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**THE IMPACT OF
COCURRICULAR EXPERIENCE
ON
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT**

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

by

Deborah H. White

December 1998

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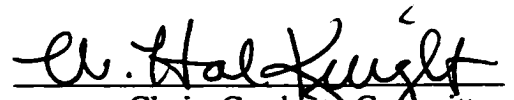
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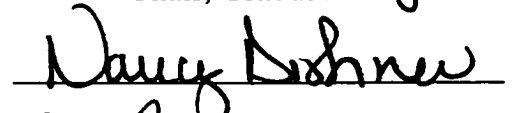
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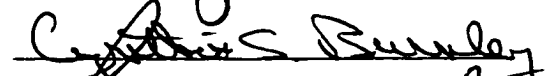

met on the

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The committee read and examined her dissertation, supervised her defense of it in an oral examination, and decided to recommend that her study be submitted to the Graduate Council, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis.


Chair, Graduate Committee



Signed on behalf of
the Graduate Council


Dean, School of Graduate Studies

Advisor: Dr. W. Hal Knight, Ph.D. Associate Dean, College of Education

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF COCURRICULAR EXPERIENCE ON LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

by

Deborah H. White

This study investigated the impact of cocurricular activities on leadership development. College graduates recognized as community leaders were selected from three communities in Georgia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Through survey and interview techniques, the leaders were asked to reflect on high school and college experiences that led to their development as leaders. The study included a focus on differences in experiences of male and female leaders.

Developmental influences such as family, mentors, global experience, and the cocurricular activities engaged in during high school and college were explored. Title IX had no impact on increased opportunities for women in this group of participants, as only two female participants were in college in 1972. Results of the study include the importance of mentors, the strength of high school teachers and cocurricular activities, and the weak influence of college cocurricular activities. High school activities most frequently reported to have influenced leadership development include student government, group music experiences, athletics, and church youth groups. College activities with the most impact include resident hall living and internships. Gender differences in experiences include women's lack of identified community mentors and the importance of a college internship experience for women. Opportunities for men's participation in sports in high school and college as well as their descriptions of community mentors provided different learning experiences for men.

Recommendations include a call to higher education to develop a more comprehensive and integrated approach to leadership education. Teaching mentoring skills to future K-12 education professionals as well as college faculty and administrators is recommended to higher education. Student Affairs preparation programs have a role to play in training future professionals how to plan meaningful leadership learning opportunities for students on campus and through distance education. Applying the best practices in experiential education will move college cocurricular activities to a higher level in achieving student learning outcomes. Accreditation bodies are also called to include such criteria in the evaluation of leadership education programs. The community leaders in this study offered leadership development advice to college students including becoming lifelong experiential learners, giving back to community, and preparing broadly for the future.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

This is to certify that the following study has been filed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University.

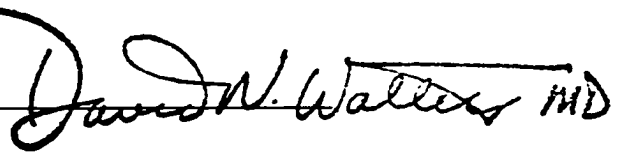
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Principal Investigator Deborah H. White

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Date Submitted November 20, 1997

Institutional Review Board, Chair

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "David N. Walters MD". The signature is written in a cursive style and is positioned to the right of the text "Institutional Review Board, Chair".

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of this dissertation was made possible by the love and support of several special people. To my husband, Blair, and daughters, Katie and Sarah, who put up with too many quiet summers and weekends at home as well as several high-stress moments, I say a very special thanks. To my grandmother, Katherine, who told me I could be anything I wanted to be. To many friends and relatives who thought they would never hear from us again, thank you for your patience.

To my staff in the Office of Student Life and Leadership, thank you for carrying the load this past summer. The gift of time was critical to this process. To Linda Dietz and my colleagues in the Division of Student Affairs, your words of encouragement were a comfort. To Bettylene Franzus, a fellow ELPA student, who “rescued” me in a personal time of crisis -- my heartfelt thanks. Without your kindness, I would not be writing this acknowledgment.

To my committee, Drs. Burnley, Dishner, and West, and my chair, Dr. Hal Knight, thank you for your guidance, enthusiasm, and patience. To Drs. Sally Lee and Ronnie Gross, I appreciate your work and advice as auditors, and fellow travelers on the doctoral path. And to Denise Hensley, so many thanks for your work in transcribing interviews, typing the survey, and reformatting the APA style tables.

I can't believe the big “D” is finally done!

Debbie White

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Colleges and universities have long identified as part of their mission the education of America's future leaders (Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Komives, 1996). McIntire (1989) noted that the earliest colleges in America were founded to develop citizen-leaders for the future survival of its democratic governance. College student life in the mid 1600s was dominated by religion. In that era, higher education provided for the growth and leadership development of its students based on prescriptions of the faculty and the religious influence of the college (Roberts, 1981). According to Roberts, "Debate, oratory and dramatics were the primary cocurricular activities which provided avenues for leadership growth in these early years of American higher education" (1981, p. 8).

One of the earliest examples of student self-governance came when Thomas Jefferson established a student court at the University of Virginia (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958). Other attempts at student self-governance were tried in Illinois, Maine, and Wisconsin during the late 1800s, according to Brubacher and Rudy, as students desired more control over their behavior on campus and more opportunities for leadership (1958). Roberts (1981, p.9) noted, "During this time came the bifurcation of academic and cocurricular life due to the scholarly orientation of the faculty and its disdain for discipline and the extra curriculum." At the turn of the century, students participated extensively in clubs, fraternities, publications, student government, and intercollegiate

athletics. Leadership opportunities abounded and have continued to grow (Roberts, 1981). During the latter part of the 20th century, the cocurriculum on many college campuses expanded beyond these traditional activities. Students now serve on committees to recommend policies which impact the entire campus, and student governing bodies exist in many divisions of the university. Honor societies, religious groups, political groups, music ensembles, special interest groups, campus ambassadors, service clubs, organizations celebrating diverse cultures, professional societies, academic interest clubs, art and literary societies, sports clubs, campus recreation, and Greek letter social organizations all provide opportunities for student leadership development. Many campuses engage in formal leadership development programs that range from cocurricular skill training workshops to formal credit courses to a total student development model (Roberts, 1981; Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Burns, 1995; Astin, 1996). More recently, the Dwight D. Eisenhower Leadership Program, funded by the Higher Education Amendments of 1992, initiated the development of a prototype for the understanding and teaching of leadership skills to young Americans (Knobloch, 1996). This initiative encouraged institutions of higher education across the United States to reevaluate their leadership education programs, and to improve or to establish methods for teaching the art of leadership to college students.

Although scholars agree that the cocurriculum contributes to valued outcomes from college (Kuh, 1995), little research has been completed relating specific learning outcomes from student involvement in cocurricular programs. (Astin, 1984; Howard, 1986; Kuh, 1995). Astin's work in the development of involvement theory (1984)

focused on the student's investment of physical and psychological energy in learning activities both inside and outside the classroom. His inclusion of the cocurriculum helped legitimize the learning that takes place outside the classroom (Astin, 1984; Kuh, 1995). Involvement theory places a higher value on what the students do in the learning process as opposed to what the faculty teach. As Kuh (1995) described cocurricular learning activities, he noted that they are predominantly student-directed. Students choose to be involved in cocurricular activities -- they are not a requirement for graduation. As such, motivating students to invest their time in cocurricular learning was identified as a key institutional priority (Kuh, 1995).

Leadership has been studied by many, including historians, psychologists, sociologists, and business management specialists (Bass, 1990; Clark & Clark, 1990; DeMott, 1995; Roberts, 1981). Such studies have looked at leadership styles, behaviors, systems, perspectives, and cultures, and at the ways in which leaders are influenced by situations, power, class, gender, race, and society (Bass, 1990). Many books have been written on the specific skills and styles needed to be a successful leader in society. These popular books espouse determinations of leadership habits, attitudes, values, ethics, visions, and practices identified to make a successful leader (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Covey, 1989; DePree, 1992; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Volumes have been written on the subject of leadership. In Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, Third Edition, Bass (1990) summarized the long history of leadership theory and research; however, what is missing in the content of these sources is a plan for leadership education (DeMott, 1995; Komives, 1996; Roberts,

1981). Key questions related to how leadership is learned remain unanswered. Thomas A. Williamson, President of the Psychological Corporation (1982-88) said, "We need to investigate how we teach these traits and behaviors and thereby increase the pool of qualified candidates for leadership roles" (Clark & Clark, 1990, p. ix). Researchers at AT&T studied two groups of college students to determine what characteristics might predict future success as managers (Howard, 1986). Cocurricular experiences for both groups and campus leadership experiences for one group correlated significantly with predictions of attaining middle management positions. Howard (1986) concluded that too little attention has been paid to the cocurriculum in relation to the preparation of future executives and leaders. She also stated that, "To clarify causality in the development of managerial competence, longitudinal research needs to be pursued both in the college environment and in employing organizations" (p. 551). Kuh (1995) studied the cocurricular experiences of college seniors to identify those that students associated with their learning and personal development. Kuh (1995) reported that the "category of out-of-class experiences mentioned at least once by the greatest number of students as instrumental to some aspect of their learning and personal development was specific leadership responsibilities" (p. 129). Leadership roles in college were ranked among the top three experiences for skill development in the workplace (Kuh, 1995). McCauley (1986) reported in her literature review that no systematic body of research looked at experiences important to the development of a manager's career. McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) reported that early leadership experiences were a key influence on the career development of chief executives, and that most had held

leadership positions in high school and college. Much is yet to be learned about student learning outcomes from involvement in cocurricular experiences, particularly as they relate to leadership development (Kuh, 1995).

Traditionally, women have been under-represented in leadership positions in business, industry, education, and government (McQuarrie, 1994; Morrison, White, Van Velsor, & The Center for Creative Leadership, 1992; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1995; Roberts, 1981). In fact, women were not represented in significant numbers in the ranks of management until the 1970s (Velsor & Hughes, 1990). Although recent gains have seen women achieving mid-level management and leadership positions, the numbers of women at the top levels of leadership have shown little increase (Chliwniak, 1997; Morrison, & Von Glinow, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1989). Roberts (1981, p.119) described four reasons for this inequity:

- 1) Socialized values that emphasized the inappropriateness of women's aspirations for, and attainment of, leadership positions.
- 2) Insufficient assistance extended to women to enable them to overcome years of sex-role stereotyping.
- 3) The existence of formal processes that perpetuate sex inequity and sex-segregated jobs, including preparation, recruitment, hiring and promotion practices.
- 4) Lack of supplemental leadership skill training programs for women to compensate for sex inequity.

Velsor and Hughes (1990) found reasons similar to those Roberts (1981) identified to explain the business world's difficulties in promoting women to executive positions:

- 1) People find it difficult to overcome perceptions concerning the effect of gender on performance.
- 2) Organizations in general tend to focus on talent identification rather than on learning and development.

3) There may be differences between men and women in how learning occurs or in what is learned from experience. (p. 1)

Benokraitis (1997, p.11) defines these same behaviors as “subtle sexism, the unequal and harmful treatment of women that is typically less visible and obvious than blatant sex discrimination.” The reasons for its lack of visibility are the social and cultural norms that filter the perspective of society.

Until the late 1970s, the samples used in most research studies on management and leadership were all male (Powell & Butterfield, 1984). Early management consultants ascribed to Taylor’s “scientific management” theory, which promoted a masculinized role of the logical, unemotional analyst (Kanter, 1977). Traditional leadership roles in business, the military, and government were blocked by laws, religious beliefs, and cultural expectations placed upon women (DiMona & Herndon, 1994). Historically speaking, there were few women in traditional leadership roles to study until after World War II. Additionally, in every census year from 1900 to 1970, employed women were concentrated in traditional female occupations such as education, social service, and staff support positions, while holding only two percent or less of lower to mid-level management positions (Kanter, 1977). The success of the women’s suffrage movement in the United States in 1920, followed by women entering the workforce during World War II, as well as international role models like Eleanor Roosevelt slowly instigated a change in women’s expectations (DiMona & Herndon, 1994). During the 1950s, women were entering college in increasing numbers, and by the 1980s, higher education statistics showed the majority of college students to be women (DiMona & Herndon, 1994). In the 1960s and 70s, success for women was

redefined to include career in addition to the roles of wife and mother. In that period equal opportunity laws and affirmative action policies helped women gain access to career fields formerly closed (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992).

In the first half of the 20th century, many traditional leadership development opportunities for adolescents and young adults had either restricted membership to white males or limited opportunities for women and other minorities. Before Title IX was passed as part of the 1972 Education Amendments, men's and women's college leadership societies were separate, and support for women's athletics was sparse to say the least. Since 1974, coveted memberships in male-only collegiate societies, such as Omicron Delta Kappa, Blue Key, Alpha Phi Omega, and Phi Beta Kappa, opened for women. However, achieving equity for women in athletics after the passage of Title IX continued to be tested and redefined through years of court cases. In some cases, the variety of women's competitive sports as well as coaching positions and scholarships began to approach a level to meet the needs of college women ("National Collegiate Athletic Association reports," 1977). Typical female paths of collegiate study included disciplines such as nursing, education, social work, and other helping professions (Kanter, 1977), and the curriculum in these avenues of study did not include leadership development. In addition, community organizations like the Rotary refused to admit women until a 1987 Supreme Court decision forced open membership in this and similar service organizations (DiMona & Herndon, 1994). Other examples of inequity for women in leadership development opportunities include: the Boy Scout's Eagle Award has existed since the organization was incorporated in the United States in 1912,

while the Girl Scouts Gold Award only began in 1980; the U.S. military recently (1970s and 80s) permitted women to attend the military academies and to work in combat positions; and Little League teams did not accept girls as members, nor did community recreation leagues create teams for girls and women until after Title IX became law. In the 1970s, "Equality for Women" was the catch-phrase, the Equal Rights Amendment was on the legislative agenda, and new federal legislation such as Title IX, forced open opportunities for women in athletics as well as membership in "male only" honor societies and professional associations. However, by the 1980s, women hit a "Glass Ceiling" as they became mid-level managers and leaders in business and education (Morrison, et. al., 1992). Opportunities increased and 1992 was called the "Year of the Woman," producing the largest number of women elected to public office in United States history. Women began to break through more and more barriers as they became elected, promoted, and hired to lead the country's institutions and organizations (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992).

Historically, higher education has set its mission to include leadership education for students. Experiential learning opportunities through the cocurriculum have been identified as common methods for colleges to teach leadership. History has also shown that women have not had equivalent learning opportunities on campuses or in the communities. What cocurricular learning experiences were successful in teaching leadership? What programs, courses, and other college experiences also contributed to this "training ground?" Are the college cocurricular experiences for women different from those of men?

