9-1-2009

Educational Considerations, vol. 37(1) Full Issue

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2009**

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Vol. XXXVII, Number 1, Fall 2009

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Leadership Theories and Beyond: Application in Diverse Contexts

Guest Editors: Irma O'Dell and Mary Hale Tolar

This special issue of *Educational Considerations* focuses on leadership theory and beyond in various settings and contexts. Following the models of the best of education and of leadership studies, we looked across the expanse of the academy to gather together from many different disciplines ideas, constructs, theories, and applications that move us all forward. Readers will learn from theories and practice in psychology, education, politics, communication studies and, of course, leadership studies – all in an effort to improve and advance leadership in our schools, our universities, and our communities.

This issue offers a variety of articles and commentaries dealing with leadership education in higher education; leadership development and selection in undergraduate leadership programs; diversity and cross-cultural experiences; pre-college student leadership development; curriculum assessment and standards for evaluating administrators and students in higher education; engaged citizenship and group engagement; faculty and staff leadership development; and leadership, politics, and gender.

The issue begins with Robert J. Shoop taking us on a leadership journey that provides an overview of developing the leadership studies program at Kansas State University. Next is a discussion of assessment in higher education. Irma O'Dell shares information about curriculum assessment and accountability. A psychometrically sound instrument developed for evaluating administrators and a process for developing a contextually-based leadership assessment instrument for students are described by Linda P. Thurston and B. Jan Middendorf. The focus shifts to leadership development on college campuses. Jill R. Arensdorf and Tony C. Andenoro share a paradigm for engaged citizenship through leadership education. Leadership development for faculty and staff on a college campus is presented by Susan M. Scott and Mary Hale Tolar. Susan R. Komives and Matthew

Johnson examine pre-college experiences in relation to understanding college student leadership development. Mary Christine Banwart and Kelly Winfrey present the results of a study on leadership, politics, and gender that discusses the role model effect on young women voters in a presidential primary with a woman candidate. Two commentaries close the issue. Gilbert Davila discusses preparing school principals for a diverse and changing world while Daniel B. Kan and Rebecca J. Reichard discuss the importance of balancing leadership development with student selection into undergraduate leadership education programs.

The wide array of articles in the issue should give readers valuable information about various topics in the field of leadership. They may also provide useful suggestions for future research projects. In closing, we would like to thank Lori Kniffin for her work on this project. Lori provided valuable assistance for which we are forever grateful.

Irma O'Dell is Senior Associate Director and Associate Professor in the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University. Her research focuses on curriculum assessment, program evaluation, and community life satisfaction.

Mary Hale Tolar is Director of the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University. The art and practice of civic leadership development, women's pathways to public service leadership, and the role of scholarship and fellowship opportunity on leadership development are a few areas of her research.

A Journey in Leadership

Robert J. Shoop

In 1997, two faculty members at Kansas State University began the process of creating something special and distinctive that never existed before. They clearly understood that they were embarking on a journey that would be exciting, yet not totally within their control. They understood that a creative alchemy was needed to bring about institutional change. And they knew that they were likely to encounter resistance. They were passionate about the value of developing a leadership studies undergraduate minor, but they knew that their plans would not work unless they were flexible in the design of the program. From the outset, the program was value-driven. It was not designed simply to teach specific skills of leadership. It was designed to assist each student prepare to answer the question, "What is leadership for?"

It was clear that as the new millennium began, individuals interested and involved in leadership across the nation were taking stock of the current status of leadership and preparing visions for the next decade. There appeared to be no limit to the amount of problems and concerns facing society. Many changes were on the horizon. Future leaders with new ideas would be needed. It was critical that society develop a large pool of highly qualified individuals prepared to lead. In order to be considered a highly qualified leader, one must be a diversified and informed individual who not only possesses a high level of knowledge about leadership but also has leadership capacity. Leadership capacity is what is believed to make the difference between effective and noneffective leaders (Lambert, 2003). Lambert defined this concept of leadership capacity as "broad-based skillful participation in the work of leadership" (p. 4). She further indicated that leadership capacity is the ability to effectively involve others in the process of creating visions for the organization, collaborating with others regarding the vision, and keeping the goal of group success at the forefront of all decisions.

Kansas State University was not a newcomer to the development of future leaders. Its commitment was first formalized into a program in the fall of 1988. The Associate Vice President of the university believed that leadership was learned. He wondered what prepared student leaders at K-State to assume leadership roles at the collegiate

level. In 1988, he conducted a study to learn about the high school background of the leaders of the K-State student body. In addition to having higher than average ACT scores, he discovered that collegiate leaders began practicing leadership in high school. A group of university leaders then initiated a leadership scholarship program that identified high school leaders who demonstrated an interest in leadership. One hundred thirty six students received leadership scholarships that first year. In 2008, two hundred fifty-eight students received leadership scholarships.

In 1995, the Department of Educational Administration in the College of Education made a commitment to preparing leaders rather than simply training school administrators. This shift in commitment was symbolized when the department changed its name to the Department of Educational Leadership. A faculty member in the department began developing undergraduate courses in leadership.

In the spring of 1996, these two initiatives came together when the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership was approached by the Dean of Student Life regarding the joint sponsorship of an interdisciplinary minor in leadership studies. The Associate Dean of Student Life and a professor from the Educational Leadership department wrote the initial proposal for the interdisciplinary minor in leadership studies. Their vision included increasing the number of students who had the opportunity to study leadership and expanding the opportunity of focusing on leadership to all students. They supported the notion of identifying high school leaders for the program. However, they wanted the program to be open to all incoming students, not just those who had leadership experience. The minor was based upon the foundation principle that leadership can be taught and learned. From its start, the program was committed to the premise that everyone has the potential to improve his or her capacity to lead. Perhaps most importantly, the program was based on a mission statement founded on the concept of preparing knowledgeable, ethical, caring leaders for a diverse world. As a result of student initiative, "inclusive" was added. Students and faculty added "changing" to describe the world for which leaders are prepared.

With the support of the President of the University and Dean of the College of Education, the Provost and the Vice President for Institutional Advancement appointed an interdisciplinary task force to study the need for a minor in leadership studies and to design such a program if it was deemed to be essential to the mission of the university. This task force was composed of administrators, faculty members, and students from across the university community. The two founding professors who developed the first draft of the interdisciplinary minor in leadership studies convened the first meeting of the task force. The minor consolidated previous leadership education efforts with the intention of offering Kansas State students the opportunity to learn about and apply leadership theories and skills across academic disciplines. As was expected, issues of turf, tradition, and threat needed to be addressed. Clearly, no department would be interested in supporting any program that had the potential of reducing their enrollment or competing with their courses. It was essential that the new minor truly be a value-added program and not compete with or duplicate other leadership offerings. Representatives from every academic department on campus were contacted and invited to nominate courses from their disciplines that they believed had a place in a leadership studies program. The task force made a commitment that half of the credit hours in the minor would be electives drawn from existing leadership courses.

Robert J. Shoop is cofounder of the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University and Director of the Cargill Center for Ethical Leadership. His research focuses on leadership, equity, sexual harassment, and abuse prevention. He has testified in court as a forensic expert and has served as a consultant for school districts, universities, and corporations focusing on care standards, harassment, and abuse prevention. For his achievement of creating a positive learning environment, Professor Shoop received Kansas State University's Outstanding Graduate Professor and Undergraduate Professor Awards.

The minor requires 18 semester hours. Some of these courses may already be part of a student's major while others will be courses taken to enhance their programs of study. The minor requires four core courses: Introduction to Leadership Concepts; Culture and Context in Leadership; Leadership in Practice; and Senior Seminar in Leadership Studies. The introduction course focuses on both the academic study of leadership concepts and the development of leadership skills. The topics focus on the themes in the program mission statement: knowledge; ethics; caring; and diversity. Added in 2003 as a result of student and faculty initiatives, the Culture and Context in Leadership is organized to provide students with a formal opportunity to integrate their course and leadership experiences in light of contemporary issues in the study of leadership behavior across cultures and contexts. The course is based on current research and writing that introduce and discuss the impact of culture and context on the concept of leadership and development of individuals as interculturally competent leaders. In Leadership in Practice, each student identifies a leadership setting associated with his or her academic major in a community or business organization, or a student leadership position. Student observation and participation in these leadership settings serves as a means of integrating theory and practice. Students then analyze what transpired in their leadership settings through class discussions, weekly worksheets, and a synthesis paper. The goal of the Senior Seminar in Leadership Studies is to assist students in the integration of their academic study of leadership and their leadership experiences in preparation for their roles as citizens and members of the contemporary work force. Foundation texts on leadership studies as well as current research are highlighted. This capstone course provides students with an opportunity to reflect and act on what they have learned about leadership.

Additionally, students must earn at least nine hours of elective credit. Electives are divided into three categories: Ethics; Theories; and Foundations and Applications. Each student must earn three hours of credit from each category. This list is modified as new courses are introduced in the various departments. The first list of electives included courses from 25 different departments on campus.

The first Introduction to Leadership Concepts course open to the general student body was offered in the spring of 1997. The two founders of the program taught the course. The class had eleven students and met in one of the instructor's office. That same year the first Practicum in Leadership Studies class (later known as Leadership in Practice) was also taught. On March 3, 1997 the Kansas Board of Regents approved the 18-hour interdisciplinary minor in leadership. In the spring of 1998, the Introduction to Leadership Concepts course was approved for general education credit. That same year the first Leadership for the 21st Century senior seminar class, later known as Senior Seminar in Leadership, was taught. In order to ensure that the program was responsive to the needs of the students, a Leadership Studies Student Advisory Board was established. This board was later named the Leadership Studies and Programs Student Ambassadors. Each year the current Student Ambassadors select the students to serve as ambassadors.

The growth of the program can be seen by looking at the University's repository of information about courses and enrollments. In 1997, there were two courses offered. By 2001, 14 courses or sections were offered with an enrollment of 108. In 2008, there were 48 courses or sections offered with an enrollment of 2,735 students. By the fall of 2008, the leadership studies program had grown into the largest academic program at K-State with nearly 1,500 students enrolled in the minor. Of that number, more than 900 were incoming students. Enrollment in the Leadership Studies minor includes students from every college on campus with the College of Arts & Sciences and the College of Business having the largest representation, 45% and 32% respectively. As of January 2009, there were 582 K-State graduates with a Leadership Studies minor. Despite the large number of students, the program maintains relatively small enrollments in the core courses where student input and involvement are encouraged. This focus on student participation within the leadership studies minor and the various extracurricular programs offered continue to be the foundation for the program's success.

In August of 2008, the Kansas Board of Regents approved the establishment of the Mary Lynn and Warren Staley School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University under the direct administrative supervision of the University Provost. In 2009, construction began on a 36,500 square foot Leadership Studies building.

The founders of the program have continued to work with other faculty members and students to ensure that the Leadership Studies program continues its commitment to learning that is transformational, constructivist, interactive, novel, and transferable. They believe that learners and instructors must jointly engage in making meaning through active inquiry. Instructors are intentional in actions, expectations, and decisions. This means that learning outcomes for each activity are theory-driven, planned, and measurable. The growth of the program clearly demonstrates that undergraduate students want to become better leaders and want to be involved in developing the design of their learning. Perhaps the program was summed up best by a recent graduate who wrote:

> I can apply this minor to anything I want to. This is one of the most flexible minors and one of the most useful minors ever in Kansas State University history. The minor focuses on interaction of self with others as well as self-reflection. Anyone can learn facts and equations, but to learn to deal with moral dilemmas and group conflict is vital. [1]

The faculty continues to be alert to the risk that as the program grows there is a danger of losing touch with the founding principles. Consequently, the staff and students continually meet to question every decision and determine if new actions are consistent with the concept of developing knowledgeable, ethical, caring, inclusive leaders for a diverse and changing world.

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Endnote

[1] Source: Student evaluations, Summer 2006.

Assessment and Accountability in Higher Education

Irma O'Dell

Introduction

Pressure from external stakeholders increasingly requires higher education institutions to provide concrete evidence of student learning, i.e., learning that will assist graduates to become productive, working members of society (Banta, 2001). [1] As such, assessment of student learning has become a significant part of the process of determining institutional quality (Middle States Commission on Higher Education, 2005; Mundhenk, 2005). This article describes an example of one university's response to the call for greater accountability for student learning outcomes and how one school within this university has responded to it. The article concludes with reflections on next steps for meeting future assessment expectations.

Framework for Assessment

The evaluation of student learning is commonly referred to as assessment. Angelo and Cross (1993) defined assessment as an ongoing, multidimensional process of appraising the learning that occurs in the classroom before and after assignments are graded with the feedback used to improve teaching and subsequently student learning. [2] At Kansas State University, accountability for and assessment of student learning is shared by the Office of Assessment and academic units, here, the School of Leadership Studies. The Figure below lays out a cyclical process that captures the nine components that comprise the university's assessment framework.

The Role of the Office of Assessment

At Kansas State University, accountability for and assessment of student learning begins and ends with the Office of Assessment whose mission is to support continuous improvement processes through facilitation of meaningful assessment of student learning and effective methods for feedback and action in response to assessment results (Kansas State University, 2009a). According to the Office of Assessment, the university strives to create an atmosphere of intellectual curiosity and growth while preparing citizens who will continue to learn and who will contribute to the societies in which they live and work. Students share in the responsibility for a successful university educational experience.

Figure
Assessment as a Process
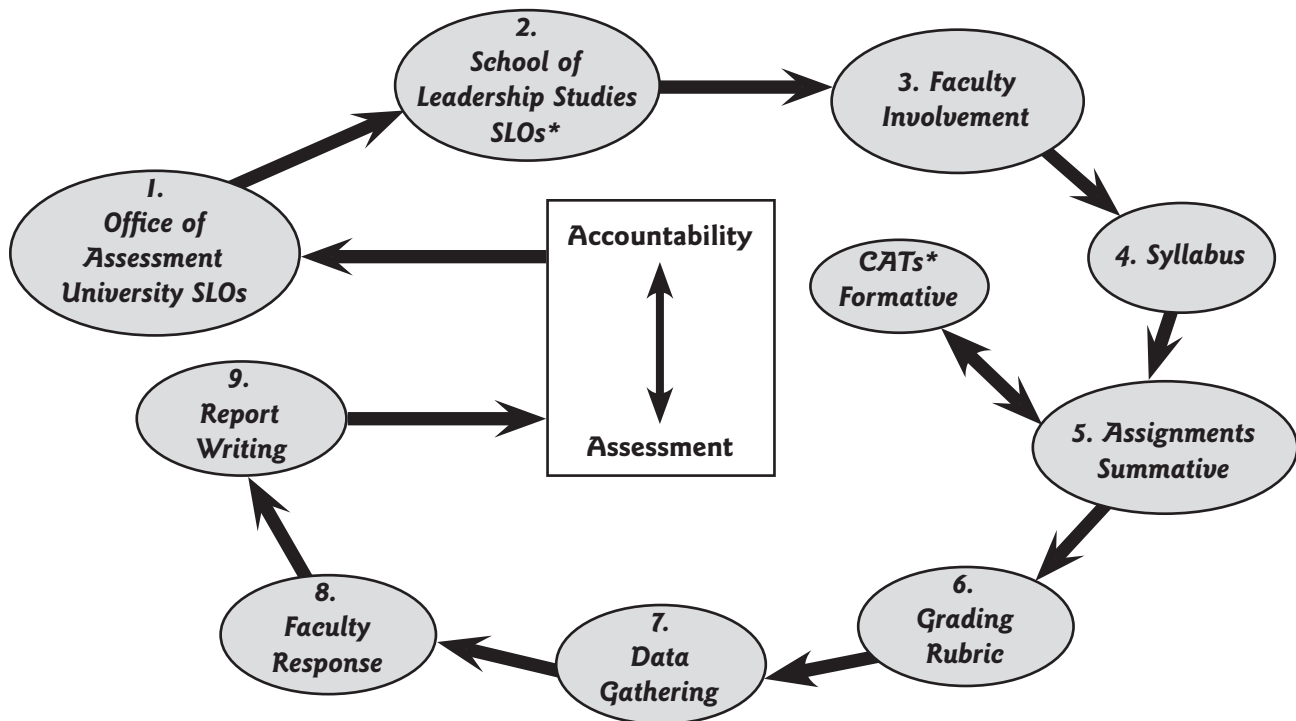
*Note: SLOs are student learning outcomes. CATS are classroom assessment techniques.

Irma O'Dell is Senior Associate Director and Associate Professor in the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University. Her research focuses on curriculum assessment, program evaluation, and community life satisfaction.

The Office of Assessment also provides guidance and feedback to the university's academic units, as follows:

Kansas State University is committed to student learning and to providing the highest quality educational experiences for its students. The university upholds assessment of student learning and the use of the results of assessment as key strategies to ensure continuous improvement of student learning. Student learning outcomes at the university, degree program and support program levels provide a shared vision of what we value and what students are expected to learn. Within a culture of reflection, scholarship, trust and shared responsibilities, faculty, with participation from students, administrators, alumni and K-State constituents, develop and implement ongoing and systematic assessment strategies to understand what, how much, and how students learn. Through the use of both direct and indirect sources of evidence of student performance, results from assessment guide collective actions for, among others, curricular change, better learning opportunities for students, improvement of teaching, and more effective academic support services (Kansas State University, 2009a).

Therefore, it is important that student learning outcomes be clear and measurable.

To that end, this office sets forth five undergraduate student learning outcomes. Upon completion of the degree and regardless of their major, graduates are expected to demonstrate the following:

1. Knowledge: Students will demonstrate a depth of knowledge and apply the methods of inquiry in a discipline of their choosing, and they will demonstrate a breadth of knowledge across their choice of varied disciplines.
2. Critical thinking: Students will demonstrate the ability to access and interpret information, respond and adapt to changing situations, make complex decisions, solve problems, and evaluate actions.
3. Communication: Students will demonstrate the ability to communicate clearly and effectively.
4. Diversity: Student will demonstrate awareness and understanding of the skills necessary to live and work in a diverse world.
5. Academic and professional integrity: Students will demonstrate awareness and understanding of the ethical standards of their academic discipline and/or profession (Kansas State University, 2009b).

The Office of Assessment requires direct and indirect measures of student learning. [3] For example, direct measures of student learning include portfolios, essay questions, performance on licensure examinations, and performance evaluation during internships. Indirect measures of student learning include SAT/ACT scores, exit interviews of graduates, job placement data, and self-report measures assessing student's perception of what they have learned. To emphasize the importance of student assessment, the Office of Assessment sponsors an assessment showcase where departments and programs are invited to present their assessment process, and awards are a given by the provost to recognize successful assessment endeavors.

School of Leadership Studies Student Assessment

In step two of the process, responsibility for implementation of the Office of Assessments directives is passed to academic units. This step requires development of learning outcomes. Based upon the School of Leadership Studies' mission statement, "Developing knowledgeable, ethical, caring, and inclusive leaders for a diverse and changing world" (Kansas State University, 2009c) and the university undergraduate student learning outcomes, the School of Leadership Studies developed eight student learning outcomes:

1. Identify and understand contemporary theories of leadership.
2. Practice leadership consistent with one's personal philosophy.
3. Understand and be able to apply appropriately the skills of problem solving and conflict resolution.
4. Understand and appreciate frameworks for ethical decision-making.
5. Demonstrate knowledge of personal beliefs and values and a commitment to continuing personal reflection and reassessment.
6. Identify and comprehend the impact of culture on one's leadership style.
7. Evaluate one's growth as an interculturally competent leader.
8. Understand that innovation and collaboration are important to leading personal, community, national and world change (Kansas State University, 2009d).

These eight outcomes were then linked to four core courses in the leadership curriculum:

- EDLST 212 – Introduction to Leadership Concepts;
- EDLST 350 – Culture and Context in Leadership;
- EDLST 405 – Leadership in Practice
- EDLST 450 – Senior Seminar in Leadership Studies.

The learning outcomes are crosswalked with the courses in the Table on the next page.

Step three of the assessment process is faculty involvement. Here, School of Leadership Studies faculty initiated the process of faculty involvement by placing the eight student learning outcomes on syllabi for the four core courses, with those outcomes that specifically pertain to the course boldfaced. Faculty use the learning outcomes to focus their teaching.

