in the small Southland township. This butterfly effect is reflected in this project through Louise (NEST) inviting readers of her columns to join an initiative to teach basic cooking skills, with an unexpected result the development of a dedicated cooking lessons' Facebook page with 2000 members.

These examples show how GAs may differ from those in the original social change framework of Ospina et al. (2012) where the organisations were focused on social injustice where changed thinking, structures and policies could perhaps be articulated more readily, particularly as the project was a longitudinal one over seven years with social change organisations selected due to previous exemplary results.

In the absence of a similar longitudinal study, adapting the social change framework for long-term outcomes is a chance to project what might occur long term for these community groups where challenging conventions and norms may lead to changed thinking, certainly the long-term aim of the NCFG. By viewing capital as a bank of community resources it is possible to visualise how they might be "strategically invested in collective endeavours to address shared community objectives" (Magis, 2010, p. 406) and thus the capacity achieved in the medium term can be utilised in the longer term.

The challenges NCFG have found to date with entrenched generational thinking are echoed by the literature with a movement from economic capital, motivated by financial returns, as well as social capital required to shift mindsets. The literature points to a need for environmental capital to become an imperative in farming communities to see long-term environmental gains (Burton, Kuczera, & Schwarz, 2008). A culture change such as this would not be expected to happen quickly, and could be a long-term vision for the NCFG as they develop a groundswell within their communities for more sustainable farming practices than are prevalent today.

A medium-term objective for the NEST ambassadors might be to reach their \$200,000 annual appeal target, while the work they are doing to raise community awareness about safety and the costs of the rescue service may have a long-term outcome of a reduction in helicopter rescue missions through communities adopting safety strategies into their daily activities.

The NCCDG have used cycles of dinner events to allow medium-term objectives to be met and had no plans at the completion of my research to continue their programme of community dinners indefinitely. Creating long-term objectives are limited only by the groups' willingness to respond to potential issues within their communities. The recent mobilisation of NAET is a perfect example of a related initiative able to connect with the social capital generated by the NCCDG to continue seeing its benefits in the medium and longer term in a wider context.

5.7. Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have introduced the three key participants and their grassroots groups that comprise the three cases in this research project. I have presented findings and discussion from an integrated entity and constructionist perspective and analysed my

findings through a thematic analysis method suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), complemented by Saldana's (2016) values coding method. The combined entity and constructionist approach has enabled me to include individual skills and attributes, values and motivations, while integrating the roles, activities and leadership practices by the women and occurring within the groups as relational leadership. The findings confirmed my argument towards lessening a reliance on the leader-follower paradigm while building a case for the alternative outcome-based model of Drath et al. (2008) which appears more compatible with relational leadership theories such as Complexity Leadership Theory.

Throughout the chapter, I cycled between my empirical findings and the literature in an abductive manner and adapted a conceptual framework with aspects of two other models to represent how leadership may be enacted within community-led grassroots groups. The key contribution to this research is to illuminate the leadership practices and achievements of individuals and GAs that often go unnoticed and unrecognised, yet can provide powerful lessons for other organisations with limited resources operating in the complexity of the 21st century world.

In the conclusion which follows this chapter, I summarise the research project, its key contributions and implications, make recommendations for future research and reflect on the research process.

Chapter Six - Conclusion

6.1. Introduction

The purpose of this final chapter is firstly to demonstrate how my research findings and contributions link to my original questions and objectives. Next, I address some limitations of the study and consider the implications of my findings for future research. Finally, I reflect on the importance of this project as a catalyst for further enquiry into leadership at a grassroots level.

6.2. Research Contributions

Voluntary groups such as those at the grassroots level have largely been ignored by leadership scholars, however their informal, voluntary and decentralised structures show great potential to redefine the process of leadership in contemporary society (Rochester, 2013). Complex issues such as climate change, over-population, financial and political instability require a different leadership approach in the 21st century where technological advances have seen a shift in power dynamics that increase the ability of ordinary citizens to participate in leadership (Jansen et al., 2011; Senge, 2016).

Therefore, this thesis sought to contribute new empirical knowledge by exploring firstly the motivations for involvement and secondly, investigating leadership processes at a grassroots community level in the context of New Zealand's agri-sector. The principal contribution of an adapted framework combines both aspects of the research enquiry –

Why do agri-women choose an involvement in grassroots leadership and how is the process of leadership enacted within a grassroots context for social change?

The following discussion shows how the research questions and three associated objectives led to my findings and key contributions of this exploratory case study.

Objective One: To explore the motivations underpinning the involvement of agri-women in grassroots associations.

Key findings were the participants' voluntary altruistic principles and their passion, persistence and commitment for their causes. The women chose projects due to personal experiences or lifelong philosophies and all commit substantial amounts of time to these endeavours. There was a strong sense of "wanting to give something back" to their communities of interest and a belief in the reciprocity of empowerment, recognising expertise in others, creating an equal power dynamic within their group structures. The strength of their beliefs led the women to choose very different types of grassroots involvement, demonstrating the importance of aligning grassroots involvement with personal interests, values and motivations.