Purpose of the Study

Institutions of higher education are in a constant mode of identifying their graduates who have great accomplishments and who hold positions of leadership. These alumni are held up as role models for current students and as evidence to the public that the institution is accomplishing its goals (Roberts, 1997). How is higher education to know if, in fact, its leadership development efforts provided the learning experiences necessary for graduates to succeed? Roberts (1997) stated that higher education has assumed “that an educated person will inevitably engage in professional and community leadership upon graduation ... that students, through some serendipitous series of circumstances will simply ‘know’ how to engage in leadership” (pp. 1,3). Which cocurricular experiences are important to successfully prepare students for leadership roles? Do male and female college students select similar leadership learning experiences? This study seeks to describe how the college cocurricular experience impacts the leadership skills of men and women; how the similarities and differences in these college experiences impact men and women’s leadership opportunities; and how colleges and universities can better facilitate leadership education through cocurricular experiences for all students.

Setting and Methods

Male and female leaders within communities in Northeast Tennessee, Southwestern Kentucky, Northeast Georgia, and Southwest Virginia were identified and

asked to describe their high school and college cocurricular experiences. These college graduates were asked to relate their cocurricular experiences to their community/occupational leadership experiences. Subjects to be studied included those who graduated with at least a Bachelor's Degree from an accredited college or university. Selections of the men and women considered to be leaders were made by regional committees identified for their knowledge of regional community leaders. An initial survey of the potential leaders was conducted and included: demographic and parent information; current leadership involvement at work and in the community; and a list of their cocurricular involvement while in high school and college. After these data were collected, community leaders meeting the degree requirement, and completing the survey were interviewed. The interview process allowed the regional leaders to reflect on specific learning experiences that took place in their cocurricular education, and to relate these experiences to their development as leaders. Key collegiate cocurricular experiences that contributed to the growth and development of these individuals as leaders were identified and examined.

Research Problem

Questions which identify the kinds of collegiate cocurricular experiences graduates consider important to their development as successful leaders are the focus of this study; for example:

- 1) What cocurricular experiences did community leaders have in high school and college?

- 2) What kinds of mentor relationships, if any, evolved from these experiences?
- 3) What leadership skills did these experiences teach successful leaders?
- 4) What other experiences influenced the participants' leadership development?
- 5) How do the cocurricular experiences differ for the male and female participants in the study?

Tracking the sequence of these experiences was important to this research. As such, the study described the cocurricular paths taken by each subject from high school through college, and the leadership paths taken after college. The leadership paths and cocurricular experiences of the men and women identified as leaders in the regions were compared to note similarities and differences in opportunities, choices, education, and leadership roles.

Significance of the Study

Most educators strive to provide students with opportunities and experiences that lead to personal development and success. A 1996 study, conducted by the Center for Creative Leadership and the Jepson School of Leadership Studies, showed that the majority of leadership education programs in higher education were offered by Student Affairs Departments, and implemented at the undergraduate level (Howe & Freeman, 1997). Cocurricular learning opportunities in leadership have historically been, and continue to be, a significant part of the student affairs leadership education strategy (Kuh, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 1991; Roberts, 1997). The results of this study will provide educators and students with a description of the cocurricular experiences of

current leaders which resulted in enhanced leadership skills and personal development. Better understanding of the collegiate leadership learning experiences explored by this study will allow for intentional planning for leadership development in higher education. Regarding the development of leadership potential among students in higher education, Roberts (1997) stated that, "...we have espoused its importance but have exerted relatively little direct effort to address it" (p.13). Using this information, educators can create an intentional curriculum for leadership learning experiences. Identification of the cocurricular experiences and "training grounds" of current leaders will help future leaders establish and better navigate their learning paths. Understanding the choices men and women make in these cocurricular experiences will provide educators with the means to improve the leadership education experience through the curriculum. Analyzing the data for gender differences in these experiences could influence program designs, and create a more level "learning field" for men and women.

Operational Definitions of Terms

Having a common definition of "leadership" and "leaders" is key to the success of this study. According to Miriam and Kenneth Clark (1990, p.20), "Leaders are like heroes and creative persons - we only know who they are after the act of leadership, of heroism, or of creativity." They noted that, "Many a study of leadership was a study of promotability, or of management committee opinion, rather than leadership" (p. 20). Definitions of the following terms are adopted from the work of Clark & Clark (1992,

pp 2 & 3).

“Leadership is an activity - an influence process - in which an individual gains the trust and commitment of others and without recourse to formal position or authority moves the group to the accomplishment of one or more tasks.”

“Leaders are people, humans with all their strengths, weaknesses, and special traits. They are people who are persuaded to accept extra responsibilities in the workplace or in the community, persons who seek out a position of advantage to promote progress toward valued goals, individuals who take charge in order to help a group achieve important objectives, people elected or appointed to a position who want to make a difference, and people who simply have a compulsion to get things moving.”

Hulbert (1993a, pp. 422-23) cited Hare-Mustin, and Marecek & Worrell in the development of a definition of “gender-role.”

“Gender, as distinguished from biological sex, is a social construction, reflecting a set of culturally shaped norms and behaviors. Gender represents a ‘sociocultural job description,’ providing ‘a structure around which behavioral expectancies, role prescriptions, and life opportunities are organized.’”

A leadership educator needs a framework to plan and deliver programs that meet the needs of students (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). The basis of this framework lies in the definitions of the terms “training,” “education,” and “development.” The delineation of these terms has implications for understanding the theories and methodologies of leadership program design in the cocurriculum. From Roberts’ classic book, Student Leadership Programs in Higher Education (1981, pp. 19 - 23), come these definitions:

“Training involves those activities designed to improve performance of the individual in the role presently occupied. A training activity is one which is concretely focused and is directed at helping the individual

being trained to translate some newly learned skill, or piece of information, to a real and immediate situation.”

“*Education* consists of those activities designed to improve the overall leadership competence of the individual beyond the role presently occupied. Education takes the form of providing information or enhancing abilities which may be helpful to the individual in his/her present role; however, the ultimate purpose is to provide generalizable theories, principles, and approaches which are relevant in a broader setting.”

“*Development* involves those activities designed to provide an interactionist environment which encourages development in an ordered hierarchial sequence of increasing complexity...changing perception of the world and situations which a person encounters are assumed to take place in an environment where there is interaction with other people and with one’s surroundings. The individual who reaches higher levels of developmental maturity is one who is able to more effectively and productively interact in a complex, diversified world.”

A summary from *Peer Project on Equal Education Rights* clarifies the content and purpose of Title IX. Many mistakenly believe Title IX applies only to women in athletics.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 states:

“No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.”

The act covers virtually all areas within an institution such as recruiting, admissions, counseling, financial aid, health care, insurance, employment, and extracurricular activities, including athletics. Its scope is not just limited to higher education. All educational institutions receiving federal monies must comply.

The term *cocurriculum* is a modification of the term extracurricular.

Extracurricular was used until the 1980s, when student affairs professionals determined that student development concerns were not “extra,” but an equally important part of a college education. The cocurriculum includes such learning experiences as: residence

hall programs, freshmen orientation courses, student organizations including Greek Life, campus programming, peer advisement programs, substance abuse education, student governance, leadership seminars and courses, wellness programs, and campus recreation.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study may result from the ongoing social and cultural changes that impact the nature of our student bodies, as well as the program changes made in the cocurriculum over the last thirty years. Higher education is not a static environment. Changes are constantly occurring both in the students attending the institutions and in the opportunities provided by the institutions. For example, prior to Title IX, women had little opportunity to play sports, however, today's social climate values female athletes and provides more opportunity for women to learn leadership skills in this arena. Another change in learning opportunities for higher education is the formalization of community service efforts in the curriculum. Called "service-learning," this recently developed program has only been available as a formal opportunity in the last decade. Because of changing opportunities for women, data were to be evaluated noting the pre- and post-Title IX year of 1974. Due to the limited numbers of younger (age 21-24) leaders nominated, this analysis was eliminated. Other limitations include asking the subjects to reflect and to recall experiences accurately, and not to avoid recalling negative learning experiences. Generalizability of the study was limited by the sample, consisting of baccalaureate degree graduates residing in

Northeast Tennessee, Southwestern Kentucky, Northeast Georgia, and Southwest Virginia. The residents of these regions may have unique characteristics which make direct application to other areas of the country inappropriate. As a qualitative study, however, the primary purpose was to generate descriptive data not definitive answers, regarding cocurricular experiences of men and women who are leaders in the community and relate it to their leadership development.

Summary

Governments, neighborhoods, businesses, community organizations and educational institutions demand a broad base of new leadership (Gardner, 1990; Daloz, Keen, Keen, & Parks, 1996; Roberts, 1997). What role does higher education play -- particularly through the cocurriculum? Understanding the role cocurricular experiences play in leadership education for men and women provides part of the picture in the overall understanding of leadership development. What other experiences occurring in a young person's development might affect leadership development? Investigating the role of parents, mentors, schools, athletics, and youth organizations provides another part of the picture. How do these developmental experiences differ for males and females? Analyzing the impact of gender differences brings information to strengthen the leadership education process for men and women.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of the literature was conducted to explore current theory related to the topic of this study. The first section of the literature is a review of the general history of leadership research, including a focus on gender issues in leadership development studies. The second section contains an exploration of the teaching of leadership by looking at the role of the family, K-12 education and youth activities -- including sports, higher education, military academies, and the workplace. This section also contains an emphasis on gender issues related to each of these key areas with a role in teaching leadership. The third section of the literature review includes an examination of career development and career path theories and the gender issues related to each. These three focused literature reviews provide a foundation for exploring the cocurricular leadership paths of college graduates.

The History of Leadership Research

Academicians and leadership practitioners have attempted to explain either the factors involved in the emergence of leadership or the nature of leadership and its consequences (Bass, 1990). Chemers (1995) divided the study of leadership into three periods: the trait period from the turn of the century to World War II, the behavior period from World War II until the late 1960s, and the contingency period from the late 1960s to present. Bass (1990) noted that, "Earlier theorists can be differentiated from more recent ones primarily by virtue of the fact that (1) they failed to consider the

interaction between the individual and situational variables, and (2) they tended to develop more comprehensive theories than do their more recent counterparts” (p. 6). Bass (1990) reviewed several reports (James [1880], Woods [1913], and Wiggam [1931]) that focused on the hereditary backgrounds and unique qualities of male military leaders and heads of state, who were looked to lead their fellow compatriots no matter the situation or circumstances. The “great man” theories dominated the eighteenth century when it was believed that heredity and intermarriage of the elite would produce the best leaders (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998). These “Great-Man” theories shaped history books and identified heroes. Great women were not considered to have abilities of leadership to pass on. This theory gave way to studies of leadership traits in an effort to identify qualities of leaders. Bird’s (1949) review of these studies evolved into a list of seventy-nine such traits. Early beliefs about leadership traits regarded them as inherited characteristics (Bass, 1990). Trait theories led to tests of leadership attributes and selection of future leaders for the military and industry based upon the recognition and desirability of these traits. Bass (1990) described other theorists (Mumford, [1909] and Person, [1928]), for example who looked at the “traits of a situation or crisis” in their studies of leadership. These became known as the environmental theories of leadership, which maintained that out of a crisis emerges the “person of the hour”— someone who was in the right place at the right time to oversee the inevitable. The leader became the man who possessed the skills necessary to solve the problems of the day. In other words, the situation determined the leadership qualities needed and, therefore, the leader for a particular

project or problem.

As it gained an increased following in the field of psychology, behaviorism played an influential role in the study of leadership. Lewin, Lippett, and White (1939) studied behaviors representative of three leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Chemers (1995) declared the importance of their work “in its definition of leadership in terms of behavioral style as well as its impact on later research” (pp. 84-5). This led to more behavioral research in the 1950s to identify what leaders do, and then, to a comprehensive study of leader behaviors, using a rating scale called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Using this questionnaire, Stogdill and Coons (1957) described two major clusters of behaviors. One grouping of behaviors centered around concern for followers and participative communication between followers and leaders. These were labeled “consideration” behaviors. The other grouping of behaviors centered on directiveness and goal-facilitation. These became known as “initiation of structure.” Chemers (1995) stated, “The identification of two reliable dimensions of leader behavior was a major step forward for the field of leadership. Unfortunately, attempts to relate the behavioral factors to groups and organizational outcomes proved quite difficult” (p. 85). At this point, researchers were still looking for the one “best” style of leadership.

In the 1960s, Fiedler (1964) studied what was later referred to as contingency theories of leadership. Contingency theories looked at both the situation and the behaviors of the leader with the expectation that there could be several successful behavioral styles and strategies in leadership. In other words, different situations call

for different leader behaviors. Fiedler used the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale in which peers evaluated their co-workers in group performance situations. The least preferred co-worker was more likely to receive a negative rating from a task-oriented person than from a relationship-oriented person. After several years of studies using the LPC, Fiedler determined that leadership style alone was not sufficient to explain leader effectiveness (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). Consequently, he developed a scale of situational control based on three measures of the situation: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. These measures combine to define situations of high, moderate, and low control. Extensive research using this model demonstrates varying degrees of success of each leader style in the three levels of situational control (Chemers, Rice, Sundstrom, & Butler, 1975). Contingency theory emphasized placing the leader in the situation for which he or she was best suited, and changing leadership styles or the situation to create a better fit.

Humanistic theories became more prevalent in the 1960s and focused on developing effective organizations by reducing conflict between the organization and the individual. Exploring this conflict, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (1966) contrasted people's resistance to the organization with people's motivation and need for responsibility. Argyris (1961) determined that the leader's need for task-orientation is inversely proportional to the maturity level of the group. The leader's concern for task or people consideration in relation to the maturity of subordinates impacted leader effectiveness. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964) provided a method for leaders to conceptualize their concern for people vs completion of task. Vroom and

Yetton (1973) developed a Normative Decision Theory which identified a range of decision-making styles. This model predicted which style produces an effective decision in different situations. Fiedler's and Vroom and Yetton's theories are similar, but Fiedler saw leader behavior originating from difficult-to-change personality characteristics, while Vroom and Yetton believed leaders can quickly change their behavior to fit a given situation (Chemers, 1995). Another contingency theory of leadership is the Path-Goal Theory. House (1971) looked at leader task and relationship orientations and how they influenced follower motivation and satisfaction. This theory predicted that the more difficult the path is to the goal, the more motivating and helpful a structured leader is. A relationship-oriented leader was the predicted preference by followers when the path to the goal was not difficult.