Related to faculty involvement is syllabus development, Step four, which includes the selection of course content, assignments, textbooks, readings, and assessment which are aligned to the learning outcomes. Prior to the commitment to assessment, School of Leadership Studies instructors did not meet as a team. With a common set of learning outcomes, instructors now meet in teams to discuss the core courses. For example, those who teach Introduction to Leadership Concepts meet before, during, and at the end of the semester to discuss these components. Related to summative assessment, step five, the meetings have provided an opportunity for collaboration and consistency. [4] As a result of the meetings, corresponding grading rubrics, Step six of the process, were developed.

In Step seven, instructors record the following data on a spreadsheet template at the end of each semester: course syllabus; assignment; grading rubric; and assignment data. Once the data are compiled, the spreadsheet is returned to the instructors. All instructors receive their individual data, a composite of all the sections' data, and a comparison of data semester-by-semester for their respective section and all sections.

In Step eight, instructors are asked to provide feedback on the above information and to respond to variations of the following questions: (1) Does the team plan to make any changes to the assessment assignment? If so, what changes? (2) Does the team plan to include additional assignments for assessment? (3) After reviewing the data,

Table
Core Course Alignment with School of Leadership Studies and University Student Learning Outcomes

School of Leadership Studies Alignment Matrix				
	Intro to Leadership Concepts	Culture and Context in Leadership	Leadership in Practice	Senior Seminar in Leadership
School of Leadership Studies Student Learning Outcomes*				
Identify and understand contemporary theories of leadership	A*			
Practice leadership consistent with one's personal philosophy			A	
Understand and be able to apply appropriately the skills of problem solving and conflict resolution			A	
Understand and appreciate frameworks for ethical decision-making				X*
Demonstrate knowledge of personal beliefs and values and a commitment to continuing personal reflection and reassessment				A
Identify and comprehend the impact of culture on one's leadership style		A		
Evaluate one's growth as an interculturally competent leader		A		
Understand that innovation and collaboration are important to leading personal community, national and world change				X
Kansas State University Student Learning Outcomes				
Knowledge Students will demonstrate a depth of knowledge and apply the methods of inquiry in a discipline of their choosing, and they will demonstrate a breadth of knowledge across their choice of varied disciplines			X	X
Critical Thinking Students will demonstrate the ability to access and interpret information, respond and adapt to changing situations, make complex decisions, solve problems, and evaluate actions	X	X	X	X
Communication Students will demonstrate the ability to communicate clearly and effectively	X	X	X	X
Diversity Students will demonstrate awareness and understanding of the skills necessary to live and work in a diverse world		X	X	
Academic and Professional Integrity Students will demonstrate awareness and understanding of the ethical standards of their academic discipline and/or profession			X	X

*Note: A = Student performance is used for program level assessment of the outcome.
X = Students have the opportunity to learn the outcome

do you have any concerns with the findings? If so, what adjustments, if any, do you plan to make to address the concerns?

For the final step, the author uses the data and information described to write the School of Leadership Studies annual progress report on assessment of student learning which is submitted to the Office of Assessment. The report addresses seven areas developed by the Office of Assessment:

1. List the student learning outcomes that were assessed during the academic year including those for which data were gathered as well as those for which developmental work was done, such as the creation or piloting of assessment measures.

2. For each learning outcome, describe the measures used (over a three-year period approximately one-half of the measures used are to be direct measures and at least one direct measure must be used for each student learning outcome); the sample of students from whom data were collected; the timetable for the collection; and the forum in which the measures were administered.

3. Describe the results of the assessment. (What do they tell you about student learning? What did you learn about strengths and weaknesses of your program?) If specific results are not available, describe the progress that has been made on the initiatives included in the approved assessment plan.

4. Describe the process by which faculty reviewed the results and decided on the actions and/or revisions that were indicated by them.

5. Describe the actions and/or revisions that were (or will be) implemented in response to the assessment results.

6. Describe the effects on student learning of the previous year's actions.

7. Given the assessment activities and results to date, describe your plans for the coming year. (Clearly identify significant changes that have been made to degree program student learning outcomes or to the general assessment strategy.)

For reporting purposes, a department or program may choose from two types of formats. The first is narrative and is comprised of a series of open-ended questions where responses can be inserted directly after each question (See Appendix A). The second format is tabular where a series of open-ended questions are listed vertically and the learning outcome(s) are entered into the cells of the table (See Appendix B). The School of Leadership Studies has chosen the narrative format.

Conclusion and Next Steps

This article has described the student assessment and accountability framework used at Kansas State University and how it has been implemented by the School of Leadership Studies. To meet future assessment expectations, the School of Leadership Studies intends to:

1. Continue to involve faculty in the assessment process.
2. Encourage faculty to talk with each other about assessment.
3. Gather assessment data over time to determine if the assessment process improves student learning.
3. Encourage the use of various classroom assessment techniques.
4. Cultivate an environment of summative and formative assessment.
5. Implement curriculum changes based upon assessment data.

As the School of Leadership Studies transitions to a more balanced assessment approach, our intent is to start with flexible, easily adaptable, simple, and potentially quick-to-apply classroom assessment techniques in classroom teaching. According to Angelo and Cross (1993),"classroom assessment helps individual college teachers obtain useful feedback on what, how much, and how well their students are learning"(p. 3).[5] In order to make the assessment process purposeful, applicable, and user-friendly, classroom assessment techniques must be developed to meet the needs of the course and the assessment process. Classroom assessment techniques are exercises designed specifically to find out what students know (Cottell & Harwood, 1998). Three proposed techniques are being considered:

1. The *minute paper,* also known as the one-minute paper, provides a quick and extremely simple way to collect written feedback on student learning. To use, stop class two or three minutes early, and ask students to respond to variations on the following questions
    (a) What was the most important thing you learned during this class?
    (b) What important questions remain unanswered?

2. *Muddiest point* provides high information return for a very low investment of time and energy. To use, stop class two to three minutes early, and ask students to respond to variations on the following question: What was the muddiest point in class (e.g., lectures film, lecture, discussion)?

3. *Background knowledge probe* focuses attention on the most important material to be studied. It provides a preview of what is to come and a review of what the student already knows about the topic. The same probe can be given at the end of the topic or course. To use, before introducing the course or an important new concept, prepare several multiple choice, short answer, or open-ended questions that will probe the students' existing knowledge of that topic. [6]

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Endnotes

[1] Stakeholders include, but are not limited to, state boards of regents, potential employers, current students, alumni, and parents.

[2] It should be noted, however, that according to Banta (2007), external stakeholders do not necessarily agree with an approach to assessment as continuous improvement, but instead view assessment as an accountability function.

[3] It is important to note that there are two types of evaluations of assessment: formative and summative. Formative assessments usually take place in the early stages of a course and address questions about implementation and ongoing planning. Information obtained from formative assessment is used to adapt teaching and learning to meet student needs. The goal of formative assessment is to gain an understanding of what students know (and don't know) in order to make responsive changes in teaching and learning techniques (Black &William, 1998). For example, on the first day of class, instructors might ask students a series of questions related to the course content to identify what the students know. Conversely, summative student learning assessment is commonly thought of in terms of tests, papers, and other graded assignments. In general, summative assessment results are used to make some sort of judgment, such as to determine what grade a student will receive on a classroom assignment, measure program effectiveness, or determine whether a school has made adequate yearly progress. Summative assessment typically documents how much learning has occurred at a point in time (Stiggins, Arter, Chappuis, & Chappuis, 2006). For example, the grade obtained from the final examination given at the end of a course is a summative evaluation. Criterion-reference assessment measures student knowledge and understanding in relation to absolute criteria rather than relative ones (Tuckman, 1988). Therefore, criterion-referenced assessments measure student performance in relation to standards, not in relation to other students. For example, all students may earn an "A" if all meet the established absolute criteria. Norm-reference assessments are designed to measure and compare individual student performance to those of an appropriate peer group or norm group at the classroom, local, state, or national level (Tuckman, 1988).

[4] Currently, neither criterion-reference assessment standards nor norm-reference assessment standards are utilized in the School of Leadership Studies for assessment of learning outcomes in the four core courses. Although only graded assignments are used in the School of Leadership Studies for student assessment, a transition is taking place that will incorporate nongraded assignments to provide a more balanced approach to assessment.

[5] Angelo and Cross (1993) further stated that classroom assessment techniques "are not meant to take the place of more traditional forms of classroom evaluation. Rather, these formative assessment tools are meant to give teachers and students information on learning before and between tests and examinations; therefore they supplement and complement formal evaluations of learning" (1993, p. 25).

[6] These techniques were selected from a list suggested by Angelo and Cross (1993) for their ease of implementation and as a good next step in formative assessment and assessment data not graded.

Appendix A

Annual Progress Report on Assessment of Student Learning for Undergraduate Programs
(Narrative Format) (Rev. 10/08)

Academic year: 2007-2008
Department/Program:
Degree program(s):
Person(s) preparing report:
Date submitted:

Summary of the 2007-2008 Annual Progress Report on Assessment of Student Learning

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Link to department web site where degree program student learning outcomes (SLOs), Alignment Matrix, and 2007-2008 APR Summary are posted

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❏ Alignment Matrix for degree program is attached or was previously submitted

1. List the student learning outcomes that were assessed during the academic year, including those for which data were gathered as well as those for which developmental work was done, such as the creation or piloting of assessment measures.

2. For each learning outcome, describe the measures used (over a three-year period approximately one-half of the measures used are to be direct measures, and at least one direct measure must be used for each student learning outcome), the sample of students from whom data were collected, the timetable for the collection, and the forum in which the measures were administered. (Examples of direct measures can be accessed at http://www.k-state.edu/assessment/Learning/direct.htm).

3. Describe the results of the assessment. (What do they tell you about student learning? What did you learn about strengths and weaknesses of your program?) If specific results are not available, describe the progress that has been made on the initiatives included in the approved assessment plan.

4. Describe the process by which faculty reviewed the results and decided on the actions and/or revisions that were indicated by them.

5. Describe the actions and/or revisions that were (or will be) implemented in response to the assessment results.

6. Describe the effects on student learning of the previous year's actions.

7. Given the assessment activities and results to date, describe your plans for the coming year. (Clearly identify significant changes that have been made to degree program SLOs or to the general assessment strategy.)

Appendix B

Annual Progress Report on Assessment of Student Learning for Undergraduate Programs
(Tabular Format) (Rev. 10/08)

Academic year: <u>2007-2008</u>
Department/Program:
Degree program(s):
Person(s) preparing report:
Date submitted:

Summary of the 2007-2008 Annual Progress Report on Assessment of Student Learning

Link to department web site where degree program student learning outcomes (SLOs), Alignment Matrix, and 2007-2008 APR Summary are posted

❏ Alignment Matrix for degree program is attached or was previously submitted

Questions to be Addressed	SLO(s) Assessed in the Academic Year		
1. List the student learning outcomes for which assessment data were gathered during the academic year or for which development work was done on assessment measures.	1.	2.	3.
2. For each learning outcome, describe the measures used (over a three-year period approximately one-half of the measures used are to be direct measures, and at least one direct measure must be used for each student learning outcome), the sample of students from whom data were collected, the timetable for the collection, and the forum in which the measures were administered. (Examples of direct measures can be accessed at http://www.k-state.edu/ assessment/ Learning/direct.htm).			
3. Describe the results of the assessment. (What do they tell you about student learning? What did you learn about the strengths and weaknesses of your program?) If results are not available, describe the progress made on initiatives in the approved assessment plan.			
4. Describe the process by which faculty reviewed the results and decided on the actions and/or revisions that were indicated by them.			
5. Describe the actions and/or revisions that were (or will be) implemented in response to the assessment results.			
6. When reporting on second and subsequent years (2006, 2007, 2008, etc., respectively), describe the effects on student learning of the previous year's actions.			
7. Given the assessment activities and results to date, describe your plans for the coming year. (Clearly identify significant changes that have been made to degree program slo's or to the general assessment strategy.)			

Evaluating Department Chair and Student Leadership in Higher Education

**Linda P. Thurston
and B. Jan Middendorf**

Introduction

In higher education, assessment of leadership capacities and performance of department chairs and students allows stakeholders to evaluate individuals and programs. To that end, this article describes the Individual Development and Educational Assessment (IDEA) Feedback for Department Chairs system, a psychometrically sound instrument developed for evaluating department chairs at Kansas State University, and the process used to develop a contextually based leadership assessment instrument for students in the university's Leadership Studies program. After collecting data regarding leadership of chairs or students, the evaluation process uses a standard or benchmark placing value or merit on the factors measured. The article begins with a background section that presents a framework for accountability in higher education leadership followed by a subsection that defines and compares the concepts of assessment and evaluation. The third section contains a review of relevant literature

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on establishing indicators for evaluating leadership in higher education, context for assessing leadership, and theoretical base. In the fourth section, assessment instruments and evaluation methods are described. The article closes with a summary section.

Background
A Framework for Accountability in Higher Education Leadership

In *Pursuing Excellence in Higher Education*, Ruben (2004) listed eight critical challenges to higher education based upon the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Program framework for organizational excellence. Of these, three are relevant to assessment and evaluation of leadership in higher education:

- Integrating assessment, planning, and improvement;
- Becoming a more effective learning organization;
- Devoting more attention and resources to developing exceptional educational leadership leaders.

With regard to evaluation in higher education, an element of a thriving learning organization, Ruben (2004) listed six major functions:

1. Accountability. Programs are accountable to funders and/or administrators. Evaluation provides answers to these questions: Is the program or organization doing what it says it is doing? Are the activities and outcomes of the organization congruent with its mission? Are students learning what faculty are expecting them to learn?

2. Program/continuous improvement. Evaluation data provide feedback to programs that informs modifications to better serve stakeholders or meet goals. Accrediting bodies want to know that programs are continuously improving their operations and outcomes.

3. Dissemination/replication. Evaluation can address the following important question: Is a program ready to be disseminated to others? For example, is a faculty development program in leadership worth replicating in other years or in other colleges?

4. External funding/continued support. Can program organizers demonstrate why it is worthy of receiving external support from funders? For example, can a leadership development program demonstrate that its funded program is being conducted as proposed and that it is making progress toward developing skilled and ethical student leaders?

5. Rationale for ongoing stakeholder support. Stakeholders want to know that their needs are being met and that their time, expertise, and funds are being used to produce the outcomes they expect. For example, did a leadership institute produce enough expected changes in participants to warrant continued support by university administration?

6. Capacity building within higher education institutions for assessment and reflection. Evaluation forces units and programs to begin developing their own resources to include ongoing evaluation. This contributes to a culture of accountability and the internal capacity to assess and evaluate programs and products, leading to a more effective learning organization.

These six functions relate directly to issues of leadership in higher education and provide a framework for accountability. Department chairs and students are both subjects of evaluation (the evaluands) and consumers of evaluation results.

Assessment vs. Evaluation

Assessment is the process of defining variables to be measured; designing or selecting the metrics for gathering the information about those variables; and collecting credible data using appropriate methodology. *Evaluation* is the process of determining the value, merit, or worth of a program or personnel.

Assessment of outcomes does not by itself produce enough evidence to permit a thorough understanding of programs, policies, and individuals in higher education. Evaluation uses information based on credible evidence generated through assessment to make judgments of relative value. Assessment indicates what results have been produced, but it does not determine causation, indicate how those results were achieved, or compare those results with accepted higher education standards. Therefore, evaluators utilize accepted evaluation designs or established standards for the process of establishing the value of merit of the evaluand.

Evaluation is a vibrant and engaging activity that leads to powerful learning and well-informed action (Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007). Evaluation has two arms: accumulating and summarizing data; and drawing conclusions about the value or relevance of standards in a program (Scriven, 1991). The specific form and scope of an evaluation depend on its purposes and audience, the nature of the evaluand, and the organizational context within which the program/individual operates. However, higher education presents a unique context in which to conduct assessment and evaluation. Contextual issues in evaluating leadership in higher education are discussed in a later section.

Evaluation facilitates decision-making when it combines sound procedures with issues valued by stakeholders. The selection of variables to measure, the measurement tools, and the evaluation design depends on the types of decisions to be made. Therefore, an evaluator begins with questions, such as: What is the purpose of the evaluation? What is the mission of the institution? What are the program or project goals? What are the expected outcomes? What are the criteria for success? What is the role of the individual in the institution, and what are the expected competencies attributed to that role? What decisions need to be made?

Approaching issues from an evaluative perspective enables one to consider multiple perspectives and draw lessons as a natural part of the way work is done (Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007). This perspective contributes to developing and sustaining an effective learning organization (Ruben, 2004). Evaluation equals assessment plus a judgment related to the value of a program, employee, or process. Evaluation of leadership in higher education, therefore, includes two essential elements: assessment of leadership; and establishment of a standard with which to compare the results of the assessment.

Review of Literature

Establishing Indicators for Evaluating Leadership in Higher Education

One of the biggest challenges in evaluation is choosing what kind of information best answers the questions posed. It is important to have general agreement across target audiences on what success looks like. Indicators are the starting point for data collection and reporting, and are selected to represent important outcomes or performance measures. Therefore, consideration of indicators is an essential element of evaluation in higher education.

Much has been written about the indicators of successful leadership (Stufflebeam, 1999). Because individuals are the focus in evaluating leadership, leadership indicators, for the most part, relate to the traits, skills, behaviors, attitudes, values, competencies, and knowledge. Also, specific contextual variables such as collaboration, cultural competence, relationship building, problem solving, empowerment of others, catalyzing, and sustaining change are possible indicators that could be evaluated in leaders or potential leaders in higher education settings. These potential indicators are contextually bound in higher education. For example, a department chair might be evaluated on her or his ability to empower faculty in the department. However, this might not be an indicator of success for a student in a leadership studies program. For example, a more likely indicator for a student would be knowledge of leadership theories.

EvaluLEAD methodology for evaluating leadership development activities identifies fundamental parameters that include context, domains, and result types (indicators) (Grove, Kiber, & Haas, 2005). Wisniewski (1999) examined leadership competence models to find a model that fit with higher education in general and extension services specifically. The four models had significant overlap in their categorizations of leadership competencies; however, the discrepancies led Wisniewski to generate a leadership competence model specifically for the university extension context. She used grounded theory methodology and the critical incident technique in her research. Her results were seven leadership categories and related abilities: (1) core set of values and vision; (2) effective communication; (3) reflection and analysis; (4) positive climate; (5) facilitation and collaboration; (6) problem solving and risk taking; and (7) perseverance. These included a short list of indicators for each category. For example, positive climate, included the ability to interact comfortably with a variety of people, establish a high-trust environment, develop a sense of empathy, and motivate and inspire others. Wisniewski utilized these indicators as the basis for a leadership education program for leaders at their university system.

Defining indicators for measuring leadership in collegiate students has been ongoing work for the W.F. Kellogg Foundation and others. The Council for Academic Standards in Higher Education (CAS) established 16 Student Learning & Development Outcome Domains for student leadership development programs (Miller, 2003). (See the textbox on the next page for a listing of these). As with Wisniewski's (1999) categories of leadership indicators, each of the CAS standards includes a list of examples of achievement indicators for each category. For example, indicators related to "clarified values" are: articulates personal values; acts in congruence with personal values; makes decisions that reflect personal values; demonstrates willingness to scrutinize personal beliefs and values; and identifies personal, work, and lifestyle values and explains how they influence decision-making.

Context for Assessing Leadership

Context is an important consideration in establishing indicators of successful leadership. The concept of context recognizes that leadership may assume a wide variety of forms and expressions of personal and cultural style. Contextual factors include opportunities, management systems, expectations of others, and institutional culture (Peters & Baum, 2007). In their work with the Sustainable Leadership Initiative funded by W.K. Kellogg and USAID Grove, Kiber, and Hass (2005) outlined two fundamental steps in evaluation planning: defining the context of leadership to be evaluated; and defining the

Student Learning and Development Outcome Domains for Student Leadership Development Programs

- **Intellectual Growth**
- **Effective Communication**
- **Enhanced Self-Esteem**
- **Realistic Self-Appraisal**
- **Clarified Values**
- **Career Choices**
- **Leadership Development**
- **Healthy Behavior**
- **Meaningful Interpersonal Relationships**
- **Independence**
- **Collaboration**
- **Social Responsibility**
- **Satisfying and Productive Lifestyles**
- **Appreciating Diversity**
- **Spiritual Awareness**
- **Personal and Educational Goals**

Source: Miller (2003).

domains of impact. The Wisniewski (1999) study and the CAS standards both showed responsiveness to the context of higher education in their domains or categories.