These findings and those sourced from other group members and secondary data informed the adapted framework in terms of worldview, leadership drivers, working assumptions and core values. The findings endorsed Crosby and Bryson's (2012) view that the dedication of key individuals in groups with social change objectives warrants them to be termed *champions* of their causes.

Objective Two: To discover how the process of leadership is being enacted within grassroots associations.

The adapted framework demonstrates how the leadership process occurs in GAs through an amalgamation of leadership practice and core activities, underpinned by the

elements addressed in the first objective. Features of the findings were that informal groups with decentralised, collaborative structures and collective decision-making may shun meeting formalities such as minute-taking or reporting structures. Leadership is viewed as a process or a practice rather than a position occupied by individuals and positional titles appear optional in some groups and obsolete in others. There appears to be fluidity within the groups where members may take the lead in areas of expertise in a stepping forward and stepping back motion, as other group members take up the lead. These findings help positively address the dilemma raised in the literature review, that the traditional leader-follower paradigm may not be relevant in this context, affirming that an alternative leadership ontology suggested by Drath et al. (2008) may be more applicable for GAs.

My findings showed strong parallels with elements of Complexity Leadership Theory (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017) especially where *enabling leadership* has emerged in the literature as leadership practices that create the conditions for adaptive change to occur through bringing together diverse networks. The strong connections created through this bridging process may contribute to greater organisational understanding of the positive impacts of interdependencies, with a departure from a traditional influence dynamic to one where there is an acceptance of diversity of thought, as noted by several other theorists (Crevani, 2015b; Fletcher, 2004; Ospina & Foldy, 2010).

The final components of the adapted grassroots social change framework and possibly most significant contribution however, relate to the internal and external impacts of GAs addressed in the following research objective.

Objective Three: To consider the impact of a specific project outcome, both in relation to its contribution towards social change and the development of the key participants.

Findings from the empirical research relating to this final objective may have significant implications for the way the leadership practices and activities of GAs operating at community level are valued. The internal impact of group membership may be a valid outcome on its own account, through the development of individual leadership capabilities and confidence. However, it is the external impact of community capacity and preparedness for future events that may have the greatest long-term significance through generating social capital that can be harnessed at a future date for the *unknown and unknowable* challenges, expressed by Malcolm (2014) where resilience may be an indicator of stored social capital.

In my view, these findings elevate the achievements of GAs, greatly enhancing their original project objectives. I therefore, consider the creation of social capital contributing to community resilience to be a major unheralded accomplishment of GAs and a key contribution of this thesis. Furthermore, this finding recognises that it may not be possible to articulate long-term objectives at the conception of a GA and that creating greater resilience through social capital may be the only way to proactively prepare for unknown events and future needs.

Having established the key contributions of this research I now discuss some of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research, before a final reflection on the research process.

6.3. Limitations

The question of whether qualitative case study findings can be transferred to other contexts and thus are generalisable has been debated by theorists, with some such as Yin (2014) arguing strongly against this. On that basis, I alluded to particularity rather than generalisability being the desired outcome for this case study in Chapter Four (p.

52). Thus, the ability to transpose the findings of this research to other GAs may be a limitation, however I argue that the multiple-case and cross-case analysis approach provides a rich contribution which supports theory development in this field, while not purporting to be analytically generalisable, an argument supported by Creswell (2009) and Flyvbjerg (2006).

A further limitation was my decision to explore literature relating to leadership and grassroots structures rather than gender. This allowed me a greater depth of enquiry for the topic of grassroots leadership, while open-ended interview techniques allowed my participants to raise any gender-based issues during our interviews. Although all the key participants talked about gender in the context of their grassroots involvement and a desire to empower other women, none spoke of gender as a barrier to involvement or an issue around leadership processes.

Another limitation was that in one of my cases there were no meetings or events to observe leadership practices directly, however, I believe the multiple elements of data collection helped to address that. I also showed some naivety in thinking that each group would have a project conveniently nearing completion during my research timeframe, however two of the groups did and my findings elevated the importance of ongoing medium-term achievements of GAs.

Time constraints may be considered a limitation in completing a multiple case study incorporating several data collection techniques, however I am mindful that Yin (2014) considers completing research in a timely manner, even with minimal resources an important quality measure for qualitative case studies. To this end, I believe careful time management and planning mitigated this limitation, while noting that researching three cases within a 12-month period was quite challenging, which supports the first future research recommendation that follows.

6.4. Future Research

Further empirical research in this area of community-led development for social change could take the form of ethnography where the researcher joins a GA as a member and/or conducts research with a longitudinal design, utilising a longer timeframe to look at leadership process, outcomes and how social capital and resilience might be measured. This might incorporate research into a GA that has been established over a long period to gain knowledge on factors contributing to its longevity and attempt to establish its impact in terms of generating capacity as social capital.