A closer investigation of the leader-follower relationship and these interactions led to distinguishing between transactional and transforming models of leadership. The "transactional" model of leadership emphasized the process of exchange between the leader and the followers. Leader effectiveness was increased through persuasive influence when the leader provides benefits to the followers (Hollander, 1978). The Leader Member Exchange Model showed the impact of the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower. This model revealed that a high-quality relationship resulted in higher expectations from the leader and more job responsibility and rewards for the followers (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (1998) refer to the 1970s as the beginning era of the "Reciprocal Leadership Theories" (p. 42). The relational and reciprocal nature

of the leader-follower interaction is what characterizes these theories. Transforming leadership, servant leadership, and followership are the major theories in this category. Burns (1978) saw the “transforming leader” as one who changes the outlook and behavior of followers because of a program of action that engages followers. Once engaged in the course of action, transformation occurs when the leaders and followers mutually support and raise each other to newer heights of motivation and morality. *In Search of Excellence* (Peters & Waterman, 1982) described examples of transforming leaders striving to excel beyond the typical work plan through highly motivated followers. Robert Greenleaf (1977) believed that a leader should seek to serve others first. By putting the needs of the common good above one’s own, a person transforms himself or herself into a leader. Followership theory defines followership as a role people assume in the leadership process (Kelly, 1992). The old industrial model of leadership viewed followers as inferior (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998). In reality, organizational success depends on the effectiveness of both followers and leaders. Studying the relational aspect of leadership prompted Komives, et al. (1998, p.26) to ask the question “Leadership for what purpose?” The relationship of the leadership role and goal to the individuals involved are important to consider. They explained that leadership roles are not all the same -- a military operation is quite different than a social change effort. Understanding the purpose and the context in which leadership is being studied is very important.

Clark & Clark (1990) identified future directions needed in the study of leadership. Research focused on the role of the follower, the influence of power, and

values-based leadership warrant further study. Clark & Clark (1990) mentioned other key factors, such as peer or subordinate evaluations of leaders, that should be factored into future studies of leadership. Modern day theorists understand leadership development to be a long-term process made up of a variety of experiences and challenges that are linked together and reinforce each other (Komives, Lucas, and McMahon, 1998; Van Velsor, McCauley, & Moxley, 1998). Drath (1998) approached the future of leadership development as a focus on developing leadership, not selected individual leaders. Understanding that many will undertake leadership roles in their lifetime, he believed in expanding the capacity of people to act as leaders when needed (Drath, 1998, p. 405). More research is needed on the development of leaders, and on relating leadership skills in youth as well as job and other experiences and their impact on learning leadership. Subjects and settings for leadership studies are not diverse, in fact, most are focused on business managers as subjects (Van Velsor, McCauley, & Moxley, 1998). Knowledge about all forms of leadership, including community organizations and volunteer groups, would be enhanced if there were more studies from the independent sector.

Gender Issues in Leadership

Gender differences in leadership styles have been the focus of several studies in the field of leadership since the 1970s (Moran, 1992). Although women have become part of the workforce in ever increasing numbers, they still do not hold a proportionate share of the top management positions. A 1991 report by the Feminist Majority Foundation noted that if the present rate of advancement continues, it would take

another 475 years for women to reach equality with men in the executive suite (Morrison, White, Van Velsor, & The Center for Creative Leadership, 1992). In a 1996 report from Catalyst, a nonprofit group working to advance women in business, only ten percent of corporate officers of the United States Fortune 500 companies for 1995 were women ("Survey Shows," 1996).

Are there gender differences in leadership styles, and do they relate to women's lack of success in reaching the top of the ladder? Eagly and Johnson (1990) provided a comprehensive look at differences in leadership styles of men and women in a meta-analysis of 162 studies on this topic. The authors found more gender differences in laboratory studies than in actual field settings. The authors attributed this stereotypical gender behavior to interactions among strangers in laboratory studies as opposed to field studies in the workplace where the subjects in the study would know each other. Although the studies were not universal in the finding, the strongest difference found was that women tended to adopt a more participative style, and men tended to adopt a more autocratic style. Eagly and Johnson speculated that these behaviors were related to men's acceptance as leaders, thereby, giving them greater freedom to act in a nonparticipative manner; whereas, women tend to allow input into their decision-making in order to gain acceptance as leaders. Another study showed differences in the self-described leadership performance of male and female leaders (Rosener, 1990). Men described themselves using characteristics of "transactional" leadership, viewing job performance as a series of transactions with subordinates -- exchanging rewards or punishments for services rendered. The male leaders used power that came from

organizational position and formal authority. Women described themselves using characteristics of “transformational” leadership, influencing subordinates to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group. Female leaders ascribed their power to personal characteristics such as charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work, or personal contacts. Rosener (1990) and Helgensen (1990) attributed women’s participative style to women’s lack of positional power in organizations. Because women tend to hold staff positions rather than line positions, they lack formal authority over others. Women tend to create “webs of inclusion” (Helgensen, 1990) as a strategy to work around the hierarchies of exclusion. In summary, regarding innate style differences, Schein stated that “the differences within each sex are greater than the differences between the sexes” (1995, p. 163). However, in response to male-dominated socialization and varied career paths, women have established different leadership strategies to assert their influence.

Shakeshaft (1989) conducted an in-depth study of the literature in one area of leadership -- educational administration. This study focused particularly on the history and development of women leaders in education. Unlike the conclusions reached in previously cited studies, Shakeshaft concluded that indeed there are differences in men’s and women’s leadership. “... we know that women school administrators have always existed and that there is a rich literature which indicates that men and women in educational administration have neither shared a history nor identical experiences” (p. 9). She lamented the difficulties in researching basic statistics about women’s progress in the field of educational leadership due to the “conspiracy of silence” since data was

not, and in many cases still is not, kept in such a way to facilitate tracking women in the administrative system. In the early 1900s, the few low-paying administrative positions held by women were lost to men. Century-old patterns of male dominance solidified beliefs about women in their lack of strength, discipline, and order, and resulted in barriers to administrative positions. Administrators, mostly male, were selected by school boards who tended to hire those most like themselves -- white, Protestant, middle-aged males. Board members did not want to invest time and money in employees with short-term commitments -- a common description given to women in all areas of employment due to concerns of marriage and child-rearing (Shakeshaft, 1989). Even professional education associations did not accept women, for example, Phi Delta Kappa was all male until the 1970s. Equal pay laws in education in the early 1900s were used to justify hiring males instead of females. The post World War II G.I. Bill gave men the financial support to return to college for more credentials, making them more "qualified" for school administrative positions. Added to that, the school system consolidation movement of the 1950s reduced the number of administrative positions available. The impact of this change was on women and minorities as white males rarely lost their jobs in such a move. Shakeshaft noted that the percentage of women administrators in the 1980s was less than the percentage of women in 1905. She found few biographies of women administrators resulting in small amounts of information about the lives of the women who occupied these positions. Even in fiction, accounts of women in leadership positions were less than flattering (Shakeshaft, 1989). Most information about women administrators came from surveys in

dissertation studies. The average woman educational administrator was married, a parent, a firstborn or only child, was most similar to her mother in educational attainment, and had a spouse with a college degree (Shakeshaft, 1989). Profile differences between male and female administrators included women who were: older than men in similar positions, less likely to be married, more likely to be a member of a minority group, from an urban background, more politically liberal, teachers for a longer period of time, and earning less for doing the same job as a man (Shakeshaft, 1989).

Astin and Leland (1991) embarked on a study in 1984 to profile and compare women leaders in education during the first two decades of the women's movement in the United States. Women leaders were divided into three groups based on their role in the leadership of the movement. There were *instigators* - visible change agents; *predecessors* - leaders just prior to the era of the movement (1960 - 80); *inheritors* - women who assumed leadership roles during the latter part of the era. The study documented the experiences and accomplishments of these women and provided data to develop a conceptual model for the future study of leadership. Interviews with these women revealed barriers and supports they encountered in their development as leaders. The only leadership role models for Predecessors were very powerful men. The era of Instigators brought connections with like-minded women in leadership. Through this collaborative work in service organizations and task forces, they shared their experiences with discrimination and social injustice and worked to eliminate such practices. The Inheritors also recognized the support they received from their women

role models and mentors, but they also noted support from male colleagues and wished to establish more men as partners in the women's movement. No matter the era, Astin and Leland reported the significance of support these women received to be successful in their leadership roles. Quotes from the women in this study related the importance of their influential role models. "The single most important teacher, a man, sharpened my intellectual faculties and encouraged me to go off to the other end of the world – helped me to put my Fulbright application together" (pp.48-49). Some women were lucky enough to have several mentors. "I can think of at least five people who taught me the ways of accomplishing my goals" (p.49). Some mentors may not have known that others looked at them in that way. "It wasn't that she helped me personally but that I saw in her a woman who was very visible and very dramatic, very busy, very important and doing good things" (p. 48). The definition of leadership played a key role for these women. Astin and Leland noted the collaborative, non-hierarchical nature of their leadership. These women did not seek to have power over others, but sought to work by empowering others. They faced difficulties in the family/career balancing act, in fact, many chose to forgo marriage and children. Others, who had worked this balance, did so with the assistance of very supportive husbands.

Perceptions and images of leaders and leadership influence how followers view their success. Language creates an image of leadership that equates it to "maleness" (Bass, 1990; Moran, 1992). Masculine adjectives such as "competitive," "aggressive," or "dominant" often describe leaders. Women who become leaders are often described as "being like men." A recent media analysis ("Who Leads," 1996) looked at the

portrayal of leaders and leadership. Approximately 1,000 articles from six geographically diverse general interest newspapers and three business magazines were examined. Images of female leaders in the media were not only different than males, but also much less visible. Ninety-nine percent of the stories about political leaders told of male political leaders. All of the leaders in stories related to subjects of war and mayhem were male. Most of the stories about women leaders appeared in the miscellaneous category. In that category, only 18% of those leaders mentioned were identified as being female. In articles where the term “leader” or “leadership” was not specifically used, but instead attributes of leaders were described, were where most of the stories about women appeared. Twombly (1995) described images of leadership as gendered descriptors acting as norms determining who has access to power. She noted the particular use of military and athletic metaphors in writings about leadership, projecting an image that continues to be exclusionary. Powell & Butterfield (1989) reported that subordinates described the “good manager” as masculine. Again, “maleness” equates with leadership and “femaleness” does not. Powell and Butterfield warned of the hazards to a career in deviating from the dominant management style in an organization. Hennig and Jardim (1978) suggested that women needed to learn the “male games” that mothers never taught their daughters in order to succeed in corporate leadership.

Another important factor in the issue of images of leadership was that of the perceptions of subordinates and supervisors to those in leadership positions. Several studies had shown that subordinate raters respond differently to the same behavior

depending on whether it is exhibited by a male or a female leader (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Moran, 1992; Wrolstad, Hazucha, Huff, & Halperin, 1992). Wrolstad, et al. (1992) indicated that raters of leaders prefer leaders who are similar to themselves and rate their leadership accordingly. Women managers were often negatively evaluated when judged to be displaying “unfeminine” behaviors such as assertiveness and directiveness (Bass, 1981). Weddle (1992) speculated that gender-specific responses to differing leadership behaviors may account for the glass ceiling faced by women whose behavior was not in accord with gender-expected norms. Shakeshaft (1989) noted similar findings in her research review.

Studies of women who achieved leadership positions described more barriers than support systems along the way. Having a mentor was one of the most critical support factors in women’s leadership growth, college to career transitions, and employment promotions (Arnold, 1993; Astin & Leland, 1991; Grover, 1992; Hennig & Jardim, 1978; Morrison et al, 1992). Although credibility is an asset for both genders, women had no room for failure in their leadership path (Morrison et al., 1992). They needed to be consistently outstanding to be considered for leadership positions created a high stress barrier for women leaders. Having a husband and children tended to keep women lower on the scales of power and prestige (Astin & Leland, 1991; Grover, 1992; Hulbert, 1993b; Morrison et al, 1992). Balancing career and family demands had taken its toll on many female leaders. Some organizational cultures rewarded only those who consistently put career first. Temporary stop-outs in careers tended to happen differently for men and women. Interruptions in a man’s

career usually occurred because of military service or a return to graduate school (Shakeshaft, 1989). Women took leave from careers to have and raise children and to care for aging parents. For women, graduate school was accomplished on a part-time basis, while working and raising a family. Even with laws such as the Family Leave Act, women felt uneasy about using a support system that men were less likely to use (“Mothering on the Tenure Track,” April 1997).

Other common barriers to women’s success ranged from workplace politics to discrimination in promotion opportunities to the development of a career plan. Learning the art of office politics/organizational savvy was a barrier to many women leaders (Morrison, et al, 1992). Studies of leadership behaviors, when investigated by gender of the leader, indicated that women are much less experienced in, and therefore, less likely to choose to work in the political frame as opposed to the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Women’s lack of positional power made success in the political frame difficult (Morrison et al, 1992). Discrimination and prejudice are barriers that took many forms as they operated against women’s success (Benokraitis, 1997). The outcomes of these barriers resulted in women having fewer leadership opportunities and rewards in the workplace. Grover (1992) and Morgan, Schor and Martin (1993) reported that promotions were offered to women at a different pace and at lower salaries than they were for men. The *Chronicle of Philanthropy* reported that in a survey of 188 national charitable organizations, women made up only 16 percent of the chief executives and earned an average salary of 86 percent of the men’s average salary (“Survey Shows”, 1996; “Study Finds,” 1996).

Weddle (1992) cited evidence of male colleagues showing resentment toward and verbally “trashing” high achieving women. As companies downsize in tougher economic times, competition for fewer leadership positions will be stiffer; thus, backlash towards women may become a more serious problem in the years ahead (Morrison et al, 1992).

Poor career planning was cited by many studies as a major barrier to women’s advancement (Hulbert, 1993; Morrison, et al, 1992). From the selection of college major to the acceptance of the entry position as a line or staff position, women and men followed very different “plans” in their career/leadership paths. Many women lacked the opportunity to acquire the needed prior work experience to advance to higher positions. For example, some industries admit that they seek to hire only former military officers as their upper management reported industry leaders involved in recruitment (C.R. Harley, personal communication, December, 1995). Limiting opportunities to experiences such as this created a tremendous barrier for women. American culture has not taught women about the opportunities or limitations one encounters through the career path chosen; therefore, research has found that women have no real plan as they move through their career cycle (Hulbert, 1993; Morrison et al, 1992). Women’s early career plans were most likely controlled by family obligations. Location of a husband’s employment, and location of child care facilities were the two most influential factors in a woman’s selection of employment, community involvement, completion of higher education, type of degree earned, and number of job changes on her resume (Hulbert, 1993).