Mitchell (2004) also emphasized the importance of the consideration of context in her discussion of assessment and evaluation of department chairs. Although some indicators for success of department leaders were common to all faculty, e.g. service to the college and university, other aspects of the business of running a department, such as evaluation of faculty and growth of an academic department, were viewed as unique. Usually written guidelines in the form of university policy related to the context of the job and the specific domains included.

Theoretical Base

Montez (2003) utilized significant stakeholder input to develop a five-dimensional theory of higher educational leadership:

1. Integral
2. Relational
3. Credibility
4. Competence
5. Direction/guidance

This led to the development of the Higher Education Leadership Inventory (HELI) to assess the attributes or behaviors considered to be necessary for effective leadership in higher education (Montez, 2003).

Assessment Instruments and Evaluation Methods

Traditional leadership assessment instruments overlook the specific context of higher education, providing little systematic knowledge for higher education administrators about behaviors, leadership styles, and effectiveness in higher education (McDade, 1987; Williams, 2001). Unique aspects of the higher education environment include:

shared governance; autonomy and academic freedom of faculty; synergism of expectations for research; teaching; and service; and leadership. There have been few research studies related to appropriate behaviors and attributes of persons for leading in this unique environment (Montez, 2003). Choosing methods or developing instruments to assess leadership depends on the kind of leadership indicators to be measured. For example, if an important indicator of successful leadership for a university administrator is communicating a vision for the unit, then a potential measurement method could be an interview during which the administrator is asked to describe her vision.

After domains and indicators for leadership have been established, good measures have to be adopted or developed. Unbiased instruments or methods that are appropriate measures of performance and produce a reasonable level of objective reliability are essential. Poister (2003) listed these criteria for useful performance measures:

- Valid and reliable
- Meaningful and understandable
- Balanced and comprehensive
- Clear regarding preferred direction of movement
- Timely and actionable
- Resistant to goal displacement
- Cost-sensitive

Instruments that do not attend to these criteria produce unreliable and invalid data. A favorite expression of evaluators related to poor instrument design is "garbage in, garbage out." For example, survey items that are unclear or that incorporate biases can lead to serious measurement problems. Vague, double-barreled,[1] or ambiguous interview questions lead to problems because respondents are likely to interpret them in different ways. Leading questions in a focus group can unintentionally prompt respondents to answer in a certain way.

The choice of assessment methods should be determined by what indicators are chosen. The use of multiple methods is common in evaluating leadership in higher education. These include surveys, interviews, journals, observation, focus groups, and tracking accomplishments, e.g. publications, presentations, and community leadership positions held. In addition, a 360-assessment is frequently used. Here colleagues and coworkers of a university chairperson are interviewed or surveyed. For student assessment, mentors, faculty, advisors, supervisors or peers might be included in the evaluation.

The two most common methods used to assess leadership in higher education are standardized commercial instruments or "home grown" instruments that are based on the context of the situation and the unique indicators for specific role expectations. Relying on instruments with established, well-researched psychometric characteristics assures the accurate and appropriate measurement of leadership in the settings for which the instruments were developed. When choosing such instruments, reliability and validity must be considered. Most instruments report their reliability; that is, the degree to which the instrument is consistent. Reliability estimates of .80 are considered acceptable (Kline, 1999). Validity refers to the fit of an instrument to a situation and answers the question: Does the instrument measure what it is expected to measure? Both reliability and validity are essential considerations in choosing an instrument to assess leadership to assure the veracity of data collected.

Because of the wide range of definitions, domains, and situations related to leadership in higher education, many evaluators choose to develop their own instruments. For example, Montez (2003)

examined five psychometrically sound leadership assessment instruments that measured leadership attributes, practices, and skills; used multi-rated instrument; and had been tested on higher education populations. However, she found that none fit the domains of leadership in higher education.

Department Chairs in Higher Education:
Assessing and Evaluating Leadership

The roles and responsibilities of academic department chairs have always been a challenge given the complexity of their role as negotiator, facilitator, evaluator, and administrator of faculty who have a great deal of autonomy. In addition, most department chairs enter into these positions with little awareness of what the job really entails and even less preparation for what awaits them in the position (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993, 2007; Wheeler, Seagren, Becker, Kinley, Mlinek, & Robson, 2008).

Research from Wheeler et al. (2008) indicates that the role of department chairs has become more critical as an agent of change. Moreover, the importance of department chair effectiveness in terms of leadership and accountability has become salient in recent years. The need to make departments stronger, more effective, and efficient through department chair leadership is increasing as is the need to understand how to assess these efforts (Leaming, 2007).With a focus on improving effectiveness and enhancing accountability, department chairs need a comprehensive evaluation process to assess how well they are performing in their positions.

The Individual Development and Educational Assessment (IDEA) Center at Kansas State University developed the IDEA Feedback for Department Chairs system for evaluating and developing department chairpersons. The original instrument, the Departmental Evaluation of Chairperson Activities for Development (DECAD), was first made available in 1977. In 1999, it was revised to reflect the literature on department chair leadership and effectiveness and given its current name. The system is comprised of two instruments and a summary feedback report: The Faculty Perceptions of Department Head/Chair Survey (FPDHS); and the Chair Information Form (CIF).[2] The system is designed to measure effectiveness for both summative evaluation, i.e., recommendations regarding merit salary, promotion, and other administrative decisions, and formative evaluation, i.e., improving administrative performance. This is accomplished by soliciting faculty input on how well the department chair has used different administrative methods to fulfill responsibilities he or she identifies as important or essential for the department. Results from the two instruments are analyzed and then summarized in the Feedback for Department Chair Report.[3]

The FPDHS is a 70-item instrument containing 67 objectively worded items and 3 short-answer written-response items.[4] All objective items were constructed using a Likert-type format with five possible responses ranging from 1 to 5 (1=low; 5=high); however, the wording of the scale anchors varies depending on the subscales. In the first 20 items on the FPDHS instrument, faculty rate their respective department chair's performance on various administrative responsibilities. Five apriori subscales are assumed for administrative responsibilities: (1) administrative support; (2) personnel management; (3) program leadership/support; (4) building image/reputation; and (5) developing positive climate. The scale for these items ranges from 1 to 5 (1=poor; 5=outstanding).

For items 21-30, faculty rate the department chair's strengths and weaknesses on personal characteristics. Five apriori subscales are assumed for personal characteristics: (1) ability to resolve issues; (2) communication skills; (3) steadiness; (4) trustworthiness; and (5) openness. The scale for these items ranges from 1 to 5 (1=definite weakness; 5=definite strength). Faculty also indicate how frequently their department chair performed administrative behaviors associated with five apriori subscales: (1) democratic/humanistic; (2) goal-oriented/structured; (3) supports faculty; (4) promotes positive climate; and (5) promotes department advancement. These scales include subsets of items 31-60 where the scale ranges from ranges from 1 to 5 (1=hardly ever; 5=almost always).

Items 61-65 refer to financial, bureaucratic, and faculty impediments to the chair's effectiveness. The scale for these items ranges from 1 to 5 (1=definitely false; 5=definitely true). Items 66-67 use the same scale and are designed to provide a summary judgment of the department chair. Item 66 states, "I believe the department would be better off if we replaced the current department chair," and Item 67 states, "I have confidence in the department chair's ability to provide leadership to the department." Items 68-70 are open-ended questions related to suggestions for improvement and areas to strengthen from the faculty's perspective.

The CIF is comprised of 30 items including 20 questions that ask department chairs to rate various administrative responsibilities on importance, ranging from 1 to 5 (1=not important; 5=essential). The remaining 10 items query department chairs about various departmental characteristics. On the FPDHS, faculty rate their respective department chair's performance on each of the same 20 responsibilities described above (items 1-20).[5]

The resulting Feedback for Department Chair Report contains individualized data along with national comparisons that provide direction on specific areas of strength and strategies for improvement. The report provides both summative and formative feedback. The summative portion of the feedback report is designed to accommodate differences among departments by developing individualized "priority profiles." The priority profiles are based on the ratings from the faculty on the relative importance of responsibilities commonly stressed by academic departments. These standards are used to weight faculty ratings of how well each responsibility was performed. The weighted averages are used as the principal measure of administrative effectiveness, (Hoyt, Bailey, Pallett, & Gross, 1999). In order to provide assistance in improving performance, strengths and weaknesses are diagnosed by comparing ratings from the national database with regard to "relevant administrative behaviors" with the ratings from the faculty respondents from that specific department. The domains or indicators of interest are based on the apriori subscales within the instruments that reflect the essential behaviors, characteristics, and methods for effective administrators described in the majority of department chair literature.

Middendorf, Benton, and Webster (2009) examined the validity and reliability of the FPDHS and CIF. Overall, they found strong evidence for the reliability, construct validity, and concurrent validity of three underlying dimensions that department chairs deemed most important: foster faculty talents; develop collegiality; and improve the department's campus reputation. Other elements of importance included communicating department needs, guiding curriculum development, and orienting new faculty and staff. Based on this

research and several focus groups held with department chairs, the IDEA Center is in the process of revising the FPDHS system.

The FPDHS is the only nationally normed instrument for evaluating department chairs, and it provides a formative basis for their development. The survey takes into account that different management styles and strategies come into play when addressing different responsibilities. Measures of effectiveness are based on faculty input on how well the chair has used different administrative methods to meet identified goals for the department (Hoyt et. al, 1999). This mechanism allows the department the flexibility of analyzing results that are relevant to the department chair's performance and the faculty's perception of his or her performance. Because the standards are based on national norms and effective practice, they provide appropriate guidance for professional development and, ultimately, improved performance.[6]

Assessing and Evaluating Student Leadership at Kansas State University

Binard and Brungardt (1997) noted that little guidance exists related to assessment within undergraduate leadership programming and point out the need for assessment procedures to measure leadership growth in student development. An example of a standardized commercial instrument for student leadership assessment is the Leadership Practices Inventory, an instrument developed for a 360-degree assessment with a 5-point Likert-type survey based on a 5-factor framework (Kouzes & Posner, 1988). Kouzes and Posner developed the framework for their instrument based on interviews and case studies of over 1,000 corporate managers. The instrument shows internal reliability with an alpha coefficient between .70 and .85 (Posner & Kouzes, 1992). Although this instrument does not have the history of the set of instruments for department chairs, it was found to be helpful in assessing student leadership in several studies. In their study of 27 students at a community college, Binard and Brungardt (1997) utilized a pre-post evaluation design and the Leadership Practices Inventory. Brungardt and Crawford (1996) utilized the LPI-Self instrument as well as an attitude survey and a knowledge examination to assess students in a leadership development program.

As part of a comprehensive evaluation of the Leadership Studies Program at Kansas State University, a contextually appropriate student leadership assessment instrument was developed. Surveys typically ask participants to rate the effect of a program on a set of indicators. To establish student leadership indicators, an alumni survey team utilized input from many groups of stakeholders that included faculty, advisory board members, and others involved in the program.[7] The evaluation team worked with stakeholders to determine areas in which student change can be expected and linked to the mission of the unit. Once domains and indicators were identified from this process, an appropriate and accurate measure for assessing student leadership was developed and implemented.

Multiple methods of data collection were used to examine the perceptions of students who progressed through the series of four courses required for the minor in Leadership Studies. Surveys were conducted for three of the four courses: Introduction to Leadership Concepts; Culture and Context in Leadership; and Leadership in Practice. For the final course, Senior Seminar in Leadership Studies, focus groups were conducted.

For Introduction to Leadership Concepts, survey questions related to student expectations for the course and the minor. This survey instrument consisted of scaled and open-ended items as well as demographic questions. Forty scaled items assessed the extent to which students believed they had achieved various leadership and learning outcomes. The open-ended items provided students with the opportunity to share expectations of outcomes or benefits from their experiences in the program. These responses were analyzed, and the results were combined with the results of the previous solicitations for information from stakeholders, program learning objectives, mission, and literature related to student leadership indicators. The result was a set of leadership skills and competencies that were grouped into four domains: critical thinking; knowledge about leadership theories and practices; communication and collaboration; and diversity. For the senior seminar, two questions framed the focus group discussion: (1) What are the benefits of participating in the Leadership Studies Program? and (2) What is the value of earning a minor in Leadership Studies? [8]

The above discussion described the development of a student leadership assessment instrument that involved multiple stakeholders and contextual grounding in the history and mission of the student leadership development program for which it was used as an evaluation tool. One of the challenges in using surveys (and most other data collection methods) is that there is no benchmark to know whether the assessed levels of leadership are acceptable or show a causal relationship to an intervention such as a leadership development program. Placing value or merit on the data collected with this or other student leadership assessment measures involves comparing the data with a standard. This valuing is the second arm of evaluation.

Summary

This article focused on two groups of higher education leaders, department chairs and students. First, it described the Individual Development and Educational Assessment (IDEA) Feedback for Department Chairs system at Kansas State University and its use to evaluate the effectiveness of department chairs across campus. Next, it presented the process used to develop a contextually based leadership assessment instrument for students in the university's Leadership Studies program. The recognition and development of leadership talent throughout institutions of higher education is a strategic imperative (Hill, 2005). The growing demand for accountability in higher education, the increase in emphasis on leadership at all levels, and the rapidly expanding number of programs and degrees in student leadership demonstrate the intersection of the fields of evaluation and leadership. Defining and assessing leadership qualities and competencies of department chairs and students, who may well become future leaders, is essential. As leaders in higher education, department chairs must exhibit top-notch professional competencies as well as conceptual and human competencies associated with leadership. Consideration of domains of leadership and expected indicators of successful leadership are contextually bound. Therefore, assessment instruments must consider context, content validity, and other important parameters of data collection methodologies. The use of appropriate evaluation designs or accepted standards is critical to evaluating leadership in higher education.

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Endnotes

[1] Double-barreled survey questions ask the respondent to assess two concepts in the same question. It is a problem with survey development.

[2] The FPDHS and CIF are found at http://www.theideacenter.org/node/8.

[3] A sample is found at http://www.theideacenter.org/sites/default/files/DeptChairSam.pdf.

[4] A sample is found at http://www.theideacenter.org/sites/default/files/ChairSurveySample.pdf.

[5] Samples of these instruments are may be found at http://www.theideacenter.org/node/8.

[6] Another method of placing value on assessed leadership is utilizing evaluation designs, including experimental or quasi-experimental research designs, to place value on leadership assessment data (Craig & Hannum, 2007; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Ongoing measures, such as those used at intervals during a leadership development program, lend themselves to time-series evaluation designs. Other possible designs are utilizing peer group comparisons or control groups. In addition to evaluating individual leadership, evaluation of collective leadership includes such methods as social network analysis (Durland & Fredericks, 2006) and ethnography (Behrens & Benham, 2007). Binard and Brungardt (1997) used a pre-post design to evaluate the impact of student leadership development activities. Customized open-systems frameworks were used to evaluate Evalu-LEAD youth leadership programs (Grove, Kiber, & Hass, 2005), and the National Public Health Leadership Institute used the Baldrige Education Criteria for Performance Excellence Framework (Umble, 2007).

[7] Items for the alumni survey were developed by referring to published literature related to expected outcomes of leadership studies programs (e.g. Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Williams, 2001; Chambers, 1992) and program outcome data about program outcome expectations provided by various Leadership Studies program stakeholders (i.e., students, faculty/staff, founders). Expected outcomes were gathered via surveys of the program's advisory council; focus groups; students at various levels within the program; and program faculty and staff. Other sources used to inform the development of the instrument included historical documents provided by program faculty; information gathered during oral history interviews with the founders; and literature discussing various indicators of successful leadership. Semi-structured founder interviews followed a protocol that aimed to assist the participants in thinking about historical events and experiences related to the founding of the program. In addition, they were asked about the students outcomes they expected to be produced by the program. The first level of analysis of the interviews regarded the program's expected impact on program participants. For coding purposes, expectations were defined broadly, inclusive of "must" and "should" (i.e., recommendations). The results of this analysis were used to inform the development of the survey for the advisory group and the program faculty. In developing the advisory group survey, a select group of council members who represented various program stakeholder groups (alumni, parents of alumni, employers of alumni, and business and civic leaders) were interviewed. Interview questions were created based on the information collected during a review of the program's historical documents and founders' interviews. Interview questions addressed what the council members saw as benefits to various stakeholders. Responses from the interviews as well as the oral history interviews were used to shape the questions included in the survey administered to the entire advisory group. Survey questions included requests to describe the benefits of the leadership program to students and alumni. The faculty survey was a modified version of the survey given to the advisory group.

[8] The responses to the first set of questions were combined for all four groups and analyzed by theme using a qualitative approach (Bogden & Biklen, 1982). These were incorporated with other stakeholder input and sources of information related to indicators to develop the alumni survey. See Appendix for further detail.

Appendix
Development of Alumni Survey

All elements of this instrument development complied with the University's Institutional Review Board process. The development and implementation of these surveys conformed to Dillman's (2007) methodology recommendations for survey development and administration. During the survey development phase of the project, care was taken to use strategies to reduce non-response error and measurement error. The Dillman Tailored Design Method (TDM) is the standard methodology used for designing questionnaires. Providing social validation, avoiding subordinating language, making the questionnaire interesting, minimizing requests for personal information, and making the task important are recommended ways of developing trust (social exchange) within the framework on the questionnaire.

To minimize errors in the Leadership Studies Program Alumni Survey, Thurston and her team used Dillman's recommendations for wording questions, designing questionnaires, and pretesting the survey. The questionnaire was written in such a way that the questions were valid (that is, the questions measured what the researcher intended them to measure), reliable (the questions would yield the same results if administered at different times or to different samples), and unbiased (the questions were written in such a way that people would be willing and able to provide accurate answers). According to Doyle (2008), there are literally dozens of issues related to the precise wording of questions that should be carefully considered when constructing a survey. Thus, he suggested that all survey questions should be put through a "debugging procedure" in which several quality control questions are asked:

1. Is the question one that respondents can easily answer based on their experience?
2. Is the question simple enough, specific enough, and sufficiently well-defined that all of the respondents will interpret it in the same way?
3. Does the question contain any words or phrases that could bias respondents to answer one way over another?
4. Is it clear to respondents exactly what types of answers are appropriate?
5. Does the question focus on a single topic or does it contain multiple topics that should be broken up into multiple questions?
6. Are any listed response options mutually exclusive?

This process of writing, debugging, and revising survey questions was inherent in constructing the alumni survey. The process included repeated debugging and pretesting. The pretest included:

1. Reviewing the questionnaire by knowledgeable colleagues and analysts to obtain feedback about the substantive content of the questionnaire/ wording of questions, design of the survey, and validity of the content and questions.
2. Interviews to evaluate cognitive and motivational questions to answer such questions as: Are all the words understood? Are respondents likely to read and answer each question? Are all the questions interpreted similarly by all respondents? This step was combined with the previous step and with the next step, the pilot study.
3. Conducting a small pilot study using procedures that emulate the main study.
4. Conducting a final check by asking novice readers to double check for spelling and layout.

Using the Dillman (2007) steps for pretesting an instrument, the alumni survey was sent to an expert review panel composed of Leadership Studies Program faculty and staff. Revisions were made to the instrument based on reviewer feedback. To ensure clarity of the instrument, the revised survey was then pilot tested on a sample (n = 30) of 2008 alumni, who were not included in the final data collection. Eight alumni provided feedback, and revisions were made. The final alumni survey instrument consisted of scaled and open-ended items as well as demographic questions. The scaled items were developed to measure the fulfillment of each aspect of the Leadership Studies Program mission statement and the extent to which alumni agreed that participating in the program assisted them in achieving outcomes such as enhanced skills and abilities.

Engaging Millennial Students in Leadership Education

Jill R. Arensdorf
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Introduction

As new generations of young people mature and enter higher education, educators must adapt their teaching methodologies through an examination of theory and research related to generational differences. This is necessary as well for faculty who teach in formal leadership degree programs. This article focuses on the current generation of undergraduate students, often referred to as the Millennial generation,[1] and asserts experiential education is particularly well suited to undergraduate leadership education programs given its focus on active learning. The article is divided into four sections, beginning with the presentation of a framework of best undergraduate education practices, which is followed by a section on the role of experiential learning for Millennials. The third and main section provides examples of how leadership education programs can successfully incorporate a range of experiential learning activities appropriate for undergraduate students. In the fourth section, the authors present their conclusions and recommendations.