Similarly, future research into complexity leadership thinking could look to GAs to see whether they might provide new insights to expand the leadership vocabulary that Uhl-Bien and Arena (2017) found lacking in describing enabling leadership. This could also extend to address Jackson's (2012) call for leadership development in a New Zealand context to be considered a global incubator for new thinking about theories such as CLT.

Finally, research from a feminist perspective could focus on whether gender influences a preference by women to be part of decentralised, collaborative leadership that appears to be a feature of GAs.

6.5. Final Thoughts

This thesis has challenged and changed me as a person and researcher. I have explored the *spaces between* where leadership occurs, found traditional paradigms no longer relevant in a 21st century context and discovered how unconventional associational groups may offer new direction for organisational leadership theory. My key contributions provide a holistic depiction of how philosophical foundations, leadership practices and activities of GAs can build community power that can be utilised for

future events and enhance the value of GAs within society. I hope this research will encourage others to take a second look at these unobtrusive grassroots, community led groups and celebrate their achievements and contributions to their communities and society in general.

Research participants update

Finally, I include a brief update of the three research participants as a concluding statement on their behalf, recognising the changing dynamics of life and the evolving nature of grassroots leadership.

One of my key participants, Louise, has since concluded her role as a NEST ambassador and is presently considering new initiatives which resonate with her “keeping it real” philosophy. Bev continues to look for new opportunities to showcase biological farming, and was the recipient of several regional awards in the 2016 Ballance Farm Environment Awards. Nicole has been appointed as a Justice of the Peace, is mid-way through her year-long Agri-Women’s Development Trust “Escalator” programme and is seeking out new initiatives for involvement such as helping increase the rates of pre-schoolers accessing free dental care in Northland. All three women are extremely deserving of the term *grassroots champions* and are an integral part of social change within their communities.

References

- Aiyer, S., Zimmerman, M., Morrel-Samuels, S., & Reischl, T. (2015). From broken windows to busy streets: A community empowerment perspective. *Health Education & Behavior, 42*(2), 137–147. doi:10.1177/1090198114558590
- Allen, J. (2003). *Lost geographies of power*. Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Arnstein, S. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 35*(4), 216–224. doi:10.1080/01944366908977225
- Bass, B., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Beaford, R., Gongaware, T., & Valadez, D. (2000). Social networks. In E. Borgatta & R. Montgomery (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Sociology* (2nd ed., pp. 2727–2735). New York, NY: MacMillan.
- Benne, K., & Sheats, P. (1948). Functional roles of group members. *Journal of Social Issues, 4*(2), 41–49. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.1948.tb01783.x
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Bradbury, H., & Lichtenstein, B. (2000). Relationality in organizational research: Exploring the space between. *Organization Science, 11*(5), 551–564. doi:10.1287/orsc.11.5.551.15203
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. Croydon, England: SAGE.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Burton, R., Kuczera, C., & Schwarz, G. (2008). Exploring farmers' cultural resistance to voluntary agri-environmental schemes. *Sociologia Ruralis, 48*(1), 16–37. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9523.2008.00452.x
- Cammock, P. (2001). *The dance of leadership: The call for soul in 21st century leadership*. Auckland, New Zealand: Prentice Hall.

- Carter, S., & Little, M. (2007). Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research, 17*(10), 1316–1328. doi:10.1177/1049732307306927
- Chaskin, R. (2008). Resilience, community, and resilient communities: Conditioning contexts and collective action. *Child Care in Practice, 14*(1), 65–74. doi:10.1080/13575270701733724
- Chetkovich, C., & Kunreuther, F. (2006). *From the ground up: Grassroots organizations making social change*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.
- Christens, B., Inzeo, P., & Faust, V. (2014). Channeling power across ecological systems: Social regularities in community organizing. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 53*(3), 419–431. doi:10.1007/s10464-013-9620-4
- Cnaan, R., Milofsky, C., & Hunter, A. (2007). Creating a frame for understanding local organisations. In R. Cnaan & C. Milofsky (Eds.), *Handbook of community movements and local organisations* (pp. 1–19). New York, NY: Springer
- Couto, R. (1998). Community coalitions and grassroots policies of empowerment. *Administration & Society, 30*(5), 569–594. doi:10.1177/0095399798305004
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Creswell, J. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Creswell, J. (2015). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Crevani, L. (2015a). Is there leadership in a fluid world? Exploring the ongoing production of direction in organizing. *Leadership*. doi:10.1177/1742715015616667
- Crevani, L. (2015b). Relational leadership. In B. Carroll, J. Ford, & S. Taylor (Eds.), *Leadership: Contemporary critical perspectives* (pp. 188–211). London, England: SAGE.
- Crosby, B., & Bryson, J. (2005). *Leadership for the common good: Tackling public problems in a shared-power world* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Crosby, B., & Bryson, J. (2012). Integrative leadership and policy change: A hybrid relational view. In M. Uhl-Bien & S. Ospina (Eds.), *Advancing relational leadership: A dialogue among perspectives* (pp. 303–333). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