Teaching Leadership

Opportunities to learn leadership skills have a positive impact on the eventual success of both male and female leaders (Bass, 1990). Formal programs with intentionally structured plans for teaching leadership abound in the workplace, the military, and higher education (Freeman, Knott, & Schwartz, 1996). Methodologies for teaching are as diverse as the programs. Some programs focus on teaching specific skills (Roberts, 1981), while others take an experiential approach (Clark & Clark, 1990). Burns (1978) recalled that in Britain, a leader's classical education had little attention paid to "innovation and creativity, but a skill and capacity for social role-taking coupled with a sense of self-esteem and a need to achieve were sufficient to make for reasonably effective leaders" (p.553). In a summary chapter on leadership training and management development in Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (1990), Bryson and Kelley (1978) suggested that leaders learn in stages through a developmental learning process, where one stage prepares the leader for more challenging tasks in later stages. Morgan McCall, professor of business at the University of Southern California, is quoted in *Fortune* on his philosophy of leadership education, "I don't believe leadership can be taught, but it can be learned" (Sherman, 1995, p.92). One learns leadership by leading. Burns (1978) noted that leadership development was a life-long process of social and political challenges encountered from childhood through middle and later life, and the way in which these challenges enhanced a person's political maturity.

Historically, a variety of leadership training techniques have been used, from

traditional classroom lecture to role playing to case studies to simulation games to computer programmed instruction. In the 1940s, Kurt Lewin developed a technique called sensitivity training (Bass, 1981). This program sought to improve attitudes and behaviors related to interpersonal processes such as having greater sensitivity to followers' needs, sharing of information and decision-making, self-understanding, and more tolerance and flexibility. Use of this training methodology led to training techniques that emphasized teaching other skill and content areas of leadership.

Less formal arenas for leadership education are in K-12 classrooms, sports, organizations and youth activities, and in the family (Clark & Clark, 1990). While not usually having an intentional plan to produce leaders, each of these experiences has an impact on leadership development. Each of these formal and informal teaching arenas are explored through the literature with a special look at related gender issues.

The Role of the Family

A recent study on "lives of commitment" and community activism revealed the important influence of family in the early development of community leaders (Daloz, et al, 1996). Family characteristics that had a positive impact on the education of leaders included frequent discussions of current issues, culturally diverse visitors to the home, and immediate family members who exhibited a leadership role in the community. In such a family atmosphere, Daloz et al. (1996) reported that "children learn they are a part of history, not just observers" (p. 31). They learn to be inclusive of others, and not to exclude those who are different. Daloz et al. described this learning and development as "transforming the meaning of home" (p. 31). The future community

leader “shifts the boundaries of the meaning of home outward to embrace the neighborhood, the community, the society, and perhaps ultimately the world” (p. 31). Authors on business and leadership refer to this as a visionary leader who sees the “big picture.” However, Daloz et al. emphasized that the ability to lead and take action was based on more than vision. This trait required a sense of trust and a set of values that allowed one to feel at home in an ever-expanding neighborhood. Venturing out to explore that neighborhood is also important to a leader’s growth. The family who valued interacting with people of other cities, states, regions, and countries fostered significant leadership growth in their children.

Astin and Leland (1991) revealed several influencing factors regarding families on the development of women leaders. Consistent with other studies of leaders, the majority of women leaders in their study were firstborn. Strong identification of daughters with fathers in addition to having self-actualized women in their lives marked the majority of women leaders in their study. Paternal endorsement of a daughter’s intellectual growth and development facilitated her intellectual achievement, her choice of a non-traditional career field, and her strong career commitment (Astin, 1977). Strong support from parents led to a high degree of self-confidence (Astin & Leland, 1991). Grandparents were important guides and role models for women leaders as well. Women leaders in their study identified themselves as high achievers in school, a result of families who placed a high value on education. “Families set standards for life performance and morality,” summarized Astin and Leland (1991), thereby, supporting their development as “independent women infused with strong beliefs in social justice

and the work ethic” (p. 42).

The Role of K - 12 Education and Youth Activities, including Sports

Clark & Clark (1990) established that little had been done in an intentional and systematic way to ensure that future leaders were given the opportunity to develop their leadership potential at an early age. Youth leadership programs have little research to support their design (Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., & Social Program Evaluators & Consultants, Inc., 1997). Only recently has a major youth organization completed a national study comparing its goals with the learning outcomes of its participants. Girl Scouts of the U.S.A. learned that opportunities to experience leadership was the most frequently reported outcome by its participants (Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., & Social Program Evaluators & Consultants, Inc., 1997). As with scouting, most existing youth programs require group membership to participate. Such memberships can prove to be a hardship for lower socioeconomic groups, requiring participants to have monies, transportation, and family involvement over and above that required for school.

Participation as leaders of cocurricular activities in elementary, middle, and senior high schools and in college were predictive of adult leadership in business and social activities (Stogdill, 1974). These experiences were more highly correlated than was academic achievement. With encouragement at an early stage and exposure to women leaders, girls are more likely to lead in high school and college (“Cultivating tomorrow’s Crop of Women Student Leaders,” June 1997). In 1964, the U.S. Office of Education made an effort to identify the relationship between personality traits and social activities in high school seniors. There was a strong correlation between a high

score on leadership on the Student Activity Inventory personality score and the number of times an individual was elected a club officer, or club president, and the number of groups to which she belonged in the last three years. Astin and Leland (1991) noted that the women in their study attributed their high degree of self-confidence to their success in school through debate teams and student organization leadership opportunities. But little attention has been given to instructional opportunities in youth leadership.

Gardner (1990) stated that most of the ingredients of leadership can be taught. He described several factors in today's society that impede the educational process of future leaders. Large organizations, communities, and schools create a feeling of powerlessness, both by their complexity and the availability of so many to fill too few significant leadership roles. Highly specialized training for professions takes young leaders into profitable nonleadership roles. The educational system places enormous emphasis on individual performance and the glorification of experts. Gardner (1990) proposed that to devise new modes of organization to create smaller units, such as what business is doing through work teams. "Leaders have always been generalists," said Gardner (1990, p.159). They need to see how the whole system functions, and how one system impacts another. They need to know how to work with groups, and to value that experience. They need to know how to reach out to develop other leaders. Gardner suggested that young people should be trained to accept responsibility in group activities and experience leadership in youth organizations. Daloz et al. (1996) reported that most of the community leaders in their study had opportunities to practice

leadership as adolescents. School clubs, church youth organizations, YMCA/YWCA, bands, and sports offered youth opportunities to work with their peers and significant adults as these young leaders discovered they had something worthwhile to offer to their community. Gardner advocated the best real-life learning experiences are intentional and linked to some form of instruction.

Additionally, lessons of leadership and business models of organizational structure have been learned in schoolyards and on playgrounds through sports (Lopiano, 1996). Consequently, women who do not have a sports background may be at a disadvantage when competing for leadership positions. Although the percentage of women athletes has risen by six percent in the last five years, women still comprise only 34% of all athletes ("NCAA Reports," June, 1997). Media coverage of women's sports is less than five percent of all sports news coverage ("NCAA Reports," June 1997), which means media images of women athletes are sparse. Donna Lopiano (1996), Executive Director of the Women's Sports Foundation, identified several points or rules that can serve as barriers to women's rise to the top. These are:

1. Teams are chosen based on people's strengths and competencies rather than on who you like or dislike. Women have a tendency to select their friends and emphasize relationships rather than skills.
2. Successful players practice the illusion of confidence. Employees who demonstrate calmness under pressure, and who act sure of themselves and their abilities get to play the most important positions.
3. Errors are expected of people who try new things. The most important thing is never to make the same mistake twice. Players are expected to fix their errors, not to dwell on them or to take criticism personally.
4. Loyalty to teammates is very important. Every person on the team has a role to play. Few men will criticize their teammates. Women who do not play

sports are much more critical and are more likely to point out a teammate's weaknesses if asked to do so. When women do this in business, they are perceived as disloyal.

5. "I will" equals "I can." Boys grow up thinking they can achieve anything they commit themselves to achieving. They have been trained to believe they can approach a new challenge and conquer it. Women may believe that advancing to a new position requires certification, classroom instruction, degrees or something tangible that says, "I am qualified."

6. The boss in a hierarchical organization gives the orders and players follow the head coach's instructions. Men's organizations are very hierarchical in nature. Women's organizations tend to be more decentralized and collegial. Women are more likely to bring a group together, ask everyone to present their ideas and come up with a solution that has the support of the majority of the group (pp. 35-36).

Nelson (1997) reported, "Athletes learn to win ... They learn that you don't always win and you don't die from losing. They learn to be strong, to enjoy their bodies, and to bond with teammates. They learn to have power over themselves, to define women on their own terms, and to refuse to be mistreated" (p. 31). Lopanio (1996) emphasized that as more women take on positions of leadership, it becomes important that they also have opportunities for learning those leadership skills that their male counterparts learned on the playground.

The Role of Leadership Development Programs in Higher Education

Higher education has been shown to be a major factor in the development of future leaders through cocurricular activities as well as through curricular programs of study. Roberts and Ullom (1989, p.2) wrote:

One of the central and traditional purposes of higher education is the preparation of citizens for positions of leadership ... With the growing complexity of education, its increased tendency toward specialization, and the need for leaders

to cope with change, leadership programs assume an even greater importance. Gardner (1990) believed higher education should emphasize teaching citizenship, studying the liberal arts, and providing educational experiences outside the classroom. He also promoted public service opportunities and shared learning experiences as very important to the college leadership learning laboratory. Roberts (1981) detailed the ways in which leadership programs contribute to the institutional mission of higher education and the educational outcomes of the student. Community-based learning programs, i.e. service-learning and internships, provide opportunities for leadership development while offering a learning-link to the classroom. Leadership programs measure less tangible learning outcomes such as values clarification and social skills. "They give attention to the moral, ethical and value dimensions of professional training," stated Roberts (1981, pp 11-12). These programs foster the development of life-skills including time management and decision-making, as well as work-place skills such as understanding personal dynamics and interpersonal relations. Leadership programs contribute to the mental and physical health of students by contributing to their sense of achievement and self-esteem, usually resulting in higher retention rates for participants. In addition, college graduates who experienced such programs are able to participate more readily in business, community and educational leadership opportunities (Roberts, 1981). The Council for the Advancement of Standards [CAS] in Higher Education (1996) established standards and guidelines for student leadership programs. Colleges and universities are encouraged by CAS to develop a comprehensive program which includes leadership training, education, and

development activities to assist students in learning identified leadership competencies in a process incorporating multiple delivery methods and contexts.

Historically, leadership development has centered in the cocurriculum in higher education (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). Research about the impact of cocurricular experiences on the development of students has been positive. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) summarized several studies that showed the involvement level of students in college has a significant and positive relationship to growth and change in college. Other research on traditional aged college students showed that students who are involved in cocurricular activities report more positive educational and social experiences, as well as increased leadership development, and success in academic and career goals (Astin, 1977, 1993; Kuh, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 1991). A three-year study by Cooper, Healy, and Simpson (1994) which examined the development of college students through the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory found that cocurricular involvement had positive effects on the students' total academic experience, including leadership development. AT&T studied the influence of cocurricular experiences on employment readiness. Known as the AT&T Longitudinal Studies, Howard (1986) reported positive correlations between campus cocurricular involvement and success factors in the workplace. Both involvement and the number of activities in which a student participated was predictive of need for advancement, energy, tolerance of uncertainty, resistance to stress, behavior flexibility, personal impact, creativity, organizing, planning, decision-making, leadership skills, and overall effectiveness. In addition, Albrecht, Carpenter, and Sivo (1994) studied employer

preferences in business, education, and engineering and found college activities and grades to be equally important in hiring decisions.

Research about the impact of cocurricular experiences on women students has not been as positive. Until recently, there has been a tendency for colleges to reinforce, rather than to counter, gender stereotypes. Holland and Eisenhart (1990) described student cultures that value and reward men for academic, athletic, and leadership achievements, but measure women only by their attractiveness to men. Astin's (1993) follow-up study to Four Critical Years showed little change over twenty years regarding women's experiences in college. He wrote:

Women enter college already differing considerably from men in self-rated emotional and psychological health, standardized test scores, GPA's, political attitudes, personality characteristics, and career plans, and most of these differences widen during the undergraduate years Even though men and women are presumably exposed to a common liberal arts curriculum and to other common environmental experiences during the undergraduate years, it would seem that their educational programs preserve and strengthen, rather than reduce and weaken, stereotypical differences between men and women in behavior, personality, aspirations and achievement (pp. 405-406).

Whitt (1994) referenced Forrest, Hotelling and Kuk in their discussion of a "null environment" for women in higher education. They asserted that college environments need not be overtly hostile in order to have a negative impact on women, since the absence of encouragement can be as damaging as active discouragement.

“Professionals in higher education do not have to do anything to discourage women since society already does so. Failing to encourage them, however, is to discourage them without even trying” (p. 199). Higher education is becoming aware of some of the gender issues involved in leadership development. A National Leadership Symposium think-tank was held in 1990 and 1991 to develop a better understanding of the role of gender and culture in building community on campus (Silien, Lucas, & Wells, 1992). These meetings advocated the use of an “Interactive Leadership” model which allows the formulation of programs to “integrate inherent individual differences and differences that occur because of one’s gender or culture” (p.30). The think-tank also identified a list of suggestions pertinent to a women’s leadership model for higher education to be incorporated into a modification of leadership programs. These include: using a holistic approach, addressing issues of visibility and marginalization, increasing self-esteem, providing more opportunities to practice leadership, identifying role models and mentors, and including opportunities for reflective learning. Using the new version of the Leadership Practices Inventory, Komives (1994) studied leadership practices of women college students and found the women were most comfortable with the practices of “enabling others to act” and least skilled in “challenging the process.” Challenging an established process required leadership skills particularly from the political frame of leadership as described by Bolman & Deal (1991). Morrison, et al. (1992) described the political arena as a weak skill area for many women leaders. In 1994, Posner and Brodsky investigated leadership practices of sorority and fraternity leaders and determined that none of the leadership practices of male presidents were

perceived as significantly different from the practices of female presidents. Students who rated each president were members of each president's executive committee. Therefore, the raters were of the same gender as the president they were rating. Previous research related to others' perceptions of leaders and their styles casts doubts as to the methods used in the design of this study (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Wrolstad, et al, 1992; Weddle, 1992).

In Women's Lives Through Time - Educated American Women of the Twentieth Century, Arnold (1993) wrote about the "Illinois Valedictorian Project," a ten-year, longitudinal study of eighty-one top high school achievers, forty-six of whom were women. Arnold looked at the relationship between academic success and career and life patterns for male and female valedictorians at public and private high schools in Illinois. She described a small positive relationship between academic success and adult career measures. With only a small part of the variation in adult career outcomes related to academic success, what influences contribute to the career outcomes of college students? For the sample in Arnold's, women equaled or surpassed men in all measures of academic achievement in high school and in college. However, by their sophomore year in college, the women showed a sharp drop in their own estimations of their intelligence. Although none of the men or women in the sample were married or engaged at this time, the women in all academic majors expressed concerns about combining family and career. In fact, six women dropped their plans for medical school because of these concerns, but none of the men in the sample raised concerns about these issues. A related gender difference was that 66% of the women surveyed

planned to reduce or interrupt their careers to accommodate child-rearing, while all of the men planned continuous, full-time careers. A fourth gender difference appeared in the professional expectations of the women in the study. The women reported general career fields and even options or back-up plans, whereas, men listed specific occupation levels and professional settings. After graduation, other differences appeared. No men were working in female-dominated professions, such as teaching or nursing, however, approximately 30% of the women in the study were employed in male-dominated professions.