Millennials and Best Undergraduate Education Practices

A generation is a "a cohort group whose length approximates the span of a phase of life and whose boundaries are fixed by peer personality" (Howe & Strauss, 2000, p. 60). According to Wilson (2004), Millennial generation students are family-oriented and concerned with community–yet spend 20% of their time alone. Unlike previous generations, they live in a no-boundaries world and view technology as a way of life. Wilson (2004) also noted that these students are the most diverse generation in the history of the United States, aim for graduate school, and comprise the largest generation, with more than 80 million people.

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For these students, many argue that instruction often needs to be more varied. Wilson (2004) used the following principles, derived from Chickering and Gamson (1987), to frame her research on teaching Millennials:

1. Student-faculty contact
2. Reciprocity and cooperation
3. Active learning
4. Feedback
5. Time on task
6. High expectations
7. Diverse talents and ways of knowing

According to Kuh (2003), "Substantive contact between students and faculty is what matters" (p. 29). These interactions benefit Millennials because they provide a tangible connection to the material. With regard to reciprocity and cooperation, Howe and Strauss (2000) asserted that because Millennial students have grown up working in groups and playing on teams, it may be difficult for them to learn outside of groups and teams. Kuh (2003) suggested incorporating peer evaluation, grading of individual contributions to group projects, and observing group activities into courses.

Active learning is the third principle. Discussion rather than lecture may be more successful with Millennial learners. In general, McKeachie (2002) asserted that "discussion methods are superior to lectures in student retention of information after the end of a course, transfer of knowledge to new situations, development of problem-solving, thinking, attitude change, and motivation for further learning" (p. 52-53). Due to the no-boundaries world in which Millennials live as a result of the Internet, students expect to have access to information with ease and speed. Thus, frequent, prompt, and constructive feedback is crucial to engagement (Braxton, Eimers, & Bayer, 1996).

Time on task promotes highly involved schedules. Millennials have been rushed from obligation to obligation throughout their childhood with very little free time. This hectic lifestyle may continue as students attempt to manage class, social obligations, organizational involvement, and work in college. College is referred to as a potentially transforming experience and a once in a lifetime opportunity to challenge students to examine previous ways of knowing and thinking. For this transformation to take place to a meaningful degree, students must devote the time and effort to develop desired characteristics (Kuh, 2003).

High expectations are also an important part of the educational package for Millennials. When faculty and institutions expect students to perform well, students rise to the challenge and are more likely to exert more effort to meet those expectations. Conversely, low expectations are normally met with low effort and performance (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). A balance of challenge and support can be offered to manage comprehensive, yet realistic expectations for students (Kuh, 2003).

Finally, diverse talents and ways of knowing are accentuated with Millennials as they and their learning styles are the most diverse of any generations. Because students have differences related to their learning styles and abilities, instructional methods should vary to maximize the number of students positively impacted by the curricula. Faculty who employ a variety of strategies for student engagement are more likely to impact learning and enhance educational outcomes for students (King, 2003).

Experiential Learning and Millennials

In *Faust*, von Goethe (1808) noted that knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do. These statements capture the relationship between the development of intellect and emotional understanding with application. Experiential learning provides a vehicle to aid in establishing this developmental connection in Millennials who value active learning. By using students' own experiences, experiential learning provides them with the opportunity to generate action theory or decide what actions are needed to achieve a desired result in an effort to modify behavior to improve effectiveness (Johnson & Johnson, 1997).

Experiential learning is rooted in the concept of "hands-on learning" as described by Dewey (1938). More recently, Bronowski (1973) asserted that true understanding only results from doing (1973). Dewey's and Bronowski's work shares a strong link between the cognitive and behavioral domains of the human psyche. For example, Dewey (1938) wrote that true learning does not occur unless reflection is present while Bronski (1973) maintained that observation is the hand that drives the sub-sequential development of conceptual understanding. This relationship is also found in the work of Vygotsky (1962) where he stated that learning from experience is the process whereby human development occurs.

Two strategies are often used in experiential learning. The first, role-playing, brings individual skills and their consequences into focus. Here, students are asked to maintain who they are and react to the situation based upon the certain assumptions that the individual is asked to adopt. This activity often leads to an emotional experience which in turn leads to a cognitive response that affects the behavior and affect of the participating student. The educator's role within this activity is to coordinate the dissemination of roles and situational variables, periodically refocus the attention and direction of the activity, and provide an opportunity for reflection (Johnson & Johnson, 1997). The second strategy examines the idea of process observation. The foundation of this strategy lies in observation procedures, which allow members to describe and record the behavior of the group as it occurs. This strategy clarifies and improves the way groups function through objective assessment of the interaction among group members (Johnson & Johnson, 1997). The information about the activity is collected and then openly discussed with the learners to address modifications of group behavior that could add to group effectiveness. Critics of this strategy note the difficulty of maintaining non-biased observer perspectives. However, this further validates the intentional role of educators in experiential learning as they are asked to manage the competing dynamics and personalities in the situation. Within this strategy, addressing situational dynamics and personalities can add to the learning process as it will allow for more holistic perspectives to emerge for the learners.

Leadership Education and Millennials

Riggio, Ciulla, and Sorenson (2003) illustrated that leadership studies students should be guided by theories and research on leadership, and that these programs should cultivate the values of the field. Sound leadership education uses theories and concepts (classroom learning) and combines them with opportunities for students to put those theories into practice. In order for students to learn leadership, they must "do it," and experiential learning activities are paramount in assisting students with this process. These experiential opportunities give students the opportunity to work in teams and groups, cooperate with faculty members, and enhance their learning through activity. The three pedagogical strategies discussed below—cognitive competencies, service learning, immersion activities–can enhance Millennials' learning.

Cognitive Competencies: Developing a Philosophy of Leadership

Winston Churchill said that "the empires of the future are the empires of the mind" (1943). This view is analogous to that of leadership education in that it aims to develop several cognitive competencies to enable students to be successful in their chosen field. Among these competencies are critical thinking, creativity, and contextual relativism. In an effort to promote these competencies, educators must be intentional. Intentionality rejects rigid pedagogical structures that measure learning objectives through formal exams and standardized writing assignments. Faculty provide students with new opportunities to challenge conventional assessment techniques and develop a strong foundation for organizational success through the development of these competencies.

An example is the leadership philosophy assignment that students are asked to complete within the Organizational Leadership program at Gonzaga University. In the course, "An Introduction to Organizational Leadership," students are asked to prepare a summary of their leading philosophy using class ideas, materials, and theories. Their leadership philosophy should reflect how philosophy as a discipline affects their leadership, and how it enhances their effectiveness and the effectiveness of their followers. Further, they are asked to include references to class discussions, outside texts, or articles that add credibility to their leadership philosophy. The assignment also includes perspectives and experiences that provide a foundation for their philosophy.

This assignment addresses the three cognitive competencies and encourages their development. Over the past two decades, academics have increased their attention to the dispositions of skills like critical thinking as a means for developing students' capacity for skills (Siegel, 1988; Paul, 1990; Facione & Facione, 1992; Esterle & Clurman, 1993; Ennis, 1996; Tishman & Andrade, 1996). Succinctly, this means that if students are predisposed to using a particular skill, they will develop the ability to use that skill more effectively in future situations. In addition, students become predisposed to self-regulation (Giancarlo & Facione, 2001) as they review the experiences of their life and the course materials to develop a leadership philosophy and convey it to the instructor.

This assignment also allows students to explore their ability to be creative. Creativity can be defined as something that is both novel and appropriate (Sternberg, 1999). To begin, students are told to show their genius and produce a quality product worthy of their education. This statement implies that they all have creative genius and maximizes their comfort with the alternative assignment. Further, they are told that they have the autonomy and freedom to convey their philosophy by any means necessary. For example, students have engaged instructors in a wide variety of activities to explain their philosophy of leadership. Together they have stood on train tracks, had pedicures, gone bowling, rode horses across campus, participated in high impact aerobics, played sports, shot guns, and artificially inseminated cows.

Yet, students must develop their philosophy within a minimalistic structure specified in the assignment's instructions. This structure allows for the development of innovations that leap beyond

conventional wisdom but are appropriate due to the minimalistic confines of the assignment. The minimalistic structure and appropriateness also allows students to explore the idea of contextual relativism. Leaders must assess contextual factors associated in the decision-making process in order to be effective. Contextual factors include sociological, cultural, political, and ideological aspects that prevent leaders from standardizing action plans and responses. This assignment challenges students within a safe environment to think creatively, but, at the same time, to take into consideration environmental details in development of their leadership philosophy.

The Indelible Impact of Service-Learning on Personal Leadership Growth

The purpose of service-learning in higher education is to provide students with a sense of civic and social responsibility and promote personal leadership growth (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). If these goals are met through their experiences, students can have a meaningful educational experience by learning about themselves and the world around them. They are then more prepared to face real issues outside their academic experience. For this effort to be successful in the long run, service-learning and civic engagement must be a component of the leadership education program and institution missions. This in turn will drive support for acceptance and implementation of service-learning and civic engagement activities on campus (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000).

Service learning is another type of active learning that ties into Dewey's concept of the efficacy of hands-on experiences. His idea of an educative experience is clearly apparent in service-learning programs where worthwhile activities that generate interest and curiosity over a considerable time span tend to foster student development. Ultimately, this is the goal of service-learning whereby students develop personally through their educational experiences.

Service-learning is a pedagogy that involves active learning which forges a clear link between course objectives and service activities. Although many definitions of service-learning are offered in research articles and scholarly work, a common theme among them is the concept of tying academic learning and service activities together to create a true learning experience for students. The hyphen is intentionally used in service-learning, due to the importance of the relationship between them. Without this connection, service "provides the fish, rather than the knowledge of how to fish effectively" for students. This balance is validated by Jacoby & Associates (1996) and Eyler & Giles (1999) who maintain that a delicate balance of challenge grounded in reflection for the participants in service-learning activities is essential. Bringle and Hatcher (1995) define service-learning as "a credit-bearing, educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility" (p. 112). Service-learning, as defined by Cress (2005) engages students in service activities "with intentional academic and learning goals and opportunities for reflection that connect to their academic disciplines" (p. 7). Fort Hays State University defines service-learning as "a method of teaching and learning that integrates community service activities into academic curricula and expands the learning of students from the classroom to the community" (2008).

Service-learning is offered by both programs that carefully integrate the service experience into the established curriculum and individual instructors who include a service-learning component in a course. During and upon completion of the service-learning activity, students engage in critical reflection. When students are engaged in highly reflective classes that integrate service with learning, students better understand issues and can apply this knowledge to their community (Gray et al., 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Roberts, 2008).

Students who participate in a service-learning course have increased their level of civic involvement (Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, & Geschwind, 2000). These findings reinforce research showing that service-learning is a powerful predictor of active citizenship (Niemi & Associates, 1974) and the ability to face obstacles and act effectively (Bandura, 1997). Students become competent individuals and have significantly higher opportunities to take on civic and leadership responsibilities (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000; Stafford, 2001). In addition to developing the ability to connect to experiences, students participating in service-learning strengthen their ability to serve the community and learn about social action. The importance of civic responsibility and dedication to leadership in the community is illuminated during the reflective process of service-learning. Students have the opportunity to grow and develop as leaders and citizens that academic programs seek to produce (Spence, 2000). Hence service-learning in a leadership course is critical to Millennial students development into future leaders.

Faculty members who are considering the implementation of a service-learning component into their course to foster civic-mindedness should consider the four essential components of service-learning: Preparation; action; reflection; and assessment (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Herrernan, 2001; Campus Compact, 2003; Fort Hays State University Service-Learning Committee, 2008). These components set service-learning apart from volunteerism and community service. Preparation includes developing learning outcomes for students and planning a project that will help foster that learning. Students should be involved in the planning stage of service-learning, as well as discussion of the service-learning concept. A description of service-learning as a pedagogy is a helpful addition to the course syllabus.

The action component of service-learning consists of the actual service experience. Students tackle a "real life" issue with its obstacles and successes. They have the opportunity to apply their academic learning to a project from which a community and/or community agency will benefit. Reflection follows action. Reflection, the ability to step back and think about the experience, is the most critical piece of the service-learning experience. For most students, this component enables them to realize the impact of their service and understand what they have truly learned through the semester or course project (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Collier & Williams, 2005). As a result of the study they conducted between 1993 and 1998, Eyler and Giles (1999) stated that, "quality and quantity of reflection was most consistently associated with academic learning outcomes: deeper understanding and better application of subject matter and increased knowledge of social agencies, increased complexity of problem and solution analysis, and greater use of subject matter knowledge in analyzing a problem" (p. 173).

As a final step, assessment and evaluation should occur in order to assess the extent to which the desired learning objectives have been reached. Community partners should also have the opportunity to

assess their experience. Eyler and Giles (1999, p. 189) list the following as questions to assess the service-learning experience:

- Do students have opportunities to do important work and take important responsibilities in community service placements?
- Are there close connections between academic subject matter and what students are doing in the community?
- Is reflection about the service integrated into classes through frequent opportunities for discussion and written analysis or projects?
- Does reflection challenge students to go beyond description and sharing of feelings to analysis and action planning?
- Do students work with people from diverse backgrounds and cultures?
- Are community projects developed in partnership with the community?

An example of this indelible impact can be seen in a course at Fort Hays State University, Fieldwork in Leadership Studies. During this course, teams of students spend the semester working on a service-learning project in collaboration with a community agency. Students and faculty spend the first day of the course talking about service-learning and its components. Community members from local organizations present their project ideas to the students. Students then choose their project and teams. Examples of projects include Big Brothers/Big Sisters recruitment; downtown revitalization activities; fundraising for Habitat for Humanity; and research and feasibility studies for new organizations in the community. During this preparation phase and throughout the project, community partners are valued as active participants in this educational experience. Community agency representatives serve as the main contact for the students. They also have the opportunity to attend two presentations given by students during the semester. The instructor of the course also maintains close contact with the agency to ensure that students and the agency are having a positive experience.

Students create teams and write a detailed strategic plan that illustrates how they plan to implement their community change. The instructor evaluates the plans and gives feedback to students. They then have the entire semester to implement their plan in collaboration with the community agency and its representatives.

Since reflection should be continuous throughout the service experience, students actively engage in reflection throughout their project orally in class with their instructor and fellow classmates. Community agency members also participate in reflection activities with students and the course instructor throughout the semester. Students are asked to submit written reflection papers mid-semester and after the project is completed. Questions that students might answer in their final reflection paper are as follows:

- What community need did your (or your team's) service help meet?
- What do you feel was your (or your team's) main contribution?
- Discuss at least two leadership theories, concepts, or skills you believe have been cemented more deeply in your mind as a result of this service experience.
- What did you learn about the importance of service to your community and personal life? (Department of Leadership Studies, 2008).

These reflection activities assist students in connecting leadership theories to their experiences.

Assessment of civic and academic learning is the final component of the course. Students' projects are assessed at the conclusion of the semester by the course instructor and community agency representatives with whom they worked. These qualitative data are assessed by the course instructor at the conclusion of the semester. Quantitative data are collected through a survey given to students at the conclusion of the course which measures social change behaviors and attitudes (Brungardt, 2005), and results are compared to data collected from students before completing the course. Students are also asked to complete a qualitative survey that asks questions regarding their best learning experiences throughout the program. Work is currently being done at Fort Hays State University to compose pre- and post-service assessments in order to evaluate the impact of service-learning and civic engagement activities across campus.

Immersion Activities: Another Type of Service-Learning

Immersion has been touted as a highly effective way for learners to develop perspectives that will allow them to be successful in dynamic situations (Johnson & Swain, 1997; Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 2000). Based on an activity originally done at the University of Notre Dame Law School, students of Fort Hays State University were asked to embark upon an immersion, titled *Thought for Food*. This activity, conducted over a period of time leading up to the Thanksgiving holiday, addressed a community need and facilitated enhancement of undergraduates' ability to think critically, develop a moral foundation for practice, and create social awareness. Further it was aimed at extending an educational experience to promote social justice and create sustainable, civically engaged practices in students after graduation.

To facilitate this experience, a faculty member from the Department of Leadership Studies and another from the Department of Management and Marketing solicited support from the faculty within the College of Business and Leadership at Fort Hays State University. After gaining the support of the faculty, the program was advertised on campus to university students the week prior to the event. The exercise was conducted during multiple days of the week, allowing the original idea of challenging students to ask thoughtful questions to be employed in most classes.

The program was implemented in three ways:

1. Thought for Food – If students could provide thoughtful questions about the subject matter that was being presented in the course that week, the instructor would provide one can of food per question to be donated to the local food bank.
2. Re-Thinking for Food – If a student was displeased with a grade he or she received on a past assignment, that student could petition his or her instructor with cans of food to revise the assignment for additional points.
3. Recognizing Charitable Deeds – If students contributed food for the collection drive, they would be considered by their instructors for additional bonus points to supplement their overall grade in the course.

The impact of the program was felt in a variety of ways. The program raised 4,500 pounds of canned and dry goods for food banks and missions in Hays, Kansas. Further, it assisted in the development of core competencies validated by the literature and

created a framework for practice that promoted awareness and effective practice post graduation for both undergraduate management and leadership students. This activity extended education and promoted a social justice approach to undergraduate student learning. During an informal reflection period in class following the experience, one student noted, "Activities like this are really good because they point out that social justice is not patronizing, it is liberating." This statement exemplified the opportunities that exercises like this provide to student populations. They broaden student perspectives and create sustainable practice that promotes engaged citizenship. This is critical for the ever-changing dynamics of our society and the ability for students to be successful in future endeavors.

Conclusion

Leadership, regardless of definition, cannot be taught by a textbook alone, and if educators are to embrace the idea of highly engaged, holistic classrooms for Millennials, they must teach students to participate in real changes as both leaders and followers through practice and experiences. Educators cannot sit back and expect students to change in accordance with the standard generationally-driven teaching styles. The time has come for the purveyors of leadership education to embrace change and incorporate pedagogies that speak to Millennials. Shakespeare asked, "What is the city, but the people?" (1628, p. 638). This is applicable because it is the responsibility of educators to engage Millennial learners, the people within the city of undergraduate education. In the future, this idea will become critical as the Millennial generation will entirely recast the image of youth having profound consequences for society (Howe & Strauss, 2000).

What is the incentive to integrate these practices into courses? It is not for the tenure and promotion benefits. It is not for a raise in salary. It is not to win awards. It is not for educators' own self-interest. Experiential activities move students to see broader perspectives, learn through action, and apply that knowledge to a broader context than the four walls of the classroom. To educators, that should be a powerful incentive. Utilizing experiential activities to teach leadership to the Millennial generation undergraduate students is a pedagogical approach that leadership programs can and should use. It is not only about classrooms and meeting the needs of learners. This evolution in leadership programs can contribute toward meeting our society's goal of developing people who not only understand but also practice leadership in all walks of life. This intentional effort becomes the hinge from which the door of sustainability for higher education as an academy and the development of society at large swings back and forth.

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Endnote

[1] Millennial generation students are those born after 1982 (Coomes & DeBard, 2004).

The Newest Offering in the Higher Education Leadership Movement: A Model Campus-Wide Residential Program for Faculty and Staff

Susan M. Scott and Mary Hale Tolar

Introduction

The purpose of this article is to review the recent emphases by institutions of higher education on leadership development and to describe a model program for a population not yet widely addressed: faculty and staff.

Historical Context

In recent decades, leadership scholars have bemoaned the lack of true leaders and leadership education at all levels and issued the fabled "cry for leadership" (Burns, 1978; Gardner, 1990; Wren, 1995). Although institutions of higher learning have been engaged in guiding the leaders of society since their inception, they offered no formalized programs or courses until relatively recently. Although the education of leader-citizens is an enduring theme in university mission statements, it is only recently that the teaching of leadership to students–both as curricular offerings and co-curricular development programs–has become a wide spread phenomenon among many college campuses.

Between 1990 and 1998, the W.K. Kellogg Foundation funded a study of 31 collegiate leadership development programs and concluded that we need a new generation of leaders who could bring about positive change in local, national, and international affairs (Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhart, 1999). Although not one of the schools

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studied, Kansas State University followed the development of the field of leadership studies as outlined in this study. After extensive co-curricular leadership development efforts beginning in the 1970s, Kansas State University began teaching a course on leadership for credit in the late 1980s. In 1996, deans of student life and professors of educational leadership proposed a formal leadership studies minor that was the result of their collaborative work. The minor's mission statement, "Developing knowledgeable, ethical, caring leaders for a diverse world," both preceded and supported the Kellogg study's conclusion. The program that began in 1996 is now the School of Leadership Studies, the largest and only public school of its kind in the nation.