- Dahlander, L., & Frederiksen, L. (2012). The core and cosmopolitans: A relational view of innovation in user communities. *Organization Science*, 23(4), 988–1007. doi:10.1287/orsc.1110.0673
- de Krom, M. (2017). Farmer participation in agri-environmental schemes: Regionalisation and the role of bridging social capital. *Land Use Policy*, 60, 352–361. doi:10.1016/j.landusepol.2016.10.026
- Delgado Bernal, D. (1998). Grassroots leadership reconceptualized: Chicana oral histories and the 1968 East Los Angeles school blowouts. *Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies*, 19(2), 113–142. doi:10.2307/3347162
- Drath, W., McCauley, C., Palus, C., Van Velsor, E., O'Connor, P., & McGuire, J. (2008). Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6), 635–653. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.003
- Dreyfus, H., Dreyfus, S., & Athanasiou, T. (1986). *Mind over machine: The power of human intuition and expertise in the era of the computer*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Dyck, B. (1994). From airy-fairy ideas to concrete realities: The case of shared farming. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5(3), 227–246. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(94)90014-0
- Elkington, S., & Stebbins, R. (2014). *The serious leisure perspective: An introduction*. Oxon, England: Routledge.
- Eriksson, P., & Kovalainen, A. (2016). *Qualitative methods in business research* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Everingham, W. (2012). Lyttleton's grassroots response. *TEPRHA*, 23, 26–31. Retrieved from <http://www.civildefence.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/publications/tephra-november-2012.pdf>
- Fairhurst, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2012). Organizational discourse analysis (ODA): Examining leadership as a relational process. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(6), 1043–1062. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.005
- Farquhar, J. (2012). *Case study research for business: Managing and analysing data*. Croydon, England: SAGE.
- Fletcher, J. (2004). The paradox of postheroic leadership: An essay on gender, power, and transformational change. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 647–661. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.07.004

- Fletcher, J. (2012). The relational practice of leadership. In U.-B. Mary & S. Ospina (Eds.), *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspectives* (pp. 83–106). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), 219–245. doi:10.1177/1077800405284363
- Follett, M. P. (1924). *Creative experience* Retrieved from http://europeana.eu/portal/record/9200143/BibliographicResource_2000069295009.html
- Freire, P. (1996). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (Rev ed.). London, England: Penguin Books.
- Freire, P. (2007). *Daring to dream: Toward a pedagogy of the unfinished* (A. Oliveira, Trans.). Boulder, CO: Paradigm.
- Ganor, M., & Ben-Lavy, Y. (2003). Community resilience: Lessons derived from Gilo under fire. *Journal of Jewish Communal Service*, 79(2/3), 105–109.
- Geertz, C. (1973). Thick description: Toward an interpretive theory of culture. In C. Geertz (Ed.), *The interpretation of cultures* (pp. 3–30). New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gergen, K. (2009). *An invitation to social constructionism* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Gerlach, L., & Hine, V. (1970). *People, power, change: Movements of social transformation*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Gibb, C. (1958). An interactional view of the emergence of leadership. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 10(1), 101–110. doi:10.1080/00049535808255958
- Giltrap, L. (2016). Learning life's lessons the hard way. *NZ Farmer*. Retrieved from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/business/farming/78876055/Learning-lifes-lessons-the-hard-way>
- Grbich, C. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Croydon, England: SAGE.
- Grint, K. (2000). *The arts of leadership*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Grint, K. (2005a). *Leadership: Limits and possibilities*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Grint, K. (2005b). Problems, problems, problems: The social construction of 'leadership'. *Human relations*, 58(11), 1467–1494. doi:10.1177/0018726705061314
- Grint, K., & Jackson, B. (2010). Toward 'socially constructive' social constructions of leadership. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 24(2), 348–355. doi:10.1177/0893318909359086
- Gronn, P. (2002). Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(4), 423–451. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00120-0
- Gronn, P. (2009). Leadership configurations. *Leadership*, 5(3), 381–394. doi:10.1177/1742715009337770
- Gronn, P. (2016). Fit for purpose no more? *Management in Education*, 30(4), 168–172. doi:10.1177/0892020616665062
- Gundelach, P. (1979). Grassroots organizations. *Acta Sociologica*, 22(2), 187–189.
- Gundelach, P. (1982). Grassroots organizations, societal control and dissolution of norms. *Acta Sociologica*, 25, 57–65.
- Heifetz, R., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). Leadership in a (permanent) crisis. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(7/8), 62–69. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.massey.ac.nz/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=heh&AN=41997981&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- Hosking, D. (1988). Organising, leadership and skilful process. *Journal of Management Studies*, 25(2), 147–166.
- Integrated Kaipara Harbour Management Group. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.kaiparaharbour.net.nz/About>
- Jackson, B. (2012). A testing ground for global leadership: Why we should become a leadership laboratory. *University of Auckland Business Review*, 15(1), 16–27. Retrieved from http://ndhadeliver.natlib.govt.nz.ezproxy.massey.ac.nz/delivery/DeliveryManagerServlet?dps_pid=IE12117441
- Jackson, B., & Parry, K. (2011). *A very short, fairly interesting and reasonably cheap book about studying leadership* (2nd ed.). London, England: SAGE.
- Jansen, C., Cammock, P., & Conner, L. (2011). Leadership for Emergence: Exploring Organisations through a Living System Lens. *Leading and Managing*, 17(1), 59–74.