Arnold discussed a concept called “tacit knowledge” as it relates to women’s ability to build a career. She defined this concept as a type of career understanding that is not explicitly taught, but one that becomes understood through our socialization process. Arnold outlined how men’s tacit knowledge of how to build a career is demonstrably different from women’s. For men, the sequence from making good grades in school, to achieving academically in college, to being accepted for graduate school, to securing candidacy for a highly sought-after job, to pursuing a career in an upwardly mobile profession, to attaining an office in the executive suite is a series of transitions easily visualized and accomplished. For women, the constraints begin with their inability to see themselves in high-level career settings. Women can see themselves as good students for they are experienced at that. It is imagining their career ends, however, that presents difficulty. Comments from women in the study such as, “I like math, but I’m not, like, a mathematician,” or “I just really can’t see myself as a research chemist. None of my friends are chemists maybe I’m just playing at being

a scientist,” demonstrated this problem in imagery (p. 408). Arnold believed that a major reason why women have difficulty developing tacit knowledge in career development is the lack of support and mentorship from faculty members. Again, this is illustrated by a quote from the women in the study: “I would have liked a little more encouragement – for someone to say, ‘You can do it.’ My counselors seemed to accept it as perfectly natural that I would drop out of the math program” (p. 409). In addition to tacit knowledge of career planning and support from mentors, women have an extra “stage” in their career planning (Arnold, 1993). What will be the priority of their career within their multiple life roles? Arnold, again, quoted the women in the study: “I know I want to get married and have kids. I don’t know how much weight I want to put on my career or how long I want to work. One thing that angers me is that, as a woman, I have to plan this” (p.411). Arnold summarized by saying that “A major task of higher education is to facilitate the transition of the locus of achievement identity, from school attainment to career performance” (pp.410 - 11). Higher education has an obligation to teach this ‘invisible’ curriculum.

Education for women in all female settings was shown to be beneficial to the academic and personal development of the women who attended such schools (AAUW Educational Foundation & The Wellesley College Center for Research on Women”, 1995). A later AAUW report (Leslie, 1998) indicated that girls felt a higher degree of comfort in all female classes and schools, but that no evidence existed to prove that all female classes are better for girls. Whitt (1994) studied how all-female settings in higher education foster women’s leadership. She found these colleges to be intentional

in the development of student leaders. The educational environments were such that women were taken seriously as leaders – both of the institutions and within the student body. In interviews of over 200 women on three all-female campuses, Whitt found four elements of the campus environment that had a great impact on the development of students as leaders. These elements were: 1) high expectations for student achievement, 2) models of female leaders, 3) extensive opportunities to become leaders, and 4) college missions focused on the education and development of women (p. 202).

Whitt elaborated on these elements with quotes from the women in her study.

In high school there are not many girls that want to be stars. Here you untrain yourself from wanting to be one of a crowd and not knowing what to say. Here its OK to have attention drawn to you; you don't mind standing out (p. 203).

Role models have a lot to do with what you get out of [this college] ... If all the leaders were men, I don't think I would think it was achievable. Students see women in leadership positions across the board and think, 'I can be anything' (p. 203).

Whitt summarized by saying that treating men and women as though they have the same needs from college is not educationally sound for either group.

High expectations for women students must be communicated at every opportunity Given what we know about women student's self-esteem, to say nothing and to take for granted that they know they are competent, is to confirm their worst fears about their capabilities (p. 204).

The Role of the Military Academies

The military has long been identified as a primary source of leadership experience for men in the United States (Stiehm, 1981). The military has been the starting point for many male political, business, and educational leaders since the early history of this country. The United States military academies play a special role in the

realm of higher education, having developed and implemented the most intensive and long-standing leadership training programs in the country for young adults. The tradition of leadership training for military leaders began at West Point in the early 1800s (Stiehm, 1981). Leadership is crucial in military organizations. The concept permeates every aspect of the military academy's programs. Academic credit courses are offered in leadership and offices and departments are responsible for it. Stiehm observed, " while the academies are anxious to study and learn about leadership, they are most interested in producing it" (1981, p. 180). Cadets are assigned daily activities to practice leadership, including programs through intramurals and physical education. The academies believe that practice is enhanced by imitation; therefore, they provide good role models by hiring officers as faculty, encouraging discussions of military career experiences, and having cadets interact with military heroes.

Initiated by the 1975 federally-legislated change that admitted women to the academies, methods of leadership training have been scrutinized by internal and external studies. Stiehm (1981) spent a year in observing and researching the changes that occurred in the military academies -- particularly the Air Force Academy -- as women entered the first class of cadets in 1976. She observed changes in many of the military processes and the results of incorporating women into a male-normed and -focused leadership training program; however, the male and military culture were so intertwined that it was difficult to separate what was inherently male from what was military. One of the outcomes of the integration found that men disliked taking orders from women. Stiehm speculated that development factors of men and women aged 18-

22 might be a factor. She explained, “men may have trouble accepting women as their peers since it is this developmental stage when they are trying to become independent from their families, especially their mothers” (p. 117). Stiehm also described a related developmental stage for women who, “at that same chronological age could be more sensitive to men’s assessments and criticisms of them” (p. 190).

Another outcome was observed in the area of competition. Women competed fiercely with other women, but easily accepted defeat by a man. Men competed fiercely against men, but outdid themselves against women. Women sought to show that they were equal, while men needed to prove they were better. When women constituted numerical minority (as in the case of the academy), they competed daily, while the men could “take turns.”

Stiehm presumed these responses carried over to areas outside athletics. However, the academy program was heavily focused on athletics and competition, two areas in which women had the most difficulty competing with men. Athletics represented survival of an ordeal, testing one’s limits, moving toward victory. Thus, athletes represented their schools just as the military represented their country. The physical competitions centered on hitting, running, and jumping, male preferred activities. Stiehm asked, “What if the tests were of floating , flexibility and balance?” (1981, p.148), activities in which women excel.

Prejudice against the women at the academy was widespread. Cadet surveys showed that contact with each other was not a sufficient remedy for prejudice. Stiehm noted other scholarship that looked at prejudice in relation to contact . These studies

showed that,

prejudice is increased when: a) the contact involves competition, b) the contact is involuntary, c) one group is of lower status, d) the dominant group is frustrated, and e) groups hold different moral standards. On the other hand, prejudice is decreased when: a) an egalitarian relationship exists, b) authority encourages friendliness, c) background is similar, and d) contact extends from a role to a personal basis (p. 140).

Another form of prejudice the women felt was in constantly having to prove themselves. Because the number of women accomplishing nontraditional feats was usually so small, the men seemed to accept a single good performance as real, but could not generalize from it to the entire population (Stiehm, 1981, p.271). Another related losing situation for women was when they entered a nontraditional arena with a highly competitive record. Often, the path to this arena was traversed in an irregular way which means their records do not read the same as their competitors. Some “squares” had not been checked. Stiehm hypothesized as to why this irregular record was not seen as an advantage -- a representation of overcoming the odds but, unfortunately, having the traditional “squares” checked off signified the higher accomplishment. Prejudice is often expressed as fear of losing privilege. For the cadets, having to compete with women at the academy represented the loss of privilege of attending an all-male institution. This loss was especially felt when these men compared themselves to their fathers.

The military academies continue to struggle with the design of their training programs and the impact gender integration has had on those processes (The Women

Midshipmen Study Group, 1990). However, charges of sexual harassment and discrimination still to plague the military academies and training programs (Schafer, 1997).

The Role of the Workplace

A future leader's early years in the workplace are critical training ground. Gardner (1990) reported that, "Every human society constructs obstacle courses over which potential leaders must travel" (p.172). Those early years in the workplace must provide challenging teamwork, dealing with hostility, understanding the motivation of peers, developing self-knowledge, understanding the impact they have on others, and boundary-crossing experiences. McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison (1988) showed that managers learn the majority of important lessons about leadership from experiences they have on the job, but that there is little knowledge about how to identify and use sources of on-the-job development. Gender differences in learning on the job were explored by Velsor and Hughes (1990). The most frequently described lessons learned by men on the job focused on mastering new skills related to job performance, and in facing risks through quick decision-making based on insignificant data. For women, the lessons were focused on self-discovery and understanding how best to fit into the organizational environment. Velsor and Hughes (1990) speculated on the rationale for such differences, which were: women's lack of overall organizational experience; effective leader criteria that described male traits, not female traits; women leaders feeling isolated and unwelcomed by male peers; and age differences which were likely to be the reasons for such introspection

among women. Thus, the learning environment on the job is very different for men and women (Velsor & Hughes, 1990).

Kotter (1995) noted that the most important leadership learning experience was significant challenge early in a career. “Leaders must actually try to lead, take a risk, and learn from both triumphs and failures” (p. 122). Kotter also spoke of the importance of leaders broadening their experiences through lateral career moves and informal networks. Recently, Sherman (1995) reviewed several new industry-sponsored leadership development programs. Commonalities in these programs include:

- selecting participants who represent the values of the company
- creating new, challenging experiences for participants
- providing support through mentors and workshops
- prioritizing the development of human interactions in the workplace.

Daloz, et al. (1996) looked more closely at the role of networks. A leader’s network must include others with a similar vision and valuing of the activist role. Such networks give leaders a much needed support group, particularly when inevitable energy burnout occurs. Daloz et al. (1996) went further in challenging the workplace to create a “mentoring environment” for young adults. To support a young adult’s path towards a leadership role, those young persons must know they will not be alone. The mentoring environment creates a network of “friends and colleagues who share common challenges and hopes” (p. 46). The young leader’s work becomes not “my career,” but rather “our common work on behalf of the larger good” (p. 46).

Career Development and Career Path Theories

Theories of career growth and leadership development for adults began with the theories of the adult life cycle through the research of Super, Levinson, Erikson, and others (Erikson, 1950 & 1968; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957; Smelser, 1980). Although research in the area of adult development is at a very young stage, there is agreement among these theorists that adults do not cease their psychosocial growth and development at the age of 21. Sequences of internal processes and external events impact the patterns of life contours (Smelser, 1980). According to Smelser, Freud defined the capacity to work and love as one of the two most important life phenomena which contributed to the maturity of adults.

A more specific look at career development theory, and student development theory is reviewed in Super's Career Life Cycle. According to Super (1957), career development consists of four stages: exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. These stages are not defined by age, but rather by psychological fit, allowing for delayed careers, second careers, and career recycling (Super & Knasel, 1981). One of the key constructs of this theory is its nonlinearity, allowing for a recycling through stages of adult development and opportunities that arise (Smart & Peterson, 1994). Additionally, Levinson's theory (1978) -- an overall adult development perspective -- suggests a series of four age-related stages or "seasons": childhood (0-20), early adulthood (20-40), middle adulthood (40-60), and late adulthood (over 60). According to Swanson (1992), each of these stages encompasses substages of unique periods of stability and change. Swanson noted that, "Tests of these theories suggest that significant interactions occur between the

stages and age groups, with age differences occurring in Super's stages, and stage differences occurring in Levinson's age groups" (p. 107). As with most human development theories developed in the 1950s, the subjects Levinson studied were male, and his theory (1978) was developed using a sample of 40 middle-aged men. It was no accident that Levinson's book is entitled The Seasons of a Man's Life.

In Roberts' study of Leadership Programs in Higher Education (1981), he identified a "Framework for Leadership Development" based upon Perry's (1970) developmental model. Roberts concluded that a leader's success is dependent upon a personal level of cognitive developmental maturity because of the leader's need to analyze, diagnose, be flexible, and have foresight and imagination. Roberts selected Perry's cognitive developmental scheme because it was based upon data gathered from and validated on college students. Perry's model (1970) was composed of nine stages arranged in a hierarchical, irreversible sequence. Individuals varied on the scale based on the several content areas of their life. The nine-stage scheme was composed of two major developmental periods. The first five related to the student finding meaning in the learning environment, and the last four related to the individual finding meaning in life. The nine stages (Roberts, 1981) can be condensed into four broader areas.

Dualism - characterized by simplistic thinking; turn to authorities for directions; little responsibility taken for outcomes of actions.

Multiplicity - growing understanding of decision-making; use of greater variety of factors in decision-making; continued adherence to "good authorities."

Contextual Relativism - experience a fundamental change in their cognitive process; locus of control changes from external to internal.

Commitment within Relativism - a “coming to grips” with the complexity of life and decision-making; able to synthesize integrative concepts to make meaning out of life; make commitments (p.214).

Perry (1970) validated this model through longitudinal research conducted on college students. Roberts then related Stogdill’s (1974) characteristics of effective leaders to this developmental model and observed (1981) that, independently, the characteristics do not predict leadership effectiveness but, collectively, they interacted to create a set of the personality dynamics of an effective leader. However, Roberts did not look at his leadership model through the lens of female leadership behaviors or experiences.

The importance of including women in the study of adult development theories was noted by Fiske (1980), “Gender differences in most dimensions of life far exceed age or stage differences found within either sex group alone” (p. 242). Case and Thompson (1995) reported that applying theories about career development from studies that used all-male samples was a questionable practice. Shakeshaft (1989) referred to this practice as one which results in an “impoverished theory.” She reported that scholars have shown theories and concepts using male norms were inadequate for explaining female behaviors. Women’s conceptions of themselves and their lives were construed differently from those of men (Gallos, 1990; Gilligan, 1982). Shakeshaft (1989) referred to the public sphere

(male) versus private sphere (female) lens when defining such terms as aspiration, self-confidence, and status. She found that women do not rate lower in these attributes when they are defined in terms and behaviors that women value. Shakeshaft stated,

Science and science-making tend to reinforce and perpetuate dominant social values and conceptions of reality ... Not unexpectedly, they have forged forms of thought within an all-male world and, perhaps without realizing it, have mistaken it for a universal reality ... Correcting weaknesses in this scholarship is a methodological issue of enormous importance as bias affects conceptual formulation as well as issues of reliability and validity (1989, p.150).

Case and Thompson suggested that women may develop their skills and abilities in different ways than men. From their use of an advisor to the role of relationships and affiliation with others, to expectations for education and self-knowledge, to the use of feedback and reflective learning processes, women learn in different ways than men. Biklen (1985) asked that career be redefined using the experiences of men and women. She argued that society has recorded what men do and labeled it as a "career." Consequently, if women do the same things, they have a career; otherwise, they have a job. Biklen (1985) stated that careers have been defined with an androcentric bias which limits the ability to view the working lives of women properly .