Further evidence of the efficacy of this program is demonstrated by a recently concluded study–again unique among leadership studies programs. In January, 2009, the Kansas State University Office of Educational Innovation and Evaluation concluded a 16-month analysis of the university leadership studies program. This analysis pointed out many program strengths, including:

- A strong mission that is an integral part of the history, development, and ongoing operation of the program;
- Specific, measurable student learning objectives that are regularly assessed and are tied to program coursework and activities;
- Historical and ongoing institutional support and commitment to the mission of the program;
- Specific leadership development content and skill development within the activities of the program; and
- Inclusion of recognized successful practices in the program, such as student recognition, capstone experience, service learning, and community involvement.

As success was being demonstrated at the student level, the leadership studies program endeavored to expand its offerings to faculty and staff. The reasons for the development of the first faculty and staff leadership residential institute were twofold: the School of Leadership Studies had previous successful experience with an effective program offered for students entitled "Leadership Challenge"; and there was recognition that faculty and staff need, want, and deserve the same leadership development opportunities as students.

Literature Review

In researching leadership development programs for higher education faculty and staff, the authors found only one program currently offered to faculty and staff at their home institution which was potentially available for all faculty and staff. The program offered at Mississippi State University began in 2007 with small classes meeting monthly around topics of university governance, conflict resolution, and other related topics. There have long been national programs that have served faculty identified by institutions as leaders or potential leaders. The oldest is the American Council on Education (ACE) Fellows program which began in 1965. Additionally, the Harvard Institute for Higher Education for established leaders, the Higher Education Resource Services (HERS) Management Institutes, and the Executive Leadership and Management Institute at Stanford are all highly selective residential programs for already identified leaders from higher education institutions. Finally, there exist specific national conferences for faculty holding specific leadership positions such as the Academic Chairperson Conference which has been in existence for 25 years.

The literature on the development of faculty and staff leadership is sparse. Gmelch (2000) wrote specifically on leadership succession when becoming a new dean. Preparing new academic leaders was the general subject of a work by Hoppe and Speck (2003). With attention being paid to "student-centered" institutions, servant leadership has emerged in campus conversations about leadership development. Buchen (1998) postulated that the theory of servant leadership should be the model for all faculty and student relations in and outside the classroom, but neglects to mention any methods for moving this theory into application. The need for community college leaders to be developed was articulated in a book edited by Piland and Wolf (2003) that also focuses on the theory of servant leadership.

A Summary of the James R. Coffman Leadership Institute

In January of 2004, development of a professional leadership institute was initiated by the School of Leadership Studies, formerly known as Leadership Studies and Programs, and supported by Kansas State University Vice Presidents of Administration and Finance, and Institutional Advancement. The institute was established to address the need to encourage and assist leadership development for Kansas State University faculty and staff, and it was named the James R. Coffman Leadership Institute to honor the leadership of retiring Provost Coffman. A planning committee, comprised of members across all academic and administrative units on campus, was convened and charged with developing a high quality learning experience that would have practical leadership applications for day-to-day functioning for all levels of members of the "Kansas State family." The leadership institute was based on the belief that empowered individuals result in enhanced institutions; and, as stated by Provost

Coffman in the initial brochure, "Faculty and staff leadership skills development is essential, both for individual career development and for collectively furthering the future success of the university" (Karim & Scott, 2004).

The planning committee and Institute Director (leadership studies associate director), under the auspices of Leadership Studies and Programs, developed the first Professional Leadership Institute for the summer of 2004, and the institute became an annual tradition. The institute began with three primary objectives:

- Provide opportunities for participants to refresh and develop their leadership skills in a safe, yet challenging learning environment (a 4-H lodge, located 45 minutes from campus);
- Provide opportunities for networking and interdisciplinary cooperation for university faculty and staff;
- Infuse the university with more empowered faculty and staff leaders.

The institute continues to be based on the philosophy that every individual can be a successful leader. This success depends on learning leadership skills as well as recognition of one's own leadership style. Further refining of that leadership style, understanding of associated strengths and challenges as well as the impact on decision-making, conflict resolution, and problem-solving preferences continue to be the major focus of the institute.

Participants are involved in a two-and-a-half-day, two-night, in-residence experience with learning activities arranged in a variety of formats: workshops; expert panel discussions with current Kansas State University leaders; small and large group activities; formal and informal small group discussions; multimedia presentations; case studies; and self-assessments. Each day is organized thematically, as

Table 1
Five-Year Participant Evaluation Data on Institute Effectiveness and Participant Effectiveness

Evaluation Items	Percentage of Participants Rating Item Effective to Highly Effective				
*Effectiveness of each activity in reinforcing concepts discussed in the Institute ****	*August 2004*	*May 2005*	*August 2006*	*May 2007*	*August 2008*
Workshops	94.0	97.5	83.3	87.2	77.8
Panel Discussions	70.0	95.0	80.6	64.1	75.0
Small Group Activities	92.0	95.0	80.6	89.8	n.a
Large Group Activities	92.0	97.5	83.3	71.8	n.a
Informal Small Group Discussions	92.0	95.0	80.5	84.6	83.3
Self-Assessments	n.a	92.5	68.5	74.4	77.8
Overall, the Institute met participant expectations.	88.9	100.0	80.0	92.3	91.7
Number of respondents	45	42	39	39	36

*Likert scale 1-5: 1=extremely effective to 5=entirely ineffective.

follows: Day One/Knowing Yourself; Day Two/Knowing Others; and Day Three/Building Community. Participants are encouraged to explore and initiate collaborative projects and discuss leadership issues as they strengthen current relationships and build new ones with other Kansas State University professionals. One significant measure of success is that the graduates of the institutes have formed an alumni group that continues to meet and host ongoing leadership development activities.

The summer institute now has a five-year history of success, engaging over 200 participants. Provost M. Duane Nellis described the institute as "building on the tremendous success of the inaugural event that helped transform participants' abilities, benefiting the university in new and exciting ways" (Karim & Scott, 2008).

Findings

In 2008, the Kansas State University Office of Planning and Analysis compiled and analyzed evaluations of the institute and the workshops for years 2004-2008. The summative feedback provided a comprehensive review of the entire institute. Table 1 represents participant responses by year to the variety of activities offered and overall participant expectation ratings. Approximately, 92% of participants rated the most recent workshop "effective to extremely effective." During the five year period, responses ranged from 80% to 100%. Comments such as "I thought the conference was great overall," and "I was pleasantly surprised about the entire experience" were indicative of the overwhelming, positive response.

Participants were asked to evaluate each workshop offered in the institute. Participants reported overall favorable experiences ranging from 71.9% to 97.5% in Table 2. These results speak to the relevance

of the topics and the efficacy of the session presenters, and demonstrate the responsiveness of the planning committee, which based decision-making about the agenda and format on feedback from annual evaluations.

The second stated goal of the Institute is to provide networking opportunities. In selecting participants, efforts were made to include individuals from all areas of the university. Table 3 demonstrates the diversity of participants by number of units represented, comparing the distribution of participants by college or unit by year, including the five-year total. The five-year total of 201 participants represents an equal distribution based upon the size of the respective unit. In addition to the quantitative data, "most of the additional comments praised the quality of the Institute and the sessions or workshops" (Kansas State University, 2008).

Conclusions

The "cry for leadership" that Burns (1978) and others issued over the last 30 years awakened colleges and universities in dynamic ways whose ripple effects may indeed change the core of the academy. However, as administrators, students affairs professionals, progressive academic departments, and students embrace this new discipline of leadership studies and the entire learning community associated with it, essential parts of the university have been overlooked. While there exist highly selective programs for faculty who have been ordained leaders by their institutions or are on a leadership track, only two institutions of higher education provide ongoing leadership development in which all have the opportunity to participate. As demonstrated above by the five-year evaluations of the James R. Coffman Institute held annually at Kansas State University, over 90% of the

Table 2
Five-Year Participant Evaluation Data on Individual Workshops

Evaluation Items	Percentage of Participants Rating Item Effective to Highly Effective				
*The workshop met my expectations. *	*August 2004*	*May 2005*	*August 2006*	*May 2007*	*August 2008*
Change Leadership	95.9	97.5	83.3	82.1	84.6
Managing Stress	76.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Intergenerational Leadership	96.7	80.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Conflict Resolution	95.0	95.0	71.9	86.8	83.7
Action Planning	90.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Personality Type	91.5	92.8	94.2	92.4	92.9
Active Collaboration	n.a.	n.a.	78.8	86.8	95.0
Inclusive Leadership	n.a.	n.a.	81.8	79.5	84.2
Number of respondents	45	42	39	39	36

*Likert scale 1-5: 1=extremely effective to 5=entirely ineffective.

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Table 3

Five-Year Data of Distribution of Institute Participants by College or Unit: Number and Percentage

College/Unit	August 2004		May 2005		August 2006		May 2007		August 2008		Five-Year Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
College of Agriculture	5	11.11	3	10.90	2	5.10	3	7.6	3	8.33	16	7.96
College of Architecture, Planning and Design	1	2.22	1	2.20	2	5.10	0	0	1	2.78	5	2.49
College of Arts and Sciences	3	6.67	3	6.50	3	7.70	2	5.13	3	8.33	14	6.97
College of Business Administration	1	2.22	2	4.30	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.49
College of Education	0	0	2	2.20	2	5.10	0	0	0	0	4	1.99
College of Engineering	2	4.44	3	6.50	1	2.60	2	5.13	2	5.56	10	4.98
College of Human Ecology	3	6.67	1	4.30	4	10.30	1	2.56	3	8.33	12	5.97
College of Technology and Aviation	2	4.44	5	2.20	2	5.10	5	12.82	2	5.56	16	7.96
College of Veterinary Medicine	2	4.44	2	4.30	2	5.10	0	0	0	0	6	2.99
Academic Services and Technology	2	4.44	1	4.3	2	5.10	2	5.13	1	2.78	8	3.98
Administration and Finance	0	0	2	8.70	7	17.90	3	7.69	5	13.89	17	8.46
Institutional Advancement	8	17.78	10	17.40	7	17.90	9	23.08	3	8.33	37	18.41
Provost/ President	7	15.56	4	10.90	1	2.60	2	5.13	6	16.67	20	9.95
Other	9	20.00	3	15.20	4	10.30	10	25.64	7	19.44	33	16.42
Total	45	100.00	42	100.00	39	100.00	39	100.00	36	100.00	201	100.00

faculty and staff participants rated the experience as "effective to highly effective."

In a time when higher education is changing more rapidly than ever with leadership needs continuing to be greater and more dispersed, who is teaching faculty and staff how to confidently welcome these roles? After five extensively evaluated and highly rated institutes, the Coffman residential leadership development experience for faculty and staff provides that answer through empowered individuals, enhanced institutions.

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The Role of High School Experience inCollege Student Leadership Development

Susan R. Komives and Matthew Johnson

Colleges and universities have long claimed student leadership development to be a desirable college outcome (Roberts, 2007). Until the latter quarter of the 20th century, college experiences that developed leadership outcomes were ill-structured, incidental or accidental, and largely only targeted students who held positional leadership roles (Komives, 1996). Little was understood by college leadership educators about how pre-college experiences influenced college leadership development, and little theory or research guided an understanding of how leadership may develop in adolescent and post-adolescent years.

This article explores the outcomes from high school extracurricular involvement and how high school and college experiences contribute to college leadership outcomes. The chapter then presents two studies that examine the role of high school and college experience in the development of college leadership outcomes: a grounded theory study that led to the leadership identity development theory (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005) and preliminary findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

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High School Involvement

Until recently, leadership research on college students has largely ignored pre-college leadership experiences (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007). High school educators and administrators facilitate student involvement in high school through a variety of outlets (e.g., sporting teams, community service, student government); and although involvement in extracurricular activities is considered inherently positive, the degree to which these activities facilitate specific desirable outcomes ranging from leadership to academic outcomes has only recently become a focus of research (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003; Mahoney, Larson, & Eccles, 2005). The relationship between high school involvements to various college outcomes remains largely unexplored for those high school students who go on to college outside of links between high school involvement and college enrollment (McNeal, 1995).

Eccles et al. (2003) explain the importance of understanding the nature of youth involvement activities because they provide opportunities to: acquire and practice specific social, physical, and intellectual skills that may be useful in a wide variety of settings including school, contribute to the well-being of one's community and to develop a sense of agency as a member of one's community, belong to a socially recognized and valued group, establish supportive social networks of peers and adults that can help in both the present and the future, and experience and deal with challenges. (p. 866)

Involvement in youth activities serves as an important developmental context for growth. Studies have shown positive linkages between extracurricular activities and such outcomes as academic performance (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Marsh, 1992), decreased likelihood to drop out of high school (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; McNeal, 1995), increased civic engagement (Youniss, McLellan, Su & Yates, 1999), psychological health (Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001), and reduced substance abuse (Youniss, Yates, & Su, 1997). Some studies have shown that extracurricular involvement in high school gives students a chance to learn leadership skills (Glanville, 1999). These results have been corroborated by a national longitudinal study that showed consistent participation in extracurricular activities from 8th grade through 12th grade predicts academic achievement and prosocial behaviors in adolescents, even after accounting for individual, parent, peer, and school process variables (Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams, 2003). Taken together, these studies empirically show that participation in various involvement activities in high school is associated with positive developmental outcomes.

Type of Involvement Activities

Research suggests that the relationship between youth activities involvement and developmental outcomes vary as a function of the type and characteristics of the activities (Barber, et al., 2001; Bartko and Eccles, 2003; Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003; McNeal, 1995; Rose-Krasnor et al., 2006). For instance, service-learning is a type of high school involvement that is receiving a lot of recent attention. Several studies have shown that participation in service-learning activities in high school relates to better academic achievement, higher self-esteem, reduced dropout rates, increased political participation, and increased volunteering (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Youniss, et al., 1999).

One type of involvement that has shown mixed results with developmental outcomes is sports. Participation in high school sports relates to higher likelihood of graduation and college attendance

(McNeal, 1995), with even greater likelihood for low-achieving and blue-collar male athletes (Gould & Weiss, 1987; Holland & Andre, 1987). Although participation in high school sports relates to higher academic performance, more engagement, and greater likelihood of attending post-secondary education, it is also related to increased alcohol consumption in high school and post-secondary education (Barber et al., 2001; Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Characteristics of Involvement Activities

Research also suggests that the specific characteristics of involvement activities matter. For instance, in a study of 10,944 8th grade students, Gerber (1996) found that school-based involvement activities are more positively associated with academic achievement compared to nonschool-based activities (Gerber, 1996). The peer group with which one associates in various high school involvement activities can also have implications on outcomes associated with the activity (Dishion, McCord, & Poulin, 1999; Eccles et al., 2003). Oversight of these various peer groups (e.g., parents, coaches, no oversight) mediates outcomes associated with these involvement experiences. Involvement activities that are highly competitive or overly demanding have also been shown to be related to higher levels of anxiety and stress among the participants (Scanlan, Babkes, & Scanlan, 2005).

Studying Leadership in College Students

High school extracurricular involvement is generally seen as positive and is widely supported by parents and educators. The same can be said for involvement at the college and university level (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). In his theory on college student involvement, Astin (1995) postulates that the greater the involvement of a student in college specifically time engaged in educationally purposeful activity, the greater that student's learning and development.

There is little known, however, about the relationship between various types of high school involvement and college learning outcomes – particularly those college outcomes associated with leadership. With a growing number of students attending postsecondary education with increasingly diverse backgrounds and experiences, it is important to study both the theoretical and empirical relationships between the role of extracurricular involvement in high school and leadership outcomes in college.

The role of high school extracurricular involvement has been examined in two recent college leadership studies by University of Maryland research teams. One study looks at a life span approach to the development of a leadership identity including pre-college experience; the second study examines the role of high school extracurricular involvement in specific college leadership capacities. Both studies are framed by contemporary leadership theory foundationally grounded in reciprocal, relational orientations to leadership. An overview of this approach to leadership is presented followed by the two studies.

Shifting Leadership Perspectives

Perspectives on leadership over the last century have evolved from examining "great men" theories (e.g., leaders are born) to leadership traits (e.g., intelligence) or leadership behaviors (e.g., democratic, authoritarian) exhibited by those in leadership positions to leadership behaviors or styles that vary contingent on the situation (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007; Rost, 1991). Conventional views on these managerial, leader-centric approaches (Rost, 1991) shifted with the increased importance of the reciprocity of the follower role and the leader's responsibility to transform followers into leaders themselves (Burns, 1978). These contemporary reciprocal theories approach leadership as a process that is collaborative, relational, and ethical undergirded by the importance of authenticity as a root construct guiding an individual's involvement in the process of leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). Two contemporary theories have been widely used in college student leadership development: relational leadership and the social change model of leadership development (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006).

Relational Leadership. Seeking to inform college students about contemporary approaches to leadership, college leadership educators Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (1998) published the first edition of Exploring Leadership: For College Students Who Want to Make a Difference presenting their relational leadership model of leadership. This theoretical model of leadership includes five elements: (1) purposeful – being about accomplishing something positive; (2) inclusive – open to diverse ideas and diverse people, seeking out shareholders and stakeholders to work collaboratively for change; (3) empowering – engaging all group members in ways that fully use their talents and perspective; (4) ethical – upholding both modal and end values, and expecting integrity, trust, character, and truthfulness among group members; and (5) process-oriented – attending to the normative practices of the group that bring people collaboratively together in community and shared leadership functions. The relational leadership theoretical model defines leadership as "a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish positive change" (Komives, et al., 2007, p. 74). These relational leadership elements apply to both group members as well as positional leaders when viewing leadership as a process.

Social Change Model of Leadership Development. The social change model of leadership development (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996) was developed by a nationally recognized group of leadership researchers (HERI, 1996). This theory "approaches leadership as a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Komives, Wagner & Associates, 2009, p. ii). This comprehensive theory conceptually integrates individual, group, and societal dimensions of leadership. The seven values are clustered along three dimensions designed to enhance effectiveness for accomplishing social change (Astin, 1996; HERI, 1996; Komives, et al., 2009):

- Individual: consciousness of self; congruence; and commitment
- Group: collaboration; common purpose; and controversy with civility
- Societal/community orientation: citizenship.

Leadership Identity Development

A small body of leadership developmental literature examines how leadership develops across the life span inclusive of pre-college years (Brungardt, 1996; Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009; Drath, 1998; Lord & Hall, 2005; Murphy & Reichard, in press). How one develops the capacity to implement the relational leadership theoretical model (Komives, et al, 1998) was the focus of a grounded theory inquiry in 2001-2002 (Komives, et al., 2005; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006).

Grounded theory is an inductive research methodology that is generated from participant's experiences that build toward general patterns or categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1988). Relying on intensity sampling strategies to identify participants who evidence the phenomenon being studied, expert nominators who observed students engaging in organizational settings were asked to nominate students who practice this relational leadership ability whether in positional or in non-positional roles. Those students selected engaged in intensive life-narrative interviews over a one-year period with members of the research team (Komives, et al., 2005).

The diverse group was comprised of five women and eight men including White, African American, African, and a student of middle Eastern heritage. Two students were recent alumni, nine were seniors, and two were sophomores. The research team employed constant comparative analysis and axial and selective coding with the data as well as member checking and peer debriefing for trustworthiness of the study. (For more detail on study methods, see Komives, et al., 2005).