- Kezar, A. (2009). *Rethinking leadership in a complex, multicultural, and global environment: New concepts and models for higher education*. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.massey.ac.nz/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=nlebk&AN=253675&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- Klau, M., & Hufnagel, J. (2016). Strengthening communities through adaptive leadership: A case study of the Kansas Leadership Centre and the Bangladesh Youth Leadership Centre. In K. Goldman Schuyler, J. Baugher, & K. Jironet (Eds.), *Creative social change: Leadership for a healthy world*. Bingley, England: Emerald.
- Klenke, K. (2008). *Qualitative research in the study of leadership*. Bingley, England: Emerald.
- Knoke, D. (1986). Associations and interest groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12, 1–21. doi:10.1146/annurev.so.12.080186.000245
- Ladkin, D. (2010). *Rethinking leadership: A new look at old leadership questions*. Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.
- Lambly, A. (2017). Ongoing farm planning needed as Northland drought lingers. *Northern Advocate*. Retrieved from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/auckland/local-news/northland/89883075/Ongoing-farm-planning-needed-as-Northland-drought-lingers>
- Ledwith, M. (2011). *Community development: A critical approach*. Bristol, England: Policy Press.
- Lekoko, R. (2007). Storytelling as a potent research paradigm for indigenous communities. *AlterNative: An International Journal of Indigenous Scholarship*, 3(2), 82–95.
- Magis, K. (2010). Community resilience: An indicator of social sustainability. *Society & Natural Resources*, 23(5), 401–416. doi:10.1080/08941920903305674
- Malcolm, M. J. (2014). *Resilient leadership amidst complexity*. Paper presented at the Australia New Zealand Third Sector Research, 18–20 November, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Mars, M. (2009). Student entrepreneurs as agents of organizational change and social transformation: A grassroots leadership perspective. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(3), 339–357. doi:10.1080/14697010903125597
- Martiskainen, M. (2016). The role of community leadership in the development of grassroots innovations. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 22, 78–89. doi:10.1016/j.eist.2016.05.002

- Massey University. (2016). *Code of ethical conduct for research, teaching and evaluations involving human participants*. Retrieved from <http://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/fms/Human%20Ethics/Documents/MUHEC%20Code%202015.pdf?497309B983F78ECC2490A4A377F5CBAD>
- Masten, A. (2014). *Ordinary magic: Resilience in development*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- McMillan, D. (1996). Sense of community. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 24(4), 315–325. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1520-6629(199610)24:4<315::AID-JCOP23E3.0.CO;2-T
- McMillan, D., & Chavis, D. (1986). Sense of community: A definition and theory. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 14(1), 6–23. doi:10.1002/1520-6629(198601)14:1<6::AID-JCOP2290140103>3.0.CO;2-I
- Meindl, J. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(3), 329–341. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(95)90012-8
- Messer, J. (1994). Emergent organization as a practical strategy: Executing trustee functions in Alcoholics Anonymous. *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 23(4), 293–307. doi:10.1177/089976409402300402
- Middlemiss, L., & Parrish, B. (2010). Building capacity for low-carbon communities: The role of grassroots initiatives. *Energy Policy*, 38(12), 7559–7566. doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2009.07.003
- Monroe, K. (1996). *The heart of altruism: Perceptions of a common humanity*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Neeley, E. (2015). *Is the Escalator Programme helping agri-women to step up?* Unpublished Research Project. Northland Polytechnic.
- Norris, F., Stevens, S., Pfefferbaum, B., Wyche, K., & Pfefferbaum, R. (2008). Community resilience as a metaphor, theory, set of capacities, and strategy for disaster readiness. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 41(1/2), 127–150. doi:10.1007/s10464-007-9156-6
- Northern Advocate. (2016). Kids book stars Northland rescue helicopter Juliet. *Northern Advocate*. Retrieved from http://www.nzherald.co.nz/northern-advocate/news/article.cfm?c_id=1503450&objectid=11766830
- Note, N., & Van Daele, E. (2016). Meaningfulness, volunteering and being moved: The event of wit(h)nessing. *Foundations of Science*, 21(2), 283–300. doi:10.1007/s10699-014-9388-5