Levinson (1978) proposed that the formation of a dream becomes the center of life planning in early adulthood. For men, this dream centered on career aspirations and achievement while Roberts and Newton (1987) found that women's dreams centered on relationships. Some women attempted to combine family with career and have a "split

dream,” many times resulting in two sets of incompatible goals. “Independence, self-sufficiency, and an emphasis on a work career underpin life phases for men, whereas interdependence and a struggle to combine attachment and accomplishment are keys to explaining women’s life content and phases” (Case & Thompson, 1995, p. 140). Eccles (1987) described a society whose male-oriented value system defined ideal achievement. She stated that “too often scientists adopt a male standard of ideal achievement when judging the value of female accomplishments; they seek to understand why women do not achieve like men without considering the possibility that not engaging in some activity may reflect the choice of an alternate activity rather than avoidance.” Eccles further stated “as a consequence, very little systematic information has been gathered regarding the more female achievement domains, such as the academic accomplishments of one’s offspring or one’s contribution to local organizations” (p. 136). Case and Thompson (1995) compared the difference that work played in identity for men and women. For men work was the major source of identity, and they adjusted other obligations, such as family, around their careers. On the other hand, women juggled a multitude of priorities while trying to do everything well. They took a more holistic approach than men, balancing work and relationships in the choices they made (Gallos, 1990). Case and Thompson (1995) hypothesized that male and female graduate students would write about their work and life development differently on four conceptual topics regarding personal development, centrality of others, role development, and areas of responsibility. Their findings supported three of the four hypotheses. Women made more statements focused on personal development than did men. Centrality of others was more important to

women through their life stories and career and learning plans. In addition, women stressed multiple areas of responsibility more often than men. The importance of this study and its findings helps to evaluate the methodologies being used to design graduate programs, to break the paradigms of male-valued educational processes as the only way to teach, and to prepare men and women to learn and work together by understanding their differences.

Other studies of gender issues related to career development have investigated the influences of others in career decision-making. Poole, Langan-Fox, Ciavarella, and Omodei (1991) found that parental expectations had a stronger positive impact on school and professional attainment for men than they did for women. Barak, Feldman, and Noy (1991) found that breaking gender stereotypes in children's career interests was impacted positively by the mother's non-traditional career interests. Sex typing of occupations occurred early in a child's development (Alpert & Breen, 1989), but parental and school role models had some impact on female non-traditional occupational choices at the middle and high school levels. In a review of literature, Swanson (1992) reported that "College women's career development was shown to be influenced by numerous factors, including ability and attitudes, role models, and willingness to take risks" (p. 113). Additionally, Shakeshaft noted that it took an "overt act" to nudge women to consider becoming an administrator (1989), and that the role of a mentor is key to a woman's path to leadership.

Women's career aspirations have changed over time. Harmon (1989) reported that in a longitudinal and cross-sectional study of women's career aspirations, the younger

members of the group have stronger work plans and less traditional career aspirations. Fitzpatrick & Silverman (1989) found fewer differences among college women in traditional and non-traditional college majors than did a study done in 1970. Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) reported differences pre- and post-1974 in the reported correlations between job and life satisfaction. Prior to 1974, men reported a correlation twice as high as women. After 1974, men's and women's correlations were equivalent.

Attracting women to and retaining women in management and professional positions and non-traditional occupations is problematic. Swanson (1992), Schein (1995) and Irwin (1996) showed women's dissatisfaction with job characteristics, unmet expectations, male-dominated environments, office politics, lack of organizational commitment, lower starting salaries than men, lack of career development, adverse working conditions, more job stress, and high levels of sexual harassment and sex discrimination. Morrison, White, Van Velsor, and the Center for Creative Leadership (1992) reported articles in Fortune, Nation's Business, and other magazines that documented female managers leaving American companies in large numbers due to exhaustion and the unrealistic expectations of their corporations. They were also leaving because they discovered employment alternatives as proprietors of their own businesses. Here they do not have to constantly battle the need to perform better than men as they did both in college and on the job, and often to earn 35% less in salary (Fuller & Schoenberger, 1991; Jackson, Gardner, & Sullivan, 1992). The significance of these reports marked a decrease of experienced women in the pipeline as potential CEO's and leaders in the public sector.

Analysis of career paths of men and women immediately brings to light the existence of the “Glass Ceiling,” a set of barriers invisible to women that prevent their climb to the upper echelons of leadership and management positions (Morrison, et al, 1992). In a study of career paths to middle management in the banking industry ironically, an industry with a predominantly female work force, Morgan, et al. (1993) found that men advanced faster with fewer promotions and positions than did their female counterparts. Morgan, et al. (1993) reported that career paths are affected by entry positions, pace or length of time between promotions, number of promotions, and types of positions such as line or staff (p.376). Morrison, et al. (1992) described the stigma, for women, of being “staff.” The road to the top for men is through line positions, those jobs in the middle of the corporate action, not the ancillary positions, such as personnel or public relations where women were usually found. Line positions are more powerful, have more status, and receive higher salaries. The road to the top was not built through staff positions. Looking again at the field of education, Shakeshaft (1989) also reported that when women are promoted into administrative positions, these positions are not in the path of further promotion to principal or superintendent. Morgan, et al. (1993) cited Rosenbaum’s “tournament model” to describe how a job assignment was affected by an individual’s previous jobs. This model described how one challenging position led to another challenging position, while a less challenging position leads only to the same. Because women are often found in less challenging positions (“staff” positions), they could be on a dead end or “glass ceiling” career path. Morgan, et al. (1993) also cited a 1983 study by Olsen and Becker which reported that, for women and men who were

equally qualified, women were held to higher standards for promotions, received fewer promotions, and moved a shorter distance up the “ladder” with their promotions.

Summary

The study of leadership continues to evolve as academicians and practitioners seek to understand how it is learned and developed. Learning leadership is both an academic and an experiential process which begins in childhood with the influence of family and schools, and continues throughout life. Studies of psychosocial growth and development, including career, student and adult development theories, impact the learning of leadership abilities. Studies about the impact of planned learning experiences on leadership development are not as complete. Little has been written about cocurricular college experiences and adult leadership. Only recently have women been included in these research samples in any significant numbers. Understanding the leadership learning patterns and experiences for women is important to the study of leadership and to the empowerment of women to assume increased and more diverse leadership roles in society.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Building on current research is the goal of most researchers. As summarized in the literature review of the previous chapter, qualitative studies have produced a rich, in-depth set of data concerning gender differences in leadership development. Because of the nature of the leadership development process -- its multiple-year progression of events, influential people, and sequential experiential challenges -- a qualitative study was proposed to investigate such factors. Miles and Huberman (1984) established the “beauty” of qualitative data in its ability to preserve chronological flow, assess local causality, and derive accurate descriptions. Data-as-words can paint a much more elaborate, vivid, and multi-dimensional picture in an analysis that numbers can not match (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Patton stated, “Purpose is the controlling force in research. Decisions about design, measurement, analysis, and reporting all flow from purpose” (1990, p.150). Patton defined a model of the five types of research purposes (1990, pp.160-61). From Patton’s model, the purpose of this research study is identified as *applied research* -- “understanding the nature and sources of human and societal problems” (p.160). This study addressed the nature and sources of leadership development, particularly as related to the impact of cocurricular experiences on college male and female graduates.

Patton (1990) also described a method called *purposeful sampling* to achieve a set of information-rich cases to study in depth. Using a strategy of *purposeful* maximum

variation sampling, this researcher tried to “capture and describe the central themes or principle outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation” (Patton, 1990, p.172). To maximize variation in a small sample, Patton recommended identification of the characteristics of the subjects and selection of the subjects to reflect the uniqueness and variations in the overall sample. Patton (1990) discussed the advantages of qualitative research in its ability to study a smaller number of cases in depth. He determined that, “There is no rule of thumb that tells a researcher how to focus a study. Such determinations are dependent upon the purpose of the study, resources available, time available, and the interests of those involved” (1990, p.166).

The identification of the participants began with the use of snowball or chain sampling (Patton, 1990) in four communities. These communities were purposely selected for their similarity in size, comparable percentage of college graduates in the county population, and location (see Table 1). Location criteria included selecting four communities, each from a different state, and each less than five hours driving time from the researcher. The snowball process began by asking a small number of well-connected people in each community who they considered to be the leaders in their communities. This researcher chose to use the community board of the local United Way organization as the group to identify those community leaders . Each of these board members had connections to the power structure of their community through institutions related to education, business, local government, community groups, and the non-profit sector.

Table 1

1995 Population Percentages for Participating Communities

County and State	1995 Population	Percentage of Population With College Degrees
Washington County, TN	98,477	18.9%
Roanoke, VA	81,717	22.6%
Warren County, KY	84,438	19.2%
Cherokee County, GA	114,751	18.4%

Note. County population and college degree data obtained from the records of the First Tennessee Development District, 207 N. Boone St., Johnson City, TN 37604.

The presidents of each board were called and given an explanation of the study. After enlisting their respective president's support, the board members were sent correspondence requesting their assistance with this study. The letter requested them to identify male and female community leaders by asking the members to identify one female for every male whose name they submitted (see Leadership Nomination Checklist, Appendix C). The four community United Way board members were also provided with the definition of a leader used in chapter one of this study (see below) to assist them in thinking about possible names of community leaders for this study.

Leaders are people, humans with all their strengths, weaknesses, and special traits. They are people who are persuaded to accept extra responsibilities in the workplace or in the community, persons who seek out a position of advantage to

promote progress toward valued goals, individuals who take charge in order to help a group achieve important objectives, people elected or appointed to a position who want to make a difference, and people who simply have a compulsion to get things moving (Clark & Clark, 1992, pg.2-3).

Each board member recorded his or her suggested leaders' names on the Leadership Nomination Checklist (see Appendix C), and categorized them as to gender and the focus of their leadership, using the twenty interest areas on the checklist. For the identified community leaders to remain in the participant pool, they must have been identified as a leader by at least one other United Way board member in their community. A similar format was used in a study of the power structure of a community in East Tennessee. In that study, Allen (1986) examined power structure and social power to identify a community's influential citizens. He used a snowball method of building the data set. Allen's study had difficulty identifying women who were considered influential citizens. In reviewing his methods, this researcher modified several techniques based upon the literature of women in leadership. First, the definition of leadership was more inclusive -- not dependent upon position power. Second, the eleven leadership focus categories were expanded to twenty, with several renamed in order not to exclude either gender. Third, the United Way board members were instructed to submit an equal number of male and female names for the subject pool.

Using these techniques to establish a pool of participants for the research sample, the researcher selected and invited 24 subjects to participate using the following

parameters:

- a 50-50 mix of males and females,
- at least 6 representatives from each of the 4 counties,
- a diverse group of leaders covering as many ballot categories as possible (see categories on Leadership Subject Checklist, Appendix C),
- a minimum of 6 males and 6 females whose college experience dated post - Title IX.

To achieve this pool of 24, a leader participation agreement letter was sent to the 3 male and female nominees from each region who received the most nominations from their respective United Way Boards. The letters gathered information allowing the researcher to select a participant pool using the above four parameters (see Appendix D). The remaining members of the nominee pool became a back-up pool when invited leaders declined to participate, dropped out of the study, or failed to meet the study criteria, or if the data analysis required additional leaders to be studied in order to achieve saturation, -- a pattern of similar responses. In analyzing these considerations with the study committee chair, 24 subjects were identified from this nomination process.

An application was made to the East Tennessee State Institutional Review Board regarding the use of human subjects in research. The Board determined that an exemption for such approval was appropriate given the nature of the study (p. iv).

The questionnaire and interview questions were finalized, the participants meeting the above criteria were selected, notified that they had been identified as leaders in their community, and invited to participate in the study. Participants were expected to

complete a questionnaire of demographic information and college cocurricular experiences (see Appendix A; anticipated completion time - 30 minutes). This survey was developed with permission (see Appendix E), using the instrument The Long-term Effects of Service-Learning on College Alumni from the University of Virginia as a model. Leaders who completed the survey were screened for additional criteria. Leaders must have:

- Completed a bachelor's degree from an accredited college or university no later than December of 1991.
- Been a resident for at least 2 years in one of the four communities identified as a study site.

The back-up pool of leaders was used to replace 8 of the original 24 subjects selected. In all cases, the first replacement failed to meet the above criteria or declined to participate, and the back-up pool of leaders for each community was utilized several times. Leaders in the Roanoke, VA community failed to respond in sufficient numbers for the study to be viable there. It was eliminated from the study. After participation was confirmed by phone or letter with each leader, surveys were sent (see Appendix A). After the surveys were returned, the researcher requested an in-person interview. Appointments were made by phone in an attempt to interview all 6 leaders from each community in one two-day visit. All 6 leaders from Washington County, TN were interviewed in person. Visits to Cherokee County, Georgia and Warren County, KY resulted in 5 of 6 leaders being interviewed in person. Two leaders were interviewed by long-distance phone calls. In-person leader interviews of approximately one hour were recorded to facilitate accuracy

of data (see Appendix B). All information was reported such that the identity of the participants remained confidential. All interviews were completed by June, 1998.

Researchers who use qualitative analysis warn about data overload, the sampling process, researcher bias, generalizability of the findings, and replicability of the study. Miles and Huberman (1984) take a pragmatic approach to qualitative analysis. They believe that adding structure to the design of the study does not negate the pure process of qualitative research as long as the structure is built around established theories related to the research topic. In other words, they do not believe in having to “reinvent the wheel.” Their view of analysis of qualitative data involves three concurrent activities: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification.

Data reduction begins as the researcher decides which sites, which research questions, and which data collection approaches to choose. It is a form of analysis that sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that “final conclusions can be drawn and verified (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Data display is a way to organize information in an accessible, compact form, so that the researcher can see what is happening. Miles and Huberman stated emphatically that “You know what you display” (p. 22) advocating a systematic and powerful display of data. The third part of analysis is conclusion-drawing/verification. Qualitative researchers advocate holding speculative conclusions with some skepticism, withholding final conclusions until the data collection is over. Conclusions need to be verified through review of field notes, discussion with colleagues, triangulation of results, or duplicate findings in other data sets. Establishing the validity in this manner defines the sturdiness of the data. This three-part process is

interconnected and continuous throughout the analysis.

To begin the process of data reduction and building the conceptual framework of the study, the researcher identified categories of interview questions. Miles and Huberman (1984) refer to these as “bins.” These categories were derived from the literature review in Chapter Two, and are reflected in the questionnaire and interview questions (see Appendix A and B).