The data led the researchers to identify a six-stage theory of leadership identity development (LID) (Komives, et al., 2005). As the students developed through each stage they were influenced by the developmental components of adult influences, peer influences, meaningful involvement, and reflective practices that helped them learn from their experiences. At each stage they heightened their self-awareness through their interaction with others in group or organizational settings. It is notable that they developed interpersonal efficacy of working with diverse others and were influenced by the continuity of group membership by sticking with one organization over time. This development of self and group influences changed how they viewed themselves in relation to others. While initially being dependent on others, then being independent, they came to an awareness of interdependence with others; interdependence grounded the final three stages of the theory. As noted in the Figure below, this changing view of themselves with others influenced their changing view of leadership, initially seeing leadership as a person external to themselves; then as positional (the behavior of a person

Figure
A Grounded Theory of Leadership Identity Development
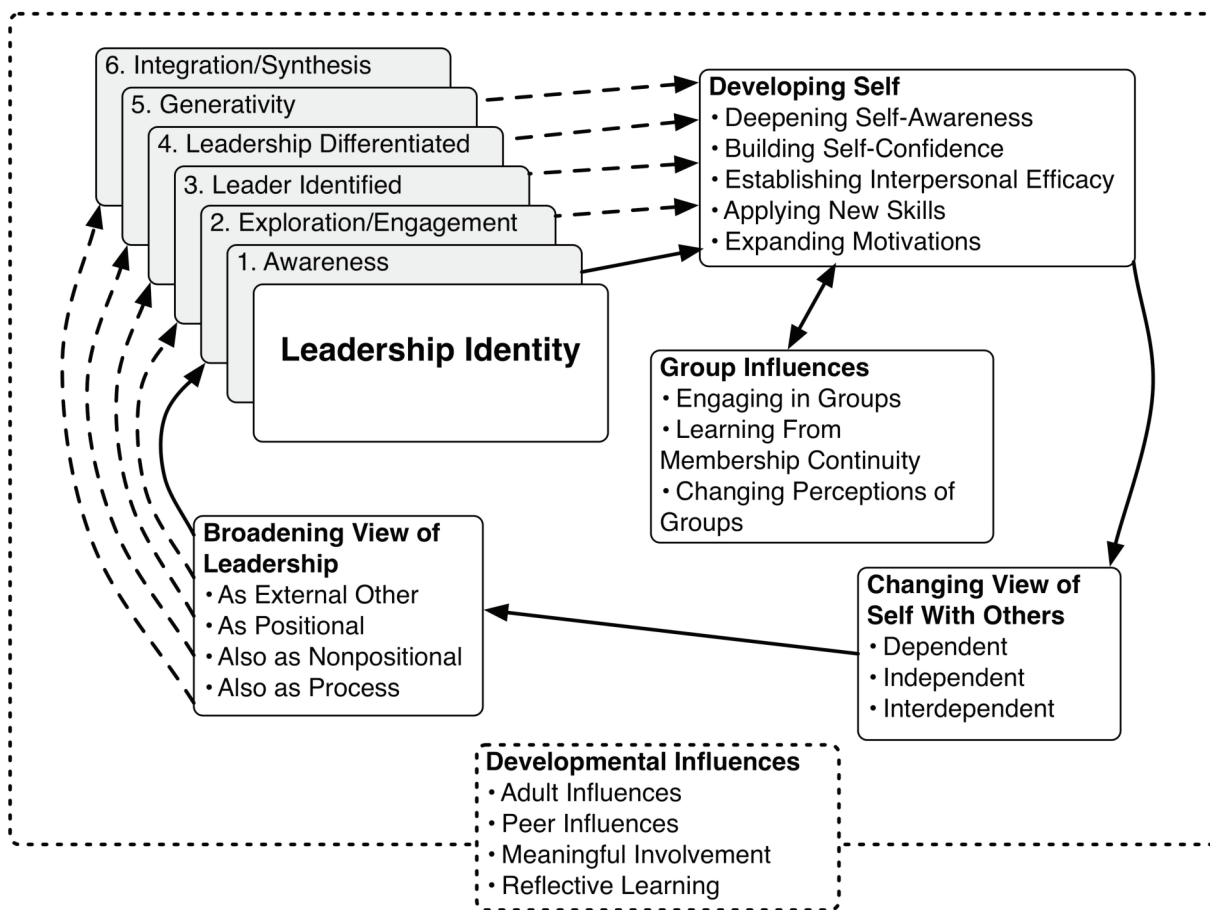
Source: Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella., & Osteen, 2005. Reprinted with permission from the American College Personnel Association (ACPA). Washington, DC: Center for Higher Education.

Table

Five-Year Data of Distribution of Institute Participants by College or Unit: Number and Percentage

Stages

Key Categories	1 Awareness	Transition	2 Exploration/Engagement	Transition	3 Leader Identified – Emerging	3 Leader Identified – Immersion	The Key – Transition	4 Leadership Differentiated – Emerging	4 Leadership Differentiated – Immersion	Transition	5 Generativity	Transition	6 Integration/Synthesis
Stage Descriptions	Recognizing that leadership is happening around you; Getting exposure to involvements		Intentional involvements [sports, church, service, scouts, dance, SGA] • Experiencing groups for the first time; Taking on respossibilities		Trying on new roles; Identifying skills needed; Taking on individual responsibility; Individual accomplishments important	Getting things done • Managing others • Practicing different approaches/styles; *Leadership seen largely as positional roles held by self or others; Leaders do leadership*	Shifting order of consciousness • Take on more complex leadership challenges	Joining with others in shared tasks/goals from positional or non-positional group roles • Need to learn group skills; *New belief that leadership can come from anywhere in the group (non positional)*	Seeks to facilitate a good group proces whether in positional or non-positional leader role • Commitment to community of the group; *Awareness that leadership is a group process*		Active commitment to a personal passion; • Accepting responsibility for the development of others, • Promotes team learning • Responsible for sustaining organizations		Continued self development and life long learning, • Striving for congruence and internal confidence
Changing View of Leadership	"Other people are leaders; leaders are out there somewhere"	"I am not a leader"	"I want to be involved"	"I want to do more"	"A leader gets things done"	"I am the leader and others follow me" or "I am a follower looking to the leader for direction"	"Holding a position does not mean I am a leader"	"I need to lead in a participatory way and I can contribute to leadership from anywhere in the organization"; "I can be a leader without a title"; "I am a leader even if I am not the leader"	"Leadership is happening everywhere; leadership is a process; we are doing leadership together; we are all responsible"	"Who's coming after me?"	"I am responsible as a member of my communities to facilitate the development of others as leaders and enrich the life of our groups"	"I need to be true to myself in all situations and open to grow"	"I know I am able to work effectively with others to accomplish change from any place in the organization", "I am a leader"

Table continued

Five-Year Data of Distribution of Institute Participants by College or Unit: Number and Percentage

Stages

Key Categories	1 Awareness	Transition	2 Exploration/Engagement	Transition	3 Leader Identified — Emerging	Immersion	The Key — Transition	4 Leadership Differentiated — Emerging	Immersion	Transition	5 Generativity	Transition	6 Integration/Synthesis
Developing Self	Becomes aware of national leaders and authority figures (e.g. the principal)	• Want to make friends	Develop personal skills • Identify personal strengths/weaknesses • Prepare for leadership • Build self confidence	Recognize personal leadership potential • Motivation to change something	Positional leadership roles or group member roles • Narrow down to meaningful experiences (e.g. church, sports, clubs, yearbook, scouts, class projects)	Models others • Leader struggles with delegation • Moves in and out of leadership roles and member roles but still believes the leader is in charge • Appreciates individual recognition	Recognition that I cannot do it all myself • Learn to value the importance/talent of others	Learn to trust and value others and their involvement • Openness other perspectives • Develop comfort leading as an active member • Let go control	Learns about personal influence • Effective in both positional and non-positional roles • Practices being engaged member • values servant leadership	Focus on passion, vision, and commitments • Want to serve society	Sponsor and develop others • Transforming leadership • Concern for leadership pipeline • Concerned with sustainability of ideas	Open to ideas • Learning from others	Sees leadership as a lifelog developmental ocess • Want to leave things better • Am trustworthy and value that I have credibility • Recognition of role modeling to others
Group Influences	• Uninvolved or "inactive" follower	• Want to get involved	• "Actve" follower or member • Engage in diverse contexts (e.g. church, sports, clubs, class projects)	Narrow interests	• Leader has to get things done • Group has a job to do; organize to get tasks done	• Involve members to get the job done • Stick with a primary group as an identity base; explore other groups	• Meaningfully engage with others • Look to group resources	• Seeing the collective whole; the big picture • Learn group and team skills	• Value teams • Value connectedness to others • Learns how system works	• Value process • Seek fit with organization vision	• Sustaining the organization • Ensuring continuity in areas of passion/focus	• Anticipating transition to new roles	• Sees organizational complexity across contexts • Can imagine how to engage with different organizations

Continued on next page

Table continued

Five-Year Data of Distribution of Institute Participants by College or Unit: Number and Percentage

Stages

Key Categories	1 Awareness		2 Exploration/Engagement		3 Leader Identified		The Key	4 Leadership Differentiated			5 Generativity		6 Integration/Synthesis
		Transition		*Transition*	*Emerging*	*Immersion*	*Transition*	*Emerging*	*Immersion*	*Transition*	*Generativity*	*Transition*	
Developmental Influences	Affirmation by adults (parents, teachers, coaches, scout leaders, church elders)	• Observation/watching • Recognition of adult sponsors	• Affirmation of adults • Attributions (others see me as a leader)	• Role models • Older peers as sponsors • Adult sponsors • Assume positional roles • Reflection/retreat	Take on responsibilities	• Model older peers and adults • Observe older peers • Adults as mentors, guides, coaches	• Older peers as sponsors and mentors • Adults as mentors and meaning makers • Learning about leadership	• Practicing leadership in ongoing peer relationships	• Responds to meaning makers (student affairs staff, key faculty, same-age peer mentors)	• Begins coaching others	• Responds to meaning makers (student affairs staff, key faculty, same-age peer mentors)	• Shared learning • Reflection/retreat	• Recycle when context changes or is uncertain (contextual uncerrtainty), enables continual recycling through leadership stages
Changing View of Self with Others	Dependent				Independent Dependent		Interdependent						

Source: Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella., & Osteen, 2006. Reprinted with permission from the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), Washington, DC: Center for Higher Education.

who holds a positional leadership role); next as non-positional, and finally as a process.

The six sequential stages are also presented as a theoretical model designed to illustrate the aspects of the grounded theory categories and how they are evidenced at each stage in LID. (See Table). Each stage ends with a transition in which the student realizes that previous ways of thinking no longer apply, or there is recognition that the student is acting differently and makes meaning of that transition. Growth occurs in the transitions (Komives, et al, 2006).

Below is a description of the LID stages:

• In the awareness stage (stage one), leaders are perceived as distant others, particularly external adults, such as the president of the United States or the principal at elementary school. There is no awareness that the student is personally engaged in leadership or is a leader. Adults are seen to be supports and sponsors and begin getting the student involved in meaningful tasks and in group experiences.

• In the second stage, exploration/engagement, the student becomes interested in joining groups largely to form friendships. This stage helps students build relationship skills and explore interests; and they begin to become aware that groups have purposes and that there are roles people engage in within groups. Through such activities as church choir, the neighborhood swim club, scouts, or student council, they become aware that older peers are also leaders and increasing seek to engage in groups meaningful to them.

• As they develop more interests, they emerge into stage three, leader identified, aware that groups are comprised of leaders and followers. They are aware of the hierarchical nature of organizations. The leader is identified as the one doing leadership and others, as followers, are perceived to be working to support the leader to get the job done.

Many students experience a major transition out of stage three to see that groups are comprised of people who are interdependent on each other. This may happen when they learn the language of leadership and see its complexity, when they realize no one leader could accomplish everything in a group working independently, begin to value true teamwork, or when they experience a stage of consciousness shift to understanding interdependence (Kegan, 1994). The final three leader identity development stages are all grounded in interdependence – a state of being that recognizes the interdependency with others to accomplish goals.

• In stage four, leadership differentiated, students begin to see leadership as something also exhibited by those in non-positional roles (i.e., group members are doing leadership) and begin to view leadership as a process among those in a group or organization. At this stage students see they can be "a" leader even if they are not "the" leader. In this stage, positional leaders view themselves as facilitators of group work. They use terms like "we" instead of feeling in charge of the group and engage in shared or participative leadership valuing teamwork. In this fourth stage, students also begin to see that their groups or organizations are actually part of a bigger system of groups, and they see the interconnections among groups.

• As leadership identity develops further, students engage in the fifth stage, generativity, in which they engage with a passion and commitment to accomplish contributions that will last beyond their time in the organization. Further, they seek to develop the leadership in newer members in the group. They take on mentoring and teaching roles for younger or newer group members. Personal integrity and acting on personal values emerges as critical to their relationships with others.

• In the sixth stage of the model, synthesis/integration, students have incorporated the identity of being a leader into their self-concept. They know they are doing leadership when working in groups even when not in a positional leader role and feel confident of their ability to handle the contextual uncertainty of group settings (Komives, et al., 2005). As one student summarized, "I see leadership now as an everyday thing."

It is important to note that leadership identity development does not appear to be an age-based model; students developed through the stages at different paces (Komives et al, 2005). It is illuminating that students had to move past seeing leadership as the behavior of a person in a hierarchical setting to truly embrace leadership as a process evidenced by any individual in the group. The transcendent importance of recognizing one's interdependence with others is critical to developing a relational leadership identity and could be enhanced by meaningful group experience. For applications of leadership identity development in curricular and co-curricular settings see Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, Owen, and Wagner (2009) and Komives et al. (2006).

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) includes high school experience in a national study of college student leadership outcomes (Dugan et al., 2008). This study is designed to study the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996). A revised version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) (Tyree, 1997) was the foundation of the MSL (Dugan, Komives, & Owen, 2007). The SRLS was originally a 103 item instrument developed to measure the social change model and further factor analyzed to reduce the measure to fewer items while preserving scale validity and reliability. The revised SRLS used in the MSL is a 68 item measure using a Likert response option (strongly disagree [1] to strongly agree [5]) on items of knowledge, attitude, and skill on the values in the social change model. The MSL also includes a measure of self-efficacy for leadership (a measure of one's confidence in one's leadership ability) developed by the research team using a four point scale ranging from Not at All Confident (1) to Very Confident (4). In this cross sectional study, students were asked to retrospectively assess their various attitudes, involvements, and leadership behaviors prior to coming to college.

Over 150 postsecondary institutions responded to an email invitation in the summer of 2005 to be considered to participate in the national study. Participating campuses (n=52) were selected to represent diversity by region, size, and institutional type (e.g., community colleges, liberal arts) in public and private settings. Within those institutions, campuses with 4,000 or fewer students surveyed all their undergraduates and campuses over 4,000 drew a random sample drawn to study specifications (Dugan & Komives, 2007). In 2006, the MSL was administered in a web format on 52 college campuses to 155,716 students with responses from 56,854 participants reflecting a 37% response rate. This study used data from 50,378 students who completed 90% of the core instrument. Detailed procedures and methodology used in this national study can be found in Dugan, Komives and Segar (2008) and Dugan and Komives (2007).

Separate hierarchical multiple regressions were calculated for each of the seven outcome measures in the social change model, a

measure of openness to change, leadership efficacy, including their corresponding retrospective pretests. After controlling for inputs (e.g., gender, race), regression blocks included pre-college involvements, retrospective pre-test measures for each dependent variable, and a block of college involvement experiences including college service, leadership training, frequency and breadth of organizational involvement, and frequency of holding college positional leadership roles. VIF indicated no issues of multicollinearity.

Each of the MSL regression models was significant (p ≤ .01) and generally explained between 27% to 42% of the overall variance for the social change model of leadership development values and leadership self-efficacy. Student demographic characteristics and pre-college experiences explain the largest portion of the variance (10%-21%) on the leadership outcomes (Dugan, Komives, & Owen, 2007). Following the adage that past behavior predicts future behavior, student pre-college behaviors predict a great deal of their college leadership outcomes.

Key findings are that college students were highest in their capacity for commitment and congruence and lower in citizenship and openness to change. Women were significantly higher than men on seven of the eight social change model of leadership development measures, yet men were significantly higher than women in their leadership self-efficacy. It would appear women have developed more leadership skills than men, but men feel more confident in their ability to be leaders (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

After controlling for demographic characteristics such as gender and race, high school involvements, and pre-test measures, the college experience that contributed most to leadership development in college was the frequency of engaging in discussions of sociocultural issues such as political, religious, social change, and other diverse views outside the classroom with peers. It may be that these kinds of discussions helped students see the points of view and positionality of others contributing to their ability to work with others more effectively in organizational settings. Ensuring students have similar experiences in high school may have the same influence.

MSL found that those who participated in college organizations (once to much of the time) or in any training activities (once to much of the time) were significantly higher in all leadership outcomes than those who were never involved; however, breadth of involvement (total number of organizations one participated in) was negatively related to leadership outcomes. Experiences in the college environment (i.e., involvement, leadership training) explained between 7%–14% of the variance on the seven social change model leadership outcomes (Dugan, Komives, & Owen, 2007). Faculty mentoring and college engagement in community service made significant contributions to growth in college leadership outcomes. Although the MSL did not inquire about mentoring in high school, the LID findings may indicate that mentors (adult sponsors and peer mentors) would matter to high school students' leadership development as well.

Studying college seniors would be useful as a longitudinal examination of the role of high school experience. Using this same MSL data set, a study of approximately 14,000 men and women as college seniors revealed that 10% of the variance in college leadership self-efficacy was significantly explained by high school involvements such as holding leadership positions in high school organizations. High school varsity club involvement was a significant positive predictor for men but not women. However, for both men and women, frequency of involvement in high school organizations was significantly

negatively related to college leadership self-efficacy (Dugan, Cilente, Calizo, & Komives, 2009). It is notable that holding positional leadership roles for high school students did contribute to their continuing leadership self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), but that being engaged in too many organizations does not contribute to developing efficacy for leadership. Perhaps students who are stretched too thin develop less. It would be useful to determine if being highly involved in fewer organizations may be warranted.

Conclusion

High school leadership experiences play a central role in contributing to college leadership outcomes. The two studies reported in this article show the importance of both high school organizational membership and the nature of leadership roles in the development of a relational leadership identity. Adult mentors and sponsors, peer role models, meaningful involvement, and purposeful reflection all contribute to the development of a leadership identity. National data from the Multi-Institutional Study for Leadership affirmed the importance of high school positional role experience in college leadership efficacy; however, high school educators might consider the nature of student group and organization membership. Breadth of involvement in both high school and college where the student may be spread too thin did not seem to develop leadership outcomes. The important role of high school experiences should be a consideration in studies of college student leadership and other college outcomes.

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Leadership, Gender, and Politics: Political Perceptions and Participation of Young Female Voters in a Presidential Primary

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and Kelly Winfrey**

The political arena, where historically women in the United States have been under-represented, provides an important laboratory for examining leadership and gender via the candidacy of now Secretary of State Hilary Rodham Clinton, who in 2008 was the first woman to run competitively for the Democratic presidential nomination.[1] This study sought to better understand if young women differed in their levels of perceived information about and interest in such an election, and if such perceptions influenced their political knowledge, interest, and engagement. For this study, we drew from Campbell and Wolbrecht's (2006) theory of a "role model effect," which proposes that the presence of "visible female role models" (p. 233) increases the likelihood that young women will indicate higher levels of political involvement, which includes both attitudes toward politics and behaviors leading toward political engagement.

The "Role Model Effect" Theory

Scholars argue that the presence of female leadership in the political realm of our society is important in order to maintain a stable, representative, open democratic government and a government which citizens can trust to provide equal opportunities (Atkeson, 2003; Dolan, 2006; Thomas, 1998; Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997). Further, they draw connections between those in representative positions and those whose voices are more likely to be represented in terms of policy, as well as to whom the government is more responsive. In terms of the more specific role of leadership, Atkeson

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(2003) argued that "the lack of political women leaders sends a cue to women citizens that they are more subjects than citizens, fit to be led, but not to lead, and better ruled, than rulers" (p. 1043).

The lack of gender parity in leadership in the political arena has led scholars to more carefully consider the extent of women voters' participation in the political arena, calling forth new lenses through which to study the phenomenon, such as role model effect theory (Campbell & Wolbrecht, 2006), the symbolic representation hypothesis (Dolan, 2006), and the contextual cue theory (Atkeson, 2003). All three seek to determine whether the presence of a female candidate running for office encourages increased political engagement among women.

Depending upon the design of the study, recent research suggests that there is mixed support for the role model effect theory. According to Hansen (1997), the presence of women on a major party ballot correlated with an increase in women voters' political awareness, self-confidence, and proselytizing. Furthermore, this relationship was strongest when the female candidate addressed women's concerns. Atkinson (2003) and Verba et al. (1997) found that the presence of a female candidate in races for higher offices correlated with an increase in political knowledge among women. In these studies, women demonstrated greater knowledge of the candidates, interest in the campaign, and propensity to discuss politics. Campbell and Wolbrecht's (2006) study of adolescent females also offered some support with anticipated political engagement increasing at two points in time, 1985 and 1993, that coincided with Geraldine Ferraro's vice presidential nomination in 1984 and the heralded "Year of the Woman" in 1992. However, in Dolan's 2006 study of the U.S. House and Senate races between 1990 and 2004 that included female candidates, she concluded that among the female candidates' constituents there was no clear pattern of influence across party, level of office, or competitiveness of the race although there were some individual instances of influence.