- O'Leary, Z. (2014). *The essential guide to doing your research project* (2nd ed.). London, England: SAGE.
- Onyx, J., & Leonard, R. (2011). Complex systems leadership in emergent community projects. *Community Development Journal*, *46*(4), 493–510. doi:10.1093/cdj/bsq041
- Ornetzeder, M., & Rohracher, H. (2013). Of solar collectors, wind power, and car sharing: Comparing and understanding successful cases of grassroots innovations. *Global Environmental Change*, *23*(5), 856–867. doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2012.12.007
- Ospina, S., & Foldy, E. (2010). Building bridges from the margins: The work of leadership in social change organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*, 292–307. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.01.008
- Ospina, S., Foldy, E., El Hadidy, W., Dodge, J., Hofmann-Pinilla, A., & Su, C. (2012). Social change leadership as relational leadership. In M. Uhl-Bien & S. Ospina (Eds.), *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspectives* (pp. 255–302). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Pearce, C., & Conger, J. (2003). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In C. Pearce & J. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE. doi:10.4135/9781452229539.n1
- Pearce, C., Perry, M., & Sims, H. (2001). Shared leadership: Relationship management to improve NPO effectiveness. In T. Connors (Ed.), *The nonprofit handbook: Management* (pp. 624–641). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Peterson, N. A., & Zimmerman, M. (2004). Beyond the individual: Toward a nomological network of organizational empowerment. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *34*(1/2), 129–145. doi:10091-0562/04/0900-0129/0
- Piekkari, R., Welch, C., & Paavilainen, E. (2009). The case study as disciplinary convention evidence from international business journals. *Organisational Research Methods*, *12*(3), 567–589. doi:10.1177/1094428108319905
- Plowman, D., Baker, L., Beck, T., Kulkarni, M., Solansky, S., & Travis, D. (2007). Radical change accidentally: The emergence and amplification of small change. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(3), 515–543. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2007.25525647
- Pomeroy, A. (2011). *Rural community resilience and climate change*. Retrieved from Dunedin, New Zealand: <http://www.otago.ac.nz/centre-sustainability/otago057742.pdf>

- Putnam, R. D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Radu, R. (2012). Well-being reconsidered: A capability approach to grassroots organisations' contributions. In R. Radu & J. Radisic (Eds.), *Well-being reconsidered: Empowering grassroots organisations* (pp. 13–32). Retrieved from https://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/grassroots_08022012.pdf.
- Raelin, J. (2003). *Creating leaderful organisations: How to bring out leadership in everyone*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Raelin, J. (2011). From leadership-as-practice to leaderful practice. *Leadership*, 7(2), 195–211. doi:10.1177/1742715010394808
- Ransby, B. (2003). *Ella Baker & the Black freedom movement: A radical democratic vision*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.
- Remenyi, D., Williams, B., Money, A., & Swartz, E. (1998). *Doing research in business and management: An introduction to process and method*. London, England: SAGE.
- Rochester, C. (2013). *Rediscovering voluntary action: The beat of a different drum*. Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rost, J. (1993). Leadership development in the new millennium. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1), 91–110. doi:10.1177/107179199300100109
- Saldana, J. (2015). *Thinking qualitatively*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Saldana, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.). Croydon, England: SAGE.
- Sampson, H. (2004). Navigating the waves: The usefulness of a pilot in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 4(3), 383–402. doi:10.1177/1468794104047236
- Schneider, J. A. (2009). Organizational social capital and nonprofits. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(4), 643–662. doi:10.1177/0899764009333956
- Selsky, J., & Smith, A. (1994). Community entrepreneurship: A framework for social change leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5(3/4), 277–296. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(94)90018-3
- Sen, A. (1999). *Development as freedom: Human capability and global need*. New York, NY: Knopf.

- Senge, P. (2016). Peter Senge: We need a new mythos. In K. Goldman Schuyler, J. Baugher, & K. Jironet (Eds.), *Creative social change: Leadership for a healthy world* (pp. 65–73). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group.
- Seyfang, G., & Longhurst, N. (2015). What influences the diffusion of grassroots innovations for sustainability? Investigating community currency niches. *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management*, 28(1), 1–23. doi:10.1080/09537325.2015.1063603
- Seyfang, G., & Smith, A. (2007). Grassroots innovations for sustainable development: Towards a new research and policy agenda. *Environmental Politics*, 16(4), 584–603. doi:10.1080/09644010701419121
- Shaw, P. (2006). *The four vs of leadership: Vision, values, value-added, vitality*. Chichester, England: Capstone.
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Smith, A., Hargreaves, T., Hielscher, S., Martiskainen, M., & Seyfang, G. (2016). Making the most of community energies: Three perspectives on grassroots innovation. *Environment and Planning*, 48(2), 407–432. doi:10.1177/0308518X15597908
- Smith, D. (1997a). Grassroots associations are important: Some theory and a review of the impact literature. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 26(3), 269–306. doi:10.1177/0899764097263002
- Smith, D. (1997b). The rest of the nonprofit sector: Grassroots associations as the dark matter ignored in prevailing "flat earth" maps of the sector. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 26(2), 114–131. doi:10.1177/0899764097262002
- Smith, D. (1999a). The effective grassroots association II: Organizational factors that produce external impact. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 10(1), 103–116. doi:10.1002/nml.10109
- Smith, D. (1999b). The effective grassroots association, part one: Organizational factors that produce internal impact. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 9(4), 443–456. doi:10.1002/nml.9409
- Smith, D. (2000). *Grassroots associations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Smith, D., Stebbins, R., & Dover, M. (Eds.). (2006). *A dictionary of nonprofit terms and concepts*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Smith, D., & Wang, L. (2016). Conducive social roles and demographics influencing volunteering. In D. Smith, R. Stebbins, & J. Grotz (Eds.), *The Palgrave*

handbook of volunteering, civic participation and nonprofit associations (pp. 632–681).

Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Stake, R. (2005). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Stebbins, R. (2009). Would you volunteer? *Society*, 46(2), 155–159.
doi:10.1007/s12115-008-9186-1

Svendsen, G., & Svendsen, G. (Eds.). (2009). *Handbook of social capital: The troika of sociology, political science and economics*. Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.

Taylor, S. (2012). *Leadership craft, leadership art*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Thomas, G. (2016). *How to do your case study* (2nd ed.). London, England: SAGE.

Tolich, M., & Davidson, C. (2011). *Getting started: An introduction to research methods*. Melbourne, Australia: Pearson.

Tuna, A. (2012). Case study: Latvia. In R. Radu & J. Radisic (Eds.), *Well-being reconsidered: Empowering grassroots organisations* (pp. 99–122). Retrieved from
https://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/grassroots_08022012.pdf.

Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 654–676.
doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.007

Uhl-Bien, M., & Arena, M. (2017). Complexity leadership: Enabling people and organizations for adaptability. *Organizational Dynamics*, 46(1), 9–20.
doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.12.001

Uhl-Bien, M., & Marion, R. (2011). In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of leadership* (pp. 468–482). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., & McKelvey, B. (2007). Complexity Leadership Theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 298–318. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.04.002

Uhl-Bien, M., & Ospina, S. (Eds.). (2012). *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspectives*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

- Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R., Lowe, K., & Carsten, M. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 83–104. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.007
- UK Government. (2005). *Securing the future: Delivering UK sustainable development strategy*. Retrieved from www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/69412/pb10589-securing-the-future-050307.pdf.
- Vale, B., & Vale, R. (1975). *The autonomous house*. London, England: Thames & Hudson.
- Van Til, J., Hegyesi, G., & Eschweiler, J. (2007). Grassroots social movements and the shaping of history. In R. Cnaan & C. Milofsky (Eds.), *Handbook of community movements and local organisations* (pp. 362–377). New York, NY: Springer
- von Essen, J. (2016). On the meaning of volunteering: A study of worldviews in everyday life. *Foundations of Science*, 21(2), 315–333. doi:10.1007/s10699-014-9392-9
- Wheatley, M. (2006). *Leadership and the new science: Discovering order in a chaotic world* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Wilson, G. (2012). *Community resilience and environmental transitions*. Oxon, England: Routledge.
- Wilson, S. (2016). *Thinking differently about leadership: A critical history of leadership studies*. Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.
- Yardley, L. (2000). Dilemmas in qualitative health research. *Psychology and Health*, 15(2), 215–228. doi:10.1080/08870440008400302
- Yin, R. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Zald, M., Morrill, C., & Rao, H. (2005). The impact of social movements on organisations. In G. Davis, D. McAdam, W. R. Scott, & M. Zald (Eds.), *Social movements and organisation theory* (pp. 253–279). New York, NY: Cambridge University.

Appendix A - Information Sheet



Massey University Auckland
Private Bag 102904
North Shore
Auckland
0745

“Gumboots & Grassroots”

Exploring agri-women’s leadership for social change at a grassroots level in New Zealand

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Eloise Neeley and I am studying towards my Master of Business Studies degree. This research project is for my Master’s thesis and is about agri-women engaging in leadership processes within grassroots organisations in New Zealand.

Project Description and Invitation

- My project is an exploratory case study looking at up to three different agri-women and their participation in grassroots organisations. I will be researching leadership process as well as an event or project that the group has been involved with.
- As a member or stakeholder of one of the organisations being studied I would like to invite you to be part of my research project.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

- You have been selected because I understand you are a member of the (add grassroots group name).
- Membership details have been sourced from meeting documents, membership lists or by personal recommendation from a group member.
- Although it may not be possible to speak with all members of your team I hope to talk with enough people to gain a rich understanding of how leadership processes are enacted within this group and some of the group’s projects or outcomes.
- Although every effort will be made to ensure confidentiality and privacy issues are considered there is always a slight risk in this regard and I am happy to discuss this with you at any time prior to, during or following the research process.

Project Procedures

- The project will include one-to-one interviews, observations through attending meetings or events, and gathering other information about the group.
- I value your time and expect most interviews for the main participant to take up to an hour and will do my best to conduct these at a time and place most suitable for you. The expected timeframes for other interviews, events or meetings will be determined in consultation with you and your team members and I will notify you as soon as practicable.
- As mentioned my research is part of my Massey University thesis project and although I am the recipient of a Kate Edger Educational Charitable Trust masters award to assist with my tuition, I am not being funded by any other organisation.