- Activities and leadership roles throughout pre-high school, and high school
- Activities and leadership roles throughout college
- Significant teachers, faculty, mentors, role models
- Influence of parent/family
- Significant cocurricular learning experiences
- Level of social awareness, community and world events
- Personal reflections on their cocurricular experience during college
- Personal goals at various stages of education and cocurricular experiences
- Personal definition of leadership
- Leadership roles held after college

The survey established a time line of these experiences for each subject. Particular questions were developed to evaluate the leadership learning experiences that occurred for each subject while in college, and the impact these learning experiences had on their overall leadership development. The interview questions were designed using a combination approach of an interview guide with standardized open-ended inquiry (Patton, 1990). This gave the researcher a set of basic questions for all the subjects, and

yet allowed the flexibility to be able to explore certain subjects in greater depth or ask questions not defined in the original set of “bins.” Patton offered excellent tips on the entire interview process including design of the demographic information questions. He recommended beginning the interview with present, non-controversial questions about behaviors and activities. Rapport and trust must be built between the interviewer and subjects, while maintaining neutrality. Patton offered techniques for designing “open-ended” questions, while he avoided dichotomous response questions. Patton was emphatic about asking only clear, singular questions, and being careful when asking “why” questions. He encouraged the use of probes as follow-up questions. Maintaining control of the interview was another skill area he described for the interviewer. Patton closed the summary of the interview process with a discussion of the impact and ethics of interviews. He said that, “Interviews are interventions. They affect people. A good interview lays open thoughts, feelings, knowledge, and experience not only to the interviewer, but to the interviewee Two hours or more of thoughtfully reflecting on an experience, a program, or one’s life can be change-inducing” (1990, pp. 353-54). Such was the case for this researcher as several leaders were teary-eyed while talking about special mentors in their lives.

Meeting the tests of rigor (Guba & Lincoln, 1981) is equally important in naturalistic inquiry. Four criteria of rigor have typically been used in scientific inquiry. These same criteria apply to the naturalistic paradigm, but require some redefinition. Internal validity is a truth value, a confidence in the truth of the findings. In naturalistic inquiry, the term *credibility* better fits the standards for qualitative data. External validity

is the generalizability of findings. With qualitative data, *fittingness* is the key to whether findings are generalizable. This implies that there is a fit between the two contexts, and that there is a “thick description” of each context allowing the researcher to determine such a fit. Reliability is consistency. For naturalistic inquiry, the term *auditability* has better fit and implies the type of process that determines such a standard. Objectivity is the neutrality necessary for any inquiry. For qualitative data the term is better thought of as *confirmability*. Guba and Lincoln (1981) determined that naturalistic inquiry is no more open to threats than is scientific inquiry and maybe less so. To ensure the credibility of this study (and hence the fittingness and auditability) the following measures were employed. Due to the special focus in this study on gender issues, two independent auditors were employed to review the data reduction, displays, and conclusions. Dr. Sally Lee, Associate Vice President of Student Affairs and Dr. Ronnie Gross, Director of Upward Bound from East Tennessee State University, were both trained in the methods of qualitative analysis and independent of the personnel of the particular research project. Dr. Lee served as the overall auditor, while Dr. Gross reviewed the coding for an interview from each community particularly for gender-related consistencies. Copies of all interview transcripts and coding definitions were provided to the auditors. Both auditors were asked to code three interviews to compare to the researchers codings. No inconsistencies were found in the first group of codings by Dr. Gross or Dr. Lee (see Appendices G and H). Guba and Lincoln (1981) determined that the auditor should establish that the procedures are appropriate, and properly carried out, and that the categories derived by the researcher make sense in relation to the data pool.

The auditor must have access to all documentation in the researcher's decision-making process. Structural corroboration of the interview data (pieces of evidence validating each other) through the use of a cross-examination technique will be utilized (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). This process 1) establishes the frame of reference of the subject, 2) points out flaws in the subject's recommendations, 3) clarifies beliefs of the subject, 4) detects inferences from the subject's statements, and 5) seeks justification for certain judgements (pp. 107-8). Insuring confirmability asks that the researcher report the data in such a way that it can be confirmed from other sources, if necessary. Methodical record keeping from the beginning of the literature review, to the conceptual framework, to the field notes from the interviews, to the generation and verification of conclusions will be of utmost importance to this researcher.

This study was about how college graduates acquired a set of behaviors and attitudes that has allowed them to perform as leaders. Interviewing successful leaders in regional communities provided important information about the relationship of the college experience to leadership development. Daloz, et. al. (1996, p. 243) warned that, "drawing conclusions from stories that people have recomposed from their experience of an earlier place and time is fraught with risk." But within this risk are the possibilities of rich reflections deepening our understanding of this phenomenon called leadership. Individually, these stories have been handled carefully; together, they have established a pattern resulting in new insights which have become a foundation for additional research and improved understanding of leadership development in higher education.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The Interview Process

Telephone, fax, and written correspondence with the executive directors of each of the four United Way offices resulted in agreement for each of the four boards to participate in the nomination process. Board members were asked to complete and return Leader Nomination Charts listing 20 different areas in which to demonstrate leadership (see Appendix C).

Leaders receiving the largest number of nominations in each community were identified. The 3 males and 3 females from each area receiving the largest number of nominations were selected and invited to participate. A back-up list was created for each community to replace selected leaders who did not meet criteria of the study or declined to participate. In compiling the back-up list, the researcher chose not to include leaders who did not receive at least 2 nominations. Two leaders identified themselves as not meeting the criteria of the study. Others simply declined or did not respond to the invitation. Low returns (21%) from the Roanoke nominating body and only two positive responses from its leaders selected to participate quickly depleted the back-up list of leaders for this community. It was decided to drop the Roanoke Community from the study. Table 2 shows the level of participation for each community.

A letter explaining the study and a one page information sheet was mailed to the top three nominated male and female leaders from each community. The leaders were

Table 2

Level of Participation by Community

Community	Leader Nominations Returned		Leaders Nominated w/2 or More Votes	Total Nominated	Leaders to Decline or Not Respond
	N	%			
Washington Co., TN	24	55%	74	192	3
Roanoke Co., VA	9	21%	19	95	13
Warren Co., KY	14	56%	27	89	6
Cherokee Co., GA	12	39%	25	63	3

Note. Roanoke Co., VA was dropped from the study due to low participation.

asked to complete the information sheet and return it to the researcher within two weeks of receipt. Completion of this gave the researcher information about the eligibility of the leaders, and indicated the leaders willingness to participate in all phases of the study. Upon receipt of the information sheet, leaders were sent a survey to complete and return in three weeks. After the survey was completed and returned, interviews were scheduled. Interviews began in early March and continued until June. Two interviews were done via telephone due to the leaders' unavailability when the researcher was in their community. A total of 18 interviews (6 per community) were conducted. Interview tapes were transcribed and compared to the notes taken during each interview. A coding system was created (see appendix E) to connect the interview dialog with the various aspects of the research questions. The auditors were given a set of interview transcripts and asked to select and code three of them, one from each county. Upon sharing definitions of each

category of inquiry (see the discussion of “bins” in chapter 3), and conferring with the auditors, it was determined that coding of interviews was credible and consistent between the researcher and the auditors. Interview transcripts and coding were then entered into QSR Nud*ist 3.0 (1996), a qualitative data analysis software. The research problem as defined in chapter one was addressed with survey and interview data integrated in response to each point of inquiry. The analysis of data began with a summary of characteristics of the selected leaders. Comparisons of participants to some occupational and community involvement characteristics of their parents is described. The impact of mentors, and high school and college cocurricular activities on leadership development is explored in great detail. Other influences such as: work, community service, and significant life experiences are detailed to discover influences on leadership development. Leadership outcomes for participants are reviewed, to study the paths taken by the participants. In each instance, any gender differences that are apparent are noted. As a qualitative study, this analysis of the data will show trends, and indicators for further research.

Characteristics of the Interviewees

By the design of the study 50% of the interviewees were women and 50% were men. All of them were Caucasian. (Three of the invited leaders were African American, however, one declined to participate and 2 were not college graduates.) Interviewees ranged in age from 27 to 65 years of age with two-thirds in their 40s and 50s. All but two are married. Ten (56%) have children at home. Six (75%) of the leaders with no children

at home are female. Only 3 of the leaders were the youngest child in their families. None were “only” children. These characteristics are listed for the selected leaders in Table 3.

Educational Characteristics of Interviewees

The collegiate alma maters of the leaders are listed by community below. The number following each institution indicates the number of leaders who are graduates of the institution if there were more than one. All but 4 (78%) were educated in public colleges and universities. Four attended the major research institution in their state. The 4 private institutions listed are all church-affiliated.

Washington County, TN

Bob Jones University, Greenville, SC

East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, TN (2)

Emory University, Atlanta, GA

Huntingdon College, Montgomery, AL

University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN

Cherokee County, GA

Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA

Middle Georgia College, Cochran, GA

University of Georgia, Athens, GA (3)

Winthrop University, Rock Hill, SC

Warren County, KY

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE

Loras College, Dubuque, IA

Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, KY (4)

Table 3

Characteristics of the Interviewees

Gender & Leader I.D. Number	Age	Birth Order	Marital Status	Number of Children at Home
Female 1	44	oldest	married	0
Female 2	27	oldest	married	0
Male 3	39	youngest	married	2
Male 4	49	oldest	married	2
Female 5	29	youngest	married	1
Female 6	50	oldest	married	0
Male 7	53	middle child	married	1
Female 8	44	middle child	divorced	0
Male 9	50	middle child	married	1
Male 10	47	oldest	married	2
Female 11	54	middle child	married	0
Male 12	61	middle child	married	0
Female 13	30	middle child	single	0
Female 14	49	oldest	married	2
Male 15	65	middle child	married	2
Male 16	53	oldest	married	1
Female 17	48	middle child	married	2
Male 18	50	youngest	married	0

Approximately 90% of the interviewees graduated in four to five years of beginning the baccalaureate degree. The two who did not were females: one who began college in her thirties and one who dropped out for a short time and finished on a part time basis. Almost half of the interviewees were first generation college students with a 50-50 mix of males and females in this group. Their graduation dates ranged from 1955 to 1993, with over half graduating in the 1960s and 1970s. Although most have continued their education with additional courses and degrees, only five (all men) went directly on to graduate school from the bachelor's degree. The other leaders went directly into employment or the military. The leaders' undergraduate majors in college showed 9 (4 males and 5 females) with choices in arts and sciences. One male majored in bible. Four male leaders majored in more traditional male fields of business, engineering, and pre-medicine while 4 females majored in more traditional female fields of home economics, education and allied health (see Table 4).

Role modeling by parents has been shown to play a part in the development and goals of their children (Daloz, et al, 1996). To study this impact, the questionnaire (items #6, 7, & 8) asked about parental educational levels, occupations, and community involvement while the leaders were in high school or college (see Table 5). The educational attainment of the parents of selected leaders was quite varied with no discernable pattern. Some parents were college graduates (12) while some did not finish high school (8). There were no apparent differences in educational levels of the parents of male or female leaders.

Table 4

Educational Data about Interviewees

Leader	Year of Grad. w/ BA	Age at Grad. w/ BA	Immediately After College Grad.	Undergrad Major	Additional College Education	1st Generation College Student
Female-1	1991	37	went to work	Social Work	Grd.Courses	yes
Female-2	1993	22	went to work	Com'cations	None	no
Male-3	1980	21	went to work	Math	MBA	yes
Male-4	1973	23	grad. school	Civil Eng.	M.Pub.Ad.	no
Female-5	1990	22	went to work	Home Ec.	None	no
Female-6	1971	23	went to work	Biology	Grd.Courses	no
Male-7	1968	24	went to work	Business	J.D.	no
Female-8	1978	25	went to work	Education	None	no
Male-9	1969	21	military draft	History	J.D.	no
Male-10	1974	23	grad. school	Pre-Med.	MSPH;MBA	no
Female-11	1965	21	went to work	Med. Tech.	Grd.Courses	no
Male-12	1959	22	grad. school	Liberal Arts	J.D.	yes
Female-13	1991	24	went to work	Broadcast.	None	yes
Female-14	1970	21	went to work	E.Child.Ed.	M. Ed.	yes
Male-15	1955	22	grad. school	Bible	M. Div.	no
Male-16	1965	20	grad. school	Chemistry	M.D.	yes
Female-17	1985	35	went to work	Com'cations	M.A.	yes
Male-18	1970	23	went to work	Business	Grd.Courses	yes

Table 5

Educational Levels of Parents

<u>Highest level of education</u>	<u>Male Leaders</u>		<u>Female leaders</u>	
	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers
Did not finish high school	2	1	3	2
Graduated from high school	2	4	1	4
Some college	1	2	1	0
Completed bachelors' degree	2	2	2	2
<u>Attended graduate school</u>	2	0	2	1

Occupations of Parents

Most participants' mothers did not work outside the home. For those who did, there appeared to be a higher incidence of careerism in mothers of female leaders in the study. Occupations are categorized as white collar (salaried workers such as management, professional, or office workers), blue collar (manual or industrial worker), and homemaker (see Table 6).

Table 6

Occupational Categories of Parents

<u>Parents' occupations while leader was in high school or college</u>	<u>Male Leaders</u>		<u>Female Leaders</u>	
	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers
white collar occupation	6	1	7	4
blue collar occupation	3	2	1	1
<u>homemaker</u>	0	6	0	4

Note. One female leader's father passed away before she finished high school.

Occupations of Interviewees

By comparison to their parents' occupations, all of the previous and current career positions of the leaders in the study could be classified as "white collar." All currently held leadership positions in their places of employment. Six of the nine women leaders had shown major shifts in their career paths. From teaching to real estate, or teaching to social service agency, or social service agency to banking, or medical technologist to museum work, these women did not have a "traditional path" in their career development. One male shifted from banking to county government work. However, the government position was one taken after retirement from banking (see Table 7).

Parental Community Involvement

Parents of the leaders showed a wide range of community involvement activities with religious organizations and PTA having the most reported involvement (see Table 8). Several items here indicate some differences for male and female leaders. Mothers of the female leaders appear to have more diverse involvements, including sports, professional associations, and civic clubs. Female leaders did not report any political involvements for either parent, and male leaders reported such interaction only for their fathers. This could be a contributing factor to the possible lack of political awareness for female leaders in their youth. All leaders reported much less involvement by fathers in PTA groups.