Until 2008, we were unable to examine the impact of a viable female candidate competing for the nation's most visible office, the presidency.[2] Presidential primaries and elections carry extensive media coverage and hence increase the likelihood of greater information dissemination about a viable female candidate. In 2007, Hillary Rodham Clinton (hereafter referred to as "Clinton") launched her bid for the Democrat party's presidential nomination, and in 2008 she became the first woman to win a major party's presidential primary. Clinton's candidacy lasted through June of 2008 when she suspended her candidacy and Barack Obama secured the necessary number of ballots at the Democrat National Convention.

Method

This section includes two hypothesis and three research questions that guided the study; describes data sources and subjects; explains the survey instruments used in the study; and provides an explanation of the limitations of the study. Using role model effect theory, we sought to explore the political participation of a sample of young female voters, ages 18-33, in 2008 in comparison to that of a sample in 2006, a year that did not feature a woman in the presidential race.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

For interpersonal communication competence, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H1: The 2008 sample of young female voters will be more likely to feel competent to communicate interpersonally about politics during the 2008 primary campaign than subjects in the sample used for the 2006 midterm election.

The role model effect theory asserts that the presence of a viable female candidate seeking a political leadership position would be more likely to engage female citizens. Specifically, the candidate would encourage greater levels of gender identification, particularly in a race where opponents are male. We therefore advanced our second hypothesis:

H2: The 2008 sample of young female voters will be more likely to identify with their gender during the 2008 presidential primary than subjects in the sample used for the 2006 midterm election.

We also sought to measure young female's political participation through their levels of perceived knowledge and interest, and their perceptions of being qualified to participate in politics. As such, we posed the first research question:

RQ1: Will the 2008 sample of young female voters have higher levels of perceptual capability during the 2008 presidential primary than subjects in the sample used for the 2006 midterm election?

Because voter cynicism has been linked to political participatory behaviors (Kaid, McKinney, & Tedesco, 2000) as well as to perceptions of knowledge (Banwart, 2007a), we posed our second research question:

RQ2: Will levels of political cynicism differ between the 2008 and 2006 samples?

In order to inquire as to whether traditional gender-related leadership traits were assigned differently due to a role model effect in the 2008 election, we posed our third research question:

RQ3: Will subjects in the 2008 sample rate Hillary Clinton differently on gender-related leadership traits than her male opponent, Barak Obama?

Data Sources and Subjects

The data analyzed in this study were collected at two points in time from two different samples by means of surveys of female college students in the authors' undergraduate communication and political science courses. The 2006 data were collected from 210 students in October 2006 during the fall midterm election cycle. (See Appendix A for the 2006 survey instrument.) In 2008, data were collected from 170 students in March during the presidential primary election. (See Appendix B for the 2008 survey instrument.)

The median age for participants was 20 years of age in 2006 and 19 and 2008 while the mean was 20 years of age in both samples. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 33 in 2006 and 18 to 28 in 2008. The samples were fairly similar with regard to political party identification. In 2006, the composition of the sample was 36% Democrat, 41% Republican, and 23% independent/other; while in 2008, it was 42% Democrat, 38% Republican, and 21% independent/other. Approximately, three-fourths of participants in each sample identified themselves as registered to vote, specifically 78% in 2006 and 77% in 2008. Sample composition by race/ethnicity was also similar. (See Table 1.)

Table 1
Composition of Samples by Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage by Year	
	2006	2008
African American	5.0	5.0
Asian/Pacific Islander	3.0	5.0
Native American	0.5	0.0
Spanish/Hispanic Origin	2.0	2.0
White (Non-Hispanic)	87.0	87.0
Multiracial	1.0	1.0
n	210	170

Instruments

Both surveys asked participants to provide demographic data and to answer questions concerning their political interpersonal communication; gender identification; perceptual capability; cynicism levels; and political identification. In addition, in the 2008 survey, participants completed questions on leadership image.

Political Interpersonal Communication Competence. To examine participants' perceptions of their competence to engage in interpersonal communication about politics, both surveys began with the 15-item Political Interpersonal Communication (PIC) Index (Banwart, 2007b). (See Part I of each survey.) These items measured participants' cognitive engagement, perceived relevance, and perceived knowledge. The index achieved acceptable Cronbach's alpha levels for reliability in 2006 (.87) and 2008 (.84).

Gender Identification. For gender identification, the surveys employed a 4-item measure developed by Schmitt, Branscombe, Kobrynowicz, and Owen (2002). (See Part III of the 2006 survey and Part II of the 2008 survey.) Participants responded to a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree) with higher scores indicating stronger identification with one's gender group. The scale was reliable for 2006 (α = .96) and 2008 (α = .96).

Perceptual capability. To measure participants' perceptual capability regarding the political election–that is, how likely were they to feel they were informed, interested, and qualified to participate–the participants self-reported on three items. (See Part IV of the 2006 survey and Part III of the 2008 survey.) A five-point scale accompanied each item. The items were summed and mean scores calculated for the perceptual capability scale. The items achieved acceptable Cronbach's alpha levels for reliability in 2006 (.80) and 2008 (.82).

Cynicism. The eight scale items (a-j) used to measure the cynicism toward politics were adapted from the National Election Survey conducted by the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center; this variation has been used in prior research studies examining cynicism during political election cycles (see Kaid et al., 2000; Kaid & Tedesco, 1999; McKinney & Banwart, 2005). (See Part II of the 2006 survey

and Part IV of the 2008 survey.) Items asked participants to rate their belief in their ability to influence politics, trust in politicians, and ability to understand politics, using a five-point scale (1=disagree strongly to 5=strongly agree). The items achieved acceptable Cronbach's alpha levels for reliability in 2006 (.75) and 2008 (.75), similar to that of previous research using the scale (Kaid, 2003; Kaid & Postelnicu, 2004; Tedesco & Kaid, 2003). The scores on the cynicism items were summed to create a mean cynicism score for each participant.

Leadership image evaluations. For the 2008 survey, twelve items were drawn from an instrument employing semantic differential scales to study political candidate image evaluations (see Kaid & Tedesco, 1999; Sanders & Pace, 1977; Tedesco & Kaid, 2003). (See Part V of the 2008 survey.) However, only eight were deemed specific to female and male leadership traits: honest, believable, sincere, friendly, qualified, successful, strong, and active (Bystrom et al., 2004). These eight items are equally representative of feminine leadership traits–honest, believable, sincere, and friendly–and masculine leadership traits–qualified, successful, strong, and active (Bystrom, Banwart, Kaid, & Robertson, 2004). A 7 point scale, indicated by the number of "spaces" on the semantic differential scale on the survey instrument, was used. Both scales produced high reliability for both candidates. Cronbach's alpha for the feminine image trait scale was acceptable for both candidates (Clinton= .91; Obama=.88) as was the masculine image trait scale (Clinton= .88; Obama= .87). The feminine and masculine semantic differential scales were then summed to create two candidate leadership image mean scores for each candidate.

Limitations

The use of the phrase "role model effect" does not suggest that this study was causal. In addition, the study faced four sampling issues: (1) Sampling was not random, and therefore results are not generalizable beyond the participants; (2) A different group of students was sampled in 2006 than in 2008 without use of a matched pairs methodology, limiting the ability to draw conclusions regarding differences in the two groups from statistical results; (3) The sample included political science students who may have had greater interest in elections and politics than a sample of students from other areas of academic study; and (4) The exclusive choice of college students for the samples is not representative of the range of education levels among the population of young female voters. Further, the study did not take into account the potential impact of the presence of the first viable African American candidate on political participation, particularly among younger voters.

Results

Political Interpersonal Communication Competence

A one-way between subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the three dependent variables, cognitive engagement, perceived relevance, and perceived knowledge. Election years served as the independent variables. No statistically significant differences were found. (See Table 2.) Therefore the hypothesis that the young female voters sampled in 2008 would feel more competent to communicate interpersonally about politics during the 2008 presidential primary campaign than those sampled for the 2006 midterm election was rejected.

Table 2
Political Interpersonal Communication Ratings: 2006 and 2008

Political Interpersonal Communication	Year			
	2006		2008	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Cognitive engagement	3.06	0.96	3.23	0.84
Perceived relevance	3.85	0.66	3.87	0.63
Perceived knowledge	1.98	0.63	1.94	0.60

Wilk's Λ = .989,
$F(3, 376)$ = 1.41,
p = .24.

Gender Identification

An independent sample t-test was conducted, and no statistically significant differences were found between female voters in 2008 (mean = 6.33, standard deviation = 1.10) and female voters in 2006 (mean = 6.37, standard deviation = 1.07), ($t (337)$ = .380, p = .70). Therefore, the hypothesis that young female voters would be more highly gender-identified during the 2008 presidential primary campaign was rejected.

Perceptual Capability

For the first research question, an independent samples t-test of mean scores was statistically significant. Therefore, we concluded that during the 2008 presidential primaries that survey respondents reported perceiving greater personal capability regarding the election (mean = 3.38, standard deviation = .923) than did respondents in 2006 (mean = 2.77, standard deviation = 1.03), ($t (373.99)$ = 6.07, $p < .001$).

Cynicism

For the second research question, an independent samples t-test of mean scores was statistically significant. We concluded that during the 2008 presidential primaries survey respondents were less likely to report they were cynical about politics (mean= 3.03, standard deviation = .641) than were females in 2006 (mean = 3.19, standard deviation = .609), ($t (378)$ = -2.46, p = .014).

Candidate Leadership Image Comparisons

For the third research question, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. The means and standard deviations for each candidate leadership traits are presented in Table 3. The results for the ANOVA indicated a statistically significant result (Wilk's Λ = .54, $F(3, 167)$ = 47.97, $p < .001$, multivariate $\eta2$ = .46).

Follow-up paired sample t-tests indicated statistically significant results for three of four pairs of leadership trait scores: (1) Clinton's

Table 3
Candidate Leadership Trait Evaluation

Gender Traits	Hillary Clinton		Barak Obama	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Feminine	4.24	1.45	5.08	1.28
Masculine	5.13	1.38	5.28	1.18

masculine leadership trait scores compared to feminine leadership trait scores; (2) Obama's masculine leadership trait scores compared to feminine leadership trait scores; (3) Obama's feminine leadership trait scores compared to those of Clinton; and (4) Obama's masculine leadership trait scores compared to those of Clinton. (See Table 3.) The mean score for Clinton on the masculine leadership trait scale (mean = 5.13, standard deviation = 1.38) was statistically significant and higher than her mean score on the feminine leadership trait scale (mean = 4.24, standard deviation = 1.45) ($t(169)$ = 11.70, $p < .001$). The mean score for Obama on the masculine leadership trait scale (mean = 5.28, standard deviation = 1.18) was also statistically significant and higher than his mean score on the feminine leadership trait scale (mean = 5.08, standard deviation = 1.28) ($t(169)$ = 3.48, $p = .001$). There was no statistically significant difference between their scores on the masculine leadership trait scale. However, the difference on the feminine leadership trait scale where Obama's score was higher than that of Clinton was statistically significant.

Conclusions

Although our findings indicated that young women participants were more engaged in the 2008 primary election, a result not surprising since voter interest in general is higher during presidential cycles than midterm cycles, support for an overall role model effect was mixed. Results did not indicate a statistically significant change in young female voters' assessment of their competence to talk about politics between 2006 and 2008. Because possessing knowledge about politics is strongly connected to engagement and active participation (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996; Kim, Wyatt, & Katz, 1999), and because earlier research has found a connection between a visible and viable female candidate and increased political discussion among young females (Campbell & Wolbrecht, 2006), such findings are surprising and may speak to the limitations of the samples. Our second hypothesis, predicting that young female voters would be more gender-identified during the 2008 presidential primary because of Clinton's candidacy, was also rejected. In both 2006 and 2008 the samples reported similar, high levels of gender identification. This mix of findings is intriguing and provides encouragement for future research in women voters' engagement and gender-identification as it relates to women candidates.

On the other hand, results indicated that participants perceived themselves as more knowledgeable, interested, and qualified to participate in the 2008 election. These findings are similar to those in prior research studying the effects of competitive female candidates in senate and gubernatorial races (Atkeson, 2003). Also, participants' cynicism decreased between 2006 and 2008. Interestingly, although young female voters have a history of voting in greater numbers than their male cohorts (Center for American Women and Politics, 2008b), they also have a history of relatively higher levels of cynicism (Banwart, 2007a) and report in lower percentages that it is important they influence the political structure (Center for American Women and Politics, 2008b).[3] Because cynicism is also linked to a likelihood to feel competent to communicate about politics (Banwart, 2007b), perhaps there are thresholds that need to be met in order for an influence to be evidenced in perceptions of political communicative competencies.

Since masculine traits historically have been considered by voters (in general) to be important for presidential candidates (Huddy & Terkildsen, 1993a; Lawless, 2004; Rosenwasser & Dean, 1989; Rosenwasser & Seale, 1988), it is interesting to note that there were no statistically significant differences between Clinton and Obama on how strongly they were perceived to exhibit masculine traits such as qualified, successful, strong, and active. However, Obama was perceived to possess higher levels of feminine leadership traits, such as honesty, believability, sincerity, and friendliness. These findings contrast with prior literature that suggest voters more often associate feminine traits with female candidates (Lawless, 2004; Huddy & Terkildsen, 1993b; Rosenwasser & Seale, 1988) and view them as unimportant. As more women seek to break the presidential glass ceiling, scholars should continue examining where that balance between necessary evidence of feminine traits and required evidence of masculine traits lies in the voters' minds, the role that the level of office plays in the voters' analysis, and to what extent violations of a social role incongruity can ever be overcome. The answers to such questions promise to offer important insights into the dynamic of gender, politics, and leadership.

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Endnotes

[1] To date, all presidents serving the United States have been male, and only 2% of those serving in the U.S. Congress since 1789 have been women (Center for American Women and Politics, 2008a). Granted, there has been a steady increase of women elected to Congressional seats over the past three decades, from 3% in 1979 to 23.9% in 2009 (Center for American Women and Politics, 2009b). Currently, eight women are state governors, and 29.3% of state legislators are female (Center for American Women and Politics, 2009a). Yet, these levels remain far below gender parity.

[2] We acknowledge Elizabeth Dole's short run for the Republican presidential nomination has been noted as the first time that a woman was considered to be a viable presidential candidate (Heith, 2001; Heldman, Carroll, & Olson, 2005; Seelye, 1999). However, she relinquished her bid in the fall of 1999, well before the presidential primaries began.

[3] It should be noted that voting is not the only political engagement activity to which cynicism has been linked. Political cynicism in general has been linked to political efficacy (Verba et al., 1997), feeling less able to understand politics (Bennett, 1997; Bystrom et al., 2004), and perceived levels of knowledge (Banwart, 2007a).

Appendix A
Survey 2006[1]

Survey ID Number (below, place the ***first 2 letters of your last name***, and ***last 4 digits of your student ID #***):

_____   _____   _____ _____ _____ _____   _____
(first 2 letters of last name)   *(last 4 digits of your student ID #)*   *(dial#)*

I. The following statements concern your feelings about communication with other people. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I stay up to date on current politcal topics and issues.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have developed opinions on political issues and topics.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am comfortable starting a discussion about political issues with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I know enough information about politics and political issues to talk about them with people I don't know very well.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy talking about political issues and topics with others who don't think like me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I have a good understanding about politics and political issues.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I do not understand how politics and political issues relate to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Before participating in a conversation about politics I should be knowledgeable about the issue.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am interested in politics and political issues.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Politics and political issues are just about conflict and disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Politics and political issues have a direct influence in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I would not discuss political affairs with someone unless I knew something about the issue.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Politics and political issues just don't impact me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am likely to take an equal share in the conversation when discussing politics and political issues.	1	2	3	4	5
15. It is important that I obtain news about a political topic from several sources before I will talk about it with others.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A continued

II. Following are some feelings about politics and politicians. For each one, please circle whether you strongly agree, agree somewhat, have no opinion, disagree somewhat, disagree strongly.

a. Whether I vote or not has no influence on what politicians do.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

b. One never knows what politicians really think.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

c. People like me don't have any say about what the government does.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

d. Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that a person like me can't really understand what's going on.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

e. One can be confident that politicians will always do the right thing.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

f. Politicians often quickly forget their election promises after a political campaign is over.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

g. Politicians are more interested in power than in what the people think.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

h. One cannot always trust what politicians say.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

III. Using a scale of 1– (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree), please circle the number that corresponds to your response to the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a. I value being a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. I am proud to be a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. I like being a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. I believe that being a member of my gender group is a positive experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix A continued

IV. How informed do you think you are about the upcoming election? (please mark an "x" the space on the scale below that most closely represents your response)

Very well informed   5:____:____:____:____:____:I   **Very uninformed**

How interested would you say you are in the upcoming election?

Very interested   5:____:____:____:____:____:I   **Not interested at all**

I consider myself well-qualified to participate in politics.

Strongly Agree   5:____:____:____:____:____:I   **Strongly Disagree**

V. Now we'd like to get a little information about you:
Please mark one:

_____ male   _____ female

Age _____

Which of the following best represents your ethnic background (circle one):

(1) Asian or Pacific Islander   (2) Non-Hispanic White (Caucasian)   (3) African-American

(4) Spanish or Hispanic origin   (5) Multi-racial or mixed race   (6) Native American

(7) Other (*name*): _____

Are you registered to vote? (circle one)   (1) YES   (2) NO

When thinking about politics and government, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

| *very conservative* | *somewhat conservative* | *moderate* | *somewhat liberal* | *very liberal* |

Which of the following best represents your political party affiliation? Check ONLY ONE of the following:

(1) _____ Democrat   (2) _____ Republican   (3) _____ Independent/Unaffiliated

(4) _____ Other (*name*): _____

Thinking of the party affiliation that you have just identified, what is the strength of your affiliation?

strong :____:____:____:____:____: weak

Thank you.
The survey is now complete.
Please check with one of the group facilitators to check out.

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Appendix B
2008 Survey [1]

Survey ID Number (below, place the **first 2 letters of your last name**, and **last 4 digits of your student ID #**):

_____   _____   _____ _____ _____ _____
(first 2 letters of last name)   *(last 4 digits of your student ID #)*

I. The following statements concern your feelings about communication with other people. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1. I stay up to date on current politcal topics and issues.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2. I have developed opinions on political issues and topics.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3. I am comfortable starting a discussion about political issues with my friends.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4. I know enough information about politics and political issues to talk about them with people I don't know very well.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5. I enjoy talking about political issues and topics with others who don't think like me.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6. I have a good understanding about politics and political issues.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7. I do not understand how politics and political issues relate to me.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8. Before participating in a conversation about politics I should be knowledgeable about the issue.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
9. I am interested in politics and political issues.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10. Politics and political issues are just about conflict and disagreement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. Politics and political issues have a direct influence in my life.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12. I would not discuss political affairs with someone unless I knew something about the issue.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
13. Politics and political issues just don't impact me.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. I am likely to take an equal share in the conversation when discussing politics and political issues.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
15. It is important that I obtain news about a political topic from several sources before I will talk about it with others.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Appendix B continued

II. Using a scale of 1– (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree), please circle the number that corresponds to your response to the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a. I value being a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. I am proud to be a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. I like being a member of my gender group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. I believe that being a member of my gender group is a positive experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please respond to each of the questions below regarding your perception of the upcoming election and participation:

III. How informed do you think you are about the upcoming election? (*please mark an "x" the space on the scale below that most closely represents your response*)

Very well informed   5:____:____:____:____:____:1   **Very uninformed**

How interested would you say you are in the upcoming election?

Very interested   5:____:____:____:____:____:1   **Not interested at all**

I consider myself well-qualified to participate in politics.

Strongly Agree   5:____:____:____:____:____:1   **Strongly Disagree**

IV. Now, following are some feelings about politics and politicians. For each one, please circle whether you strongly agree, agree somewhat, have no opinion, disagree somewhat, disagree strongly.

a. Whether I vote or not has no influence on what politicians do.

    Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

b. One never knows what politicians really think.

    Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

c. People like me don't have any say about what the government does.

    Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

d. Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that a person like me can't really understand what's going on.

    Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

Appendix B continued

e. One can be confident that politicians will always do the right thing.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

f. Politicians often quickly forget their election promises after a political campaign is over.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

g. Politicians are more interested in power than in what the people think.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

h. One cannot always trust what politicians say.

Strongly Agree   Agree Somewhat   Have no Opinion   Disagree Somewhat   Disagree Strongly

V. Next, please evaluate the candidates on each of the scales below. For example, if you think the candidate is very pleasant you would check the UNPLEASANT-PLEASANT scale as follows:

UNPLEASANT: _____:____:____:____:____:____:__X__: PLEASANT

On the other hand, if you think a candidate is very unpleasant, you would rate them as follows:

UNPLEASANT: __X__:____:____:____:____:____:____: PLEASANT

If you think the candidate is somewhere between the two extremes, check the space that best represents your reaction on the scale. If you feel you have no reaction to a particular candidate on any one scale or if you're unfamiliar with the candidate, check the middle space on the scale (as illustrated) to indicate your neutrality.

: ____:____:____:__X__:____:____:____:

Barack Obama

UNQUALIFIED: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: QUALIFIED

UNSOPHISTICATED: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SOPHISTICATED

DISHONEST: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: HONEST

BELIEVABLE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNBELIEVABLE

UNSUCCESSFUL: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SUCCESSFUL

ATTRACTIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNATTRACTIVE

UNFRIENDLY: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: FRIENDLY

INSINCERE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SINCERE

CALM: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: EXCITABLE

AGGRESSIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNAGGRESSIVE

STRONG: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: WEAK

INACTIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: ACTIVE

Appendix B continued

Hillary Clinton

UNQUALIFIED: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: QUALIFIED

UNSOPHISTICATED: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SOPHISTICATED

DISHONEST: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: HONEST

BELIEVABLE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNBELIEVABLE

UNSUCCESSFUL: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SUCCESSFUL

ATTRACTIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNATTRACTIVE

UNFRIENDLY: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: FRIENDLY

INSINCERE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: SINCERE

CALM: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: EXCITABLE

AGGRESSIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: UNAGGRESSIVE

STRONG: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: WEAK

INACTIVE: _____:____:____:____:____:____:____: ACTIVE

VI. If the election for this race were held today, based on what you have seen for whom would you vote?

[rotate]

      Hillary Clinton _____

      Barack Obama _____

VII. Now we have just a few more questions about you:
Please mark one:

        _____ male   _____ female

Age _____

Which of the following best represents your ethnic background (circle one):

(1) Asian or Pacific Islander   (2) Non-Hispanic White (Caucasian)   (3) African-American

(4) Spanish or Hispanic origin   (5) Multi-racial or mixed race   (6) Native American

(7) Other (*name*): _____

Are you registered to vote? (*circle one*)   (1) YES   (2) NO

When thinking about politics and government, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

| *very conservative* | *somewhat conservative* | *moderate* | *somewhat liberal* | *very liberal* |

Appendix B continued

Which of the following best represents your political party affiliation? Check ONLY ONE of the following:

(I) _____ Democrat   (2) _____ Republican   (3) _____ Independent/Unaffiliated

(4) _____ Other (*name*): _____

Thank you.
The survey is now complete.
Please check with one of the group facilitators to check out.

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Commentary

Preparing School Principals for a Diverse and Changing World

Gilbert Davila

The mission of the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University is to develop "knowledgeable, ethical, caring, inclusive leaders for a diverse and changing world" (School of Leadership Studies, 2009). As a former elementary and secondary school principal, the author understands and appreciates the imperative to prepare elementary and secondary school leaders for a diverse and changing world where: One out of three children nationwide is from an ethnic or racial minority group; one out of seven speaks a language other than English at home; and one out of fifteen was born outside the United States (Miramontes, Nadeau, & Commins, 1997). In less than two decades, half of students in public schools will be nonwhite and Hispanic, with half of those students speaking a language other than English on their first day of school (Garcia, 2001). Further, by 2050, it is projected that the historical non-Hispanic, white majority in the United States will have decreased from over two-thirds of the population to slightly more than half (Marx, 2002).

Classrooms will be filled with students who are trying to bridge multiple languages and two cultures. Many principals, new and experienced, may not feel that they are fully prepared to lead their schools into this new world (Herrity & Glassman, 1999). To that end, the purpose of this commentary is to provide them with the means to navigate successfully the challenges of meeting the educational needs of children from an increasingly diverse student population. In sum, principals must become inclusive leaders and change agents who are interculturally competent.

Inclusive Leadership

To create an environment where all students' educational needs are met, the traditional role of the principal as the ultimate school authority must shift to one of inclusivity. Inclusive leadership is the intentional and ethical practice of leadership actions and processes in a manner that affirms the identity of others, acknowledges their needs, and actively includes all constituents (Karim, Shoop, & Finnegan, 2007). As an inclusive leader, the principal becomes effective through influence rather than through control and has the confidence to set

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high expectations and continuously uphold the school's vision. Leadership remains a critical element. However, the potential for exercising leadership goes beyond an individual, extending throughout the system, thereby fostering greater participation (Miramontes et al., 1997).

The Principal as Change Agent

Meeting the learning needs of diverse students will require changes in business as usual. Principals and their teams–teachers, support staff, parents, students–need to urge each other to do something different, to change teaching methods, to adopt new curricula, and to allocate funding differently (Cole, 1995). Efforts to break the ineffective, continual cycle of curriculum rewrites has resulted in an emphasis on the study of change dynamics in public schools. Change and restructuring are not synonymous. Restructuring implies more than change. It implies a type of change – a positive, purposeful evolution from an ever-maturing vision of what is good in public education (Keefe, Valentine, Clark, & Irvin, 1994).

Helping to frame the principal's role in directing and supporting change is *Leading Learning Communities: Standards for What Principals Should Know and Be Able to Do* (NAESP, 2001) which identified six standards that principals should understand and practice:

- Lead schools in a way that places student and adult learning at the center.
- Set high expectations and standards for the academic and the social development of all students and the performance of adults.
- Demand content and instruction that ensure student achievement of agreed upon academic standards.
- Create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals.
- Use multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify, and apply instructional improvement.
- Actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success.

These standards are crucial in helping all students achieve academic success. Principals can no longer simply be administrators and managers – they must be leaders in improving instruction and student achievement. In addition, leadership must be a balance of management and vision (NAESP, 2001). Principals must function as instructional leaders and change agents (Fullan, 1998; Hargreaves & Fink, 2004). They must be able to articulate to parents, staff, and students the practices, rationales, and methodologies best suited for diverse student populations.

Some principals, however, may find themselves challenged by their lack of understanding and knowledge of the needs of culturally diverse students. Building a strong knowledge base of instructional methodologies and cultural norms can be instrumental in shaping the instructional program for culturally diverse students (Herrity & Glasman, 1999). According to Miramontes and coauthors (1997), principals who have a growing culturally diverse student population need to enhance their own professional development to include knowledge in the following areas:

- Rationale and theory of bilingual education
- Second language acquisition
- Bilingual/English as a Second Language instructional methodology
- Organizational models and scheduling for bilingual instruction

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- Cultural norms and diversity issues
- Pragmatics related to diversity

Principals who are knowledgeable about these areas and the best instructional practices for culturally diverse students will find themselves better prepared to lead the challenging school environments (Gonzalez, Huerta-Macias, & Tinajero, 1998).

Principals are central to protecting individual learners and to ensuring that learning occurs in an environment consistent with constitutional commitment to equity and equality (Middleton, 1999). Building leaders are in a unique and powerful position, and play a critical role in effecting restructuring – the positive, purposeful move from aspiration to reality – necessary in our schools to best serve culturally diverse students. Building leaders are faced with difficult personal and professional questions regarding diversity, and they must be prepared to make decisions that will positively impact culturally diverse students. This suggests that building leaders would benefit from opportunities such as structured diversity training for their personal multicultural development.

Intercultural Competence

Employing concepts from cognitive psychology and constructivism, Bennett (1993) created a framework of six stages of increasing sensitivity to cultural differences. The underlying assumption of the model is that as an individual experiences cultural differences he or she becomes more competent in intercultural relations (Morris, 2008). The stages move from ethnocentrism, where an individual's own culture is experienced as central to reality in some way, to ethnorelativism, where an individual's culture is experienced in the context of other cultures (Menken, 2000).

Menken proposed that principals assess their school environment by using Bennett's six stage model, as follows:

1. Denial. Does not recognize cultural differences.
2. Defense. Recognizes some differences but sees them as a negative.
3. Minimization. Unaware of projection of own cultural values; sees own values as superior.
4. Acceptance. Shifts perspectives to understand that the same "ordinary" behavior can have different meanings in different cultures.
5. Adaptation. Can evaluate others' behavior from their frame of reference and can adapt behavior to fit the norms of a different culture.
6. Integration. Can shift frame of reference and also deal with resulting identity issues.

It is important to note that someone may be at different points on the continuum depending on the diversity dimension in his or her school environment. For example, an individual may be at the acceptance stage with regard to race and at the defense stage with regard to cultural differences.

In the first stage, denial, an individual denies that cultural differences exist. This belief may reflect either physical or social isolation from people of different cultural backgrounds (Morris, 2008).

In the second stage, defense, an individual acknowledges the existence of certain cultural differences, but because those differences are threatening to his or her own reality and sense of self, the individual constructs defenses against those differences (Morris, 2008). It is in this stage that principals see the cultural differences. However, differences from themselves or the norms of the school environment are perceived negatively. Differences are seen as a threat to the centrality and "rightness" of their own value system. In this stage, principals may fail to communicate effectively with the changing population. The task they must set for themselves is to become more tolerant of differences and to see the basic similarities among people of different cultures.

In the third stage, minimization, individuals try to avoid stereotypes and even appreciate differences in language and culture, but they still views many of their own values as universal, rather than viewing them simply as part of their own ethnicity (Bennett, 1993). The task building principals must assume at the third level is to learn more about their own culture but avoid projecting that culture onto other people's experience. This stage is difficult to pass through when one's cultural group has vast and unrecognized privileges when compared to other groups. This problem is sometimes so invisible that a principal may be mystified when representatives of ethnic minorities consistently withdraw from collaborative activities. However, little improvement in the quality of education can be expected if the building leader and staff are below the third level of intercultural sensitivity.

In the fourth stage, acceptance, an individual recognizes and values cultural differences without evaluating those differences (Bennett, 1993). It is this stage that requires building leaders to shift perspective, while still maintaining their commitments to values. The task in this stage is to understand that the same behavior can have different meanings in different cultures. In order for collaboration to be successful long-term, this stage of intercultural sensitivity must be reached (Adams, 1999).

In the fifth stage, adaptation, individuals develop and improve skills for interacting and communicating with people of other cultures. A principal in this stage is able to take the perspective of another culture and operate successfully within that culture. This ability usually develops in a two-part sequence (Bennett, 1993). It requires that the principal know enough about his or her culture and a second culture to allow a mental shift to the value schema of the other culture. It also requires an evaluation of behavior based on the second culture's norms, not the norms of the individual's culture of origin (Morris, 2008). In other words, the key skill at this stage is the ability to look at the world "through different eyes."

The final stage of the Bennett model is integration. Individuals in this stage not only value a variety of cultures but also constantly define their own identity and evaluate behavior and values in contrast to and in concert with a multitude of cultures. Building leaders who rise above the limitations of living in one cultural context integrate aspects of their own original cultural perspectives with those of other cultures (Morris, 2008). By implementing an assessment of one's knowledge base with Bennett's model, building leaders will know where they are on the continuum and how they might create a vision for restructuring a program.

It must be noted that in order for a person, in this case a principal, to be bicultural and operate as a liaison between cultures, it is not sufficient for him or her to be from an ethnic minority. In fact, if a person who looks like a member of an ethnic minority group has adopted Anglo American values and identifies with mainstream culture, he or she may be a poor choice to represent their culture of origin in collaborative efforts (Garcia, 2001).

Culturally competent principals can create a decision-making process within the community of the school that will be sensitive

to the needs of all students. The principal will understand that a student's ethnic or cultural background does not necessarily indicate the student's values or explain behaviors; rather, it alerts the school leadership team to possible areas of miscommunication that need to be resolved. The principal is able observe more carefully where that individual fits on a continuum of values compared to his or her ethnic group. This is the capacity principals need in order to create change and develop best practices for educating a diverse student population.

The role of the building principal is critical. Instead of being a top-down manager, the building principal must assume a role of instructional leader in a shared decision-making process (Garcia, 2001). True leaders in a school become effective through influence rather than through control, and they must have the confidence to set high expectations and continuously uphold the vision of their school (Miramontes et al., 1997). As more and more ownership is taken, many more leaders emerge, and ultimately most staff will be able to clearly and strongly support and articulate the vision.

Conclusion

All students have the right to a quality education. At the same time, future principals will likely face the challenge of educating the most diverse student body since the turn of the 20th century. To ensure that all students are academically successful, principals need to become inclusive, interculturally competent change agents. Principals play a pivotal role in the operation and organization of all activities of schools – instructional, curricular, assessment, and community relations. Through their actions as well as their words, they express their institution's mission. Furthermore, principals take responsibility for articulating and creating a shared commitment to that mission in the school and community. Inclusive, interculturally competent principals publicly state their belief that all students are entitled to a high quality education. The principal's knowledge of and sensitivity to diverse student populations and their educational needs must be paired with the ability to act as change agents if principals are to achieve the goal of improving life in schools for all students. Although there are many avenues for principals to develop these capacities, a major focus of leadership coursework for aspiring principals needs to be the development of intercultural awareness and sensitivity.

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Commentary

Student Selection Criteria in Undergraduate Leadership Education Programs

**Daniel B. Kan
and Rebecca J. Reichard**

Citizens expect and deserve effective leadership in both the public and private sectors. In today's 24/7 information access society, high profile leaders have become a source of constant scrutiny by citizens and the media demanding results and integrity on par with the enormous salaries and fringe benefits these individuals receive. In fact, recent research has demonstrated that a change in leadership had a small, but positive impact on important job attitudes and work outcomes (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, in press). Managers as well are responsible for important leadership variables such as employee satisfaction, productivity, and stress (Fiedler, 1996). The societal need for and observed importance of the effectiveness of leadership leads to the question, where can we find more and better leaders? In this commentary, we describe the origins of leadership, the importance of undergraduate leadership programs in developing future leaders, and the criteria for selection of students into higher education institutions and leadership programs. We conclude the article with recommendations for undergraduate leadership education administrators.

Origins of Leadership

When examining the development of effective leaders, one must consider the nature versus nurture debate (Avolio, 2005). Can the qualities that make an effective leader be taught, or is every person born with a certain propensity to lead? The answer to this age-old

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question has major consequences for the approach by which potential leaders are identified, selected, and developed. If effective leadership is due to genetic factors, then the solution is finding, identifying, selecting, and fast-tracking naturally born leaders. For example, the traditional "Great Man" approach argues that an effective leader is recognized by specific traits, such as cognitive ability, determination, sociability, self-confidence, and integrity (Northouse, 2006). This approach might be justified if one looks at families throughout history who are composed of individuals who achieved high levels of success as leadership, such as the Kennedy family. The problem with this argument is that often members of the such families not only have genetics in common, but also a similar environment, such as high socioeconomic status or exceptional education opportunities.

More recent research on the heritability of leadership takes the form of adoption studies and twins studies, including both the study of identical twins reared apart and the study of fraternal and identical twins reared together. Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhang, and McGue (2006) defined and measured leadership in terms of the various formal and informal work role attainment of individuals in work settings. The authors found that for 238 male identical twin pairs and 188 fraternal twin pairs reared together, the proportion of variance due to genetic influences on the leadership role occupancy scale was 0.30. Similar findings were found in a study using 89 fraternal and 107 identical female twin pairs conducted by Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, and Krueger (2007). These results indicated that around 70% of the variance in leadership emergence and effectiveness could be attributed to non-genetic factors, namely developmental experiences. In sum, genetic traits alone do not explain who ultimately has the propensity to lead. Rather, leadership potential is a blend of factors with environment playing a dominant role.

Developing Leaders

The emphasis on effectively leading companies has opened a market for leadership development programs. The monetary investment in leadership development is substantial. In 2003, seventy-five percent of large-scale companies spent around $8,000 dollars per person on individual leadership development programs, including 360-degree feedback, mentoring, and goal setting, all aimed at outcomes such as increasing productivity and reducing employee turnover (Murphy & Riggio, 2003). In 2007, twelve billion dollars were spent on leadership programs in the United States (Avolio & Hannah, 2008). Many of the nation's best-selling books focus on developing effective leadership skills (Riggio, 2008). Individuals have the option to develop leadership abilities through a variety of tools, including corporate training, executive coaching, and higher education.

With such a strong emphasis on developing leadership ability, many higher education institutions are giving more attention to the development of the next generation of leaders. Even before their senior year, students are searching for top-tier jobs through career service centers and on-campus recruitment by major corporations. Many colleges are well aware of the fact that some corporations screen for leadership ability and may even base starting salary on leadership and skills assessments. In order to serve both hiring organizations and graduating students, many colleges are now emphasizing leadership development.

Preliminary research has begun to demonstrate the importance of undergraduate leadership education on increasing future leadership potential (Hall, 2005). In Hall's evaluation of three separate

institutions, it was found that higher leadership confidence, combined with an undergraduate leadership experience, produced an increase in future leadership behaviors. Further, in a multi-institutional study of 52 undergraduate leadership education programs, Komives (in press) found that students in these programs identify as leaders.

Selecting Potential Leaders

With the success of graduates directly influencing the college's reputation and ranking (*U.S. News and World Report*, 2009), leadership propensity should be an important selection criterion in higher education institution's undergraduate admissions processes, but is it? For most colleges and universities, selection is done through a paper application containing only a sliver of the student's academic and personal achievements (Ayman, Adams, Fischer, & Hartman, 2003). Due to the nature of admissions, evaluating leadership potential is unfortunately limited. On occasion, the institution will request an interview; however, most do not require them due to time sensitivity and lack of resources. When conducted, the interviews usually consist of a conversation that takes place in less than an hour and focuses on personality (College Board, 2009). Also, the subjective process of evaluating interviews as part of admissions decisions was found to have minimal power towards predicting future college performance (Gehrlein, Dipboye, & Shahani, 1993). Even the basic practices of influencing others, which mildly evaluates candidates on their leadership potential (McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2002), are not typically stressed. Thus, a limited amount of information on leadership potential is gathered or used in the admission process. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2004) argued that if administrators in higher education wanted to maximize the chances of admitting those most likely to be our best future leaders, they must expand the range of criteria considered for college admissions, including criteria that evaluates aspects of leadership potential such as measures of social skills and motivation which better predict student outcomes of undergraduate leadership education programs.

It may be easier to consider a wider range of leadership predictors when selecting for a leadership development program from a pool of students already admitted to a university or a college within the university. The evaluation of the developmental readiness of applicants for undergraduate programs should go beyond academic achievement and prior leadership experience indicators and include the following psychological factors; learning goal orientation; developmental efficacy; and motivation to lead. Students with a learning goal orientation for leadership, or those who seek knowledge from tasks regardless of the outcome or result, may be well suited to an undergraduate leadership education program (Reichard, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Similarly, high levels of leader development efficacy or a belief that one can improve as a leader, may be important (Reichard, 2006). A student's level of motivation to engage in leadership behaviors should also be considered when predicting success in an undergraduate leadership program. Students may be motivated to lead for a variety of reasons including what Chan and Drasgow (2001) referred to as affective-identity motivation to lead; or the student may simply enjoy leading. Alternatively, students may choose to lead after weighing the costs and benefits of leading, referred to as a noncalculative motivation to lead. Finally, students may lead because they view leadership as their responsibility; that is, leading is expected of them (social-normative motivation to lead).

Conclusion

The need for more and better leaders is ever more apparent in our society and the world. Based on the knowledge gained from research indicating that leadership is both born and made, we discussed criteria for selection of potential leaders for admission into college and undergraduate leadership programs. We recommend that higher education administrators develop intentional and valid selection procedures to identify those students who can benefit most from leadership development. When doing so, efforts should be made to ensure that the selection battery includes valid and reliable measures which supplement academic achievement indicators and self-report measures of leadership.

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