- If you have any concerns at any time about potential adverse physical or psychological risks from this research I am happy to discuss this with you and provide contact details below for my thesis supervisors.

Data Management

- If you are selected and agree to an interview, I will take notes and seek your consent to record and transcribe our discussion. I will also seek your permission to use any photographic images of you taken during data collection.
- I will be the sole researcher for this project and will do my utmost to respect your privacy and that of your stakeholders through careful management of data. I will also ask your permission to publish your name and check any quotes with you prior to report publication.
- Recordings and transcriptions will be coded and stored in a file separate from all other data on a password protected computer.
- This project is planned for completion in June 2017 but it is likely I will continue my academic studies and would like your permission to keep the data for up to five years before deleting or shredding it.
- I will provide the primary participants with a link to an electronic version of my draft report (or paper version on request) as I value your feedback prior to final report completion.
- Although I wish to include names of key participants and the name of the grassroots organisation I will only use your name together with any other information that may identify you, if you give permission for this.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- Decline to answer any particular question;
- Ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview
- Withdraw from the study (at any time prior to the final report draft in April 2017);
- Ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- Be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

Researcher:

Eloise Neeley
RD 3 Whangarei
Ph 09 437 1929
Cell 027 688 1986
Email eaneeley@outlook.com

Supervisors: Senior Lecturers Massey School of Management

Dr Margot Edwards
Ph 09 414 0800 ext 43398
Email m.f.edwards@massey.ac.nz

Dr Kaye Thorn
Ph 09 414 0800 ext 43395
k.j.thorn@massey.ac.nz th

Ethics Statement

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher named above is responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher, please contact Dr Brian Finch, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 356 9099 x 86015, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz

Appendix B - Participant Consent Form



Massey University Auckland
Private Bag 102904
North Shore
Auckland
0745

“Gumboots & Grassroots”

Exploring agri-women’s leadership for social change at a grassroots level in New Zealand

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM - INDIVIDUAL

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree/do not agree to the interview being sound recorded. *N/A*

I agree/do not agree to the interview being image recorded. *N/A*

I wish/do not wish to have my recordings returned to me. *N/A*

I wish/do not wish to have data placed in an official archive – Interview Notes

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature:

Date:

.....

Full Name - printed

.....

Appendix C - Key Participant Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

“Gumboots & Grassroots”

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule – Grassroots Leadership – Main Participants

Potential Topics – if not covered by participants during interview

Emergence of the group

History: How started?

Length of time operating?

Was it a spinoff of another group or groups?

Collaborations

Why? Focus of participants change efforts

Motivations?

Philosophy (Hopes, dreams, goals strategies for creating change

Issues

General

Obstacles and how are they negotiated, including power conditions

Structure

Meetings, frequency, location, turnout

Communication between meetings

Membership

How to join?

Developing members?

Taking care of members?

Leadership

Formal positions & tenure

Informal positions

Issues that enable and constrain leadership

Managing conflict/celebrating success

How are differences managed and resolved?

Internal member benefits

External benefits ie stakeholders/ public/ events/ field days/ workshops

Personal Reflections

How long have you been involved with the group?

How would you describe your involvement?

What does it mean to you to be involved?

Have you held any formal or informal roles?

Other topics that are brought up by interviewee

Appendix D - Leadership Practices Individual Groups

| Grassroots Association | Reframing Discourse | Bridging Differences | Unleashing Human Energies |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <p>NCCDG</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Established roles working in isolation Fears of agencies such as Worksafe NZ - Adaptive Leadership work - Positive Messages - Collaboration/ Solidarity between orgs eg Sector/Govt/Farmer-led groups - Situations diffused by travelling to communities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Find ways to draw unity from diversity - Neutral locations draws community together - Removes pressure of people visiting workplace - Neighbours can meet up/ leads to conversations over back fence through common bonds formed | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Providing info about help available - Empowering community to act cohesively/build pride in achievements/confidence building - Role modeling gender balance/inclusive | |
| <p>NBFG</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Demonstrating biological farming practices for benefit of soil and food production - Challenging wider membership to change mindsets about conventional farming practices | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Providing educational opportunities by bringing experts to Northland - Creating a “bridge” between conventional farming practices via field days eg Intro to Biological Farming locations planned near group members relevant to Northland geography and climate | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - NBFG creates the climate where conceivable and acceptable to co-create more sustainable methods - Providing follow up info and support - Assumption that knowledge is power - Dialogic interaction and reflection on solutions (Freire, 1970) through building knowledge and groundswell of social & environmental capital towards social change | |

| Grassroots Association | Reframing Discourse | Bridging Differences | Unleashing Human Energies |
|------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| NEST | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Move from traditional fundraising model to ambassador programme - Challenge and change preconceptions about safety and responsibility - Generate ownership of problem and solutions (rescue service owned by all Northlanders) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bringing diverse groups together eg urban/rural - Facilitating dialogue - Connecting to communities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emanates from community - Tapping into knowledge gained through: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education (formal) Practical experience (skills development) - Discussion and reflection (feedback) |