Table 7

Occupations of Interviewees

Leader	Current Position Type of Work	Previous Position Type of Work
Female-1	Executive Director Social Service Agency	Coordinator Youth Services
Female-2	Director of Business Dev. Banking	Coordinator Human Services
Male-3	President and CEO Banking	Chief Financial Officer Banking
Male-4	City Manager City Government	Assistant City Manager City Government
Female-5	President Chamber of Commerce	V.P. for Operations Chamber of Commerce
Female-6	Property Manager Real Estate	Teacher Middle School
Male-7	CEO and Owner Manufacturing	V.P. & Chief Op. Officer Manufacturing
Female-8	Executive Director Social Service Agency	Director Food and Bev. Innkeeper
Male-9	Lawyer Private Practice	Lawyer Private Practice
Male-10	Exec. V.P. and CEO Hospital	Regional V.P. Health Care Agency
Female-11	Director Museum	Medical Technologist Medical School
Male-12	Chair, Board of Commissioners County Government	President Banking
Female-13	Managing Editor Newspaper	Reporter Newspaper
Female-14	Executive Director Social Service Agency	Teacher Elementary School
Male-15	Senior Pastor Protestant Church	Pastor Protestant Church
Male-16	President University	V.P. & Dean University
Female-17	V.P. Marketing Health Care Agency	Assistant V.P. Marketing Health Care Agency
Male-18	General Manager Radio Station	General Manager Radio Station

Table 8

Parental Community Involvement

Parental Community Involvement as Reported by the Leaders	Male Leaders		Female Leaders	
	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers
No reported community involvement	1	2	1	1
PTA	2	7	2	6
Religious groups	4	4	4	6
Philanthropy and Service groups	7	3	4	5
Fine Arts	0	1	0	1
Social clubs	0	1	2	2
Chamber of Commerce	3	1	1	1
Adult leader of youth organizations	3	2	0	3
Professional associations	3	0	4	2
Political groups	4	0	0	0
Civic groups	2	0	2	2
Recreational sports	2	0	2	2

Interviewee Community Involvement

Current leaders were also asked to list their community involvement by identifying specific groups to which they belong, as well as to describe their civic involvement (see Table 9). Sixteen of eighteen selected “I am regularly involved with a number of different community groups” to describe their overall community involvement. Two selected “I am committed to a cause rather than a specific agency or organization.” The eighteen community leaders are very active in their communities through organizations. Patterns of gender differences include a greater likelihood for males to be

Table 9

Interviewee Community Involvement

<u>Community Group</u>	<u>Male Leaders</u>	<u>Female Leaders</u>
Service club	3	5
Social advocacy and awareness group	4	5
Mentoring group	0	2
Adult leader of youth organization	0	3
Social club	0	1
Fine arts	2	2
Religious group	7	7
Chamber of Commerce	8	8
Service agency	4	4
Philanthropy	6	5
Civic groups	5	2
Professional association	5	3
School booster, support group, or PTA	4	4
Political groups	5	2
Recreational sports	2	1
Multicultural group	1	0
Other	2	5

involved in civic and political groups, and for females to be involved in mentoring and leadership roles in youth organizations. A better balance has evolved in this group for males and females to be involved in school-related groups, as opposed to the leaders'

fathers lack of involvement in this area. If Putnam's (1995) theory about Americans joining community groups less frequently is true, hopefully some light will be shed on why the leaders in this group have chosen to be "joiners."

Interviewee Civic Involvement as Undergraduates and Adults

In response to recent data from the Cooperative Institutional Research Program's (CIRP) 1977 Freshman Survey (Higher Education Research Institute, 1997) related to civic involvement of college students, the leaders were asked to select responses that described their involvement as undergraduates and later as adults (survey items 14 & 28). Leaders also had to indicate if the behaviors were frequent or infrequent. The adult question set was larger to accommodate additional life experiences. Combined responses to survey questions 14 and 28 are shown in Table 10.

From college years to adult years, the leaders reported increased activity in working with others to solve local problems. All indicated that they voted regularly. They also more frequently contacted government officials about particular problems. Only males identified themselves as being active members of political parties, although men and women have campaigned for political candidates. Two community leaders (1 male and 1 female) have run for public office. Unlike the college students in the CIRP study (1997), these leaders as college students read the news and discussed politics.

Table 10

Interviewee Civic Involvement as Undergraduates and Adults

<u>Frequent Civic Involvements</u>	<u>Male Leaders</u>		<u>Female Leaders</u>	
	<u>As Undergrads</u>	<u>As Adults</u>	<u>As Undergrads</u>	<u>As Adults</u>
Work with others to solve local problems	4	8	3	8
Formed a group to work on local problems	N/A	3	N/A	5
Vote	8	9	5	9
Contacted government officials about particular problems	2	5	2	5
Engaged in discussions about politics	5	6	4	5
Inform others in community about political issues	N/A	4	N/A	2
Persuade others to vote	N/A	1	N/A	2
Participated in a group protest of a public issue	0	0	1	1
Send a messages to political leaders about their performance	N/A	2	N/A	1
Participate actively in a political party	N/A	4	N/A	0
Participate in a political campaign	3	3	1	2
Been a candidate for political office	N/A	1	N/A	1
Read newspaper or news magazine	7	N/A	4	N/A
<u>No frequent involvement</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0</u>

Note. N/A: A question appearing on only one of the two sets of questions.

Mentors

Mentors played an important role in the leadership development of the eighteen community leaders. The survey asked the leaders to identify whether or not they had mentor(s) in high school and later in college (items # 12 & 15). Their responses are summarized by gender of the participants and type of mentor in Table 11. The data showed indicators for gender differences in mentors of male and female leaders. Community members and coaches were identified as mentors to male leaders. Student Organization Advisors were mentors to female leaders. High school teachers were identified as mentors more often than college faculty. Likewise, the family mentor influence was more prevalent in the high school years.

Table 11

Types of Mentors

Leaders' Mentors by Type	Leader's High School Years		Leader's College Years		Total Number of Leaders	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Teacher/Faculty	3	4	1	1	4	5
Family	2	3	1	1	3	4
Alumni	0	0	1	0	1	0
Advisor of Student Organization	0	2	0	0	0	2
Coach	2	0	0	0	2	0
School Administrator	1	0	1	1	2	1
Community Member	2	0	4	0	6	0
Employer	0	0	1	1	1	1

Teacher Mentors

In the interview process, all but 1 of the 18 participants referenced a person from their high school or college experience as being very influential in their growth as a leader.

Their comments of teachers gave a glowing affirmation of the role of the teaching profession in preparing young people for leadership. Six of the 18 participants reported that they stayed in touch with these teacher-mentors long after they had completed high school and college. Comments about these faculty members and administrators included:

She must have seen something in me or something ... she was totally a mentor ... she taught me a lot of things about life and developing relationships.

College professors were the biggest influence on me ... they couldn't tell me enough of their thoughts.

The university president was a mentor to me. He wanted me to know and to be a part of that university. His family opened the president's home to me.

My twelfth grade government teacher taught us leadership. She believed in young people; gave everyone a chance to participate. She always said, we could be anything.

He was my science teacher, very strict and stern ... a fabulous teacher.

My science and Spanish teachers ... they had an enthusiasm and love for the subjects.

My English teacher was a very positive person to be around. She encouraged everyone in their gifts, and in what they did best.

A professor in journalism who enhanced my love of this business and helped me realize I picked the right thing.

My history teacher and cheerleading coach was motivated and respected for her academic and personal abilities. She was approachable and fair ... she believed in consequences for not complying with the group expectations.

My professor in that communications class was dedicated to his field, practical in how he taught. He taught me many skills about managing people and motivation.

Those lessons have really stuck with me. We still have a friendship.

A chemistry teacher ... he was a good guy who cared about you and challenged you. He pushed me a little bit harder.

A professor, who was also a priest, challenged me and supported me. He explained to me why it was important that you perform at a higher level more times than you perform at a lower level. He worked with me a long time academically ... I think it rolled over into a real life experience.

My high school band director demanded excellence and set very clear goals. Seeing the joys and benefits of teamwork ... I learned that the only way to succeed was through a team.

My college band director was also a big influence. He taught me vision, that you have to have an idea and a picture of what you are going to do.

My seventh grade teacher had more impact on me than anyone in the world other than my grandfather. I still think back to her today for the experience I had in her class. She prepared you for life. She prepared me for student government and student leadership. She would look me in the face and say 'the words "I can't do it" is never in your vocabulary.'

My college baseball coach overcame a lot of adversity in life. He tried to teach us that we may not have all the natural ability in the world, but if you work hard, you can be just as successful as anybody else.

My chorus director was demanding but related well to students.

My English teacher was encouraging and influenced a lot of kids in that rural area to consider college. She was a good motivator, a tough teacher ... expected a lot ... a teacher who loved kids.

There were two high school teachers, one in English and one in math ... she was kind, but you knew you had to do your homework. When I am trying to figure out proper grammar I think back to how she would have said it. This math teacher allowed me the opportunity to study in another subject area that I was very interested in.

The president of the university came down and invited me to be a part of his campus social group, to intermingle with coaches and upper administrators. As a twenty-year old kid, it made me feel a part of the campus, and the community.

The comments about these educators described individuals who genuinely cared about

and supported student growth and development. They taught life skills along with their academic discipline. They pushed and stretched their students to perform beyond expectations. They were role models and friends.

Family Mentors

Fifteen of 18 participants listed like-gender family members as mentors, usually males identifying males and females identifying females. Although male participants did reference both parents as mentors and role models, males were even more likely to mention male family members as mentors, especially stories and examples of interactions with their fathers and grandfathers. Female participants recounted many examples of mentoring relationships with their mothers and grandmothers. Even when parents were mentioned by females, the specific story mostly described the relationship between the daughter and the mother. Lessons learned from both parents were reported as: acceptance of all cultures, the value of community involvement, doing the right thing, equality, strong values and moral upbringing, a sense of responsibility, honesty, encouragement, high expectations, and service to others. Lessons from fathers described by male participants included: encouragement toward greater accomplishments than the father achieved, speaking in a public forum, consistency, integrity, and building a dream. One female participant reflected about her father, "... he came into play as we got much older. He was a little nervous around young children. We wanted to be just like our dad. He was everything. All the females have always talked about that. We always wanted dad to be proud of us. So we learned to do man things, not sports, but building and those kinds of things." Males described lessons from grandfathers as kindness and an ability to take

time for others. Lessons learned from mothers by males and females were: overcoming adversity, achievement, juggling additional burdens, encouragement to be anything I wanted, encouragement to do the things mother was not able to do, to be liked by all, strength and devotion, display of effort to go over and above the call of duty, how to be supportive, to be a parental role model, and determination. Females told stories of how grandmothers taught laughter and sometimes “broke the rules,” a family history and legacy, emotional strength, and determination. No males told about grandmothers, nor females about grandfathers.

Community Mentors

Having a community mentor in their youth was a clear difference of mentoring influences in the leadership development process of male and female participants. Only one female participant described any non-school, non-family role models during her youth. (The individuals she described were part of a national change movement in the 1960s and 1970s. She admired those who represented the fringe or counter culture on the national scene, as opposed to her local community.) Five male participants described important lessons learned from community mentors during the time of their youth.

In my summer job as a custodian, the head of the lab was like a second father to me. He lived across the street from me too ... was an outstanding man as a leader. In many of my friends families, at least one parent works as an engineer. It's a good chance you will end up in the same area.

My grandfather's house was the place to be on the Fourth of July. All the politicians in the county would come to that gathering to politic. I look back on my community and all these people who were leaders, they always gave something back to the community.

I admired a couple people in my community, one was an attorney who, with my

dad, could stand up and speak to a crowd on an impromptu basis. I really hoped to be able to do that. If you are involved in activities, it is seldom that you get involved in the real world. I met some people that became close friends and mentors. They made a strong impression on me. It was interesting to see people that were successful, listening to them talk, and work with them ... you were going to be like this person.

I had a number of ministers that were very influential. Our preacher was our nearest neighbor. I remember my pastor when I was in high school encouraged me toward ministry and gave me opportunities to help out in Sunday School. A growing sense of this makes me feel more wanted.

That would be the local boy, born and raised here, involved and connected. Where I grew up as a kid, we had two past chairmen of the Chamber of Commerce ... we just had a real good neighborhood, a lot of local folks at several banks, presidents and vice presidents, movers and shakers. They were also putting a lot into the community, a lot of extra hours, of being involved in civic clubs and that sort of thing. As I've grown up, I've had some great people that I've been involved with, who really steered me in some great directions, getting me involved, and that's great.

Work-related mentors were very prominent for men and were only reported by two female participants. Both women reported male colleagues who showed them the "ropes" in their first professional position. The interaction was not sustained over a long period of time (greater than six months), nor was it followed by other work-place mentors. Seven of the male participants report a steady stream of workplace mentors as they climbed the "ladder of success." In fact one male participant asserts that "If you get to the point in your career where you have no mentors, you have probably finished your career. You are kind of dead at that point, and you are not looking for anything to improve or accomplish." The male participants told stories of successions of mentors who had not only given advice, but also made introductions to important people in their fields, as well as arranged for appointments to important committees within their professional

associations and on local boards of directors. Not all male participants were enabled by positive mentoring relationships. However, the negative learning experience was just as important for some participants. Two male participants reported the mentoring relationship to be so positive, that the participant was included in the professional practice of their mentor's.

Peer group influence was mostly described by female participants in the study. Although not a typical mentoring relationship, peers influenced decisions regarding college, community involvement, and networks. One male and one female participant report that high school peers influenced their college major choice. Another female reported how an adult peer convinced her to try a college course. "My best friend just kept on me till I did, and of course, to this very day, I guess you know she has to be the number one person in my world." Two other female participants report how community women's organizations have provided a network of support for career decisions and running for political office. Male participants reported no similar influence from community group memberships.

Mentoring Others

Mentoring others is a function that the participants had not thought much about. Responses to this inquiry came slowly, and with mixed results. About one third of the participants felt they had been a mentor in a formal relationship. This response was equally divided among males and females.

The Influence of High School Cocurricular Activities

High school cocurricular activities in high school were studied through both the surveys and interviews of the leaders. The survey asked about their level of involvement in various pre-identified high school and community youth activities (items 10 & 11). They ranked each activity on a scale of one (low) to four (high) in terms of their own level of involvement. Participants also noted whether the activity advisor had a positive impact on that experience (see Table 12).

In their youth, these community leaders participated in a variety of cocurricular activities. Largest numbers of participation were noted in student government, athletics, social clubs, church youth groups, and work (part time jobs). Highest level of involvement is reported in student government, band or chorus, work, and church youth groups. Advisors of cocurricular activities with the most positive impact on the participants were from band or chorus, student government, athletics, and church youth groups. High school athletics was heavily participated in by the males in the study. In fact, if cheerleading was removed from the list of sports, there would only be one female from the study involved in athletics. It appears Title IX did not create opportunities for athletic participation, even from the youngest female members of the study. The youngest (age 27 and living in a large city while in high school) female participant in the study stated, "There were not a whole lot of sports in school then like they have now. I never felt like I was good enough to participate at school. I played softball three years and basketball one year for my church youth group. I never did it at school." What lessons did the survey participants identify as learned from athletic activities?

Table 12

Level of Involvement in High School Activities

High School Activities	Participants Involved						Level 1 (low)						Level 2						Level 3						Level 4 (high)						Positive Impact from Advisor					
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Student Gov.	8	6	14	1	0	1	3	1	4	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	3	4	7	1	1	3	4	4	7	1	1	3	4	3	4	1	1	4
Athletics	8	3	11	2	0	2	1	1	2	2	0	2	2	3	0	2	3	5	3	2	5	3	1	4	4	4	5	3	1	4	4	3	1	4	1	4
Academic Clubs	5	2	7	0	0	0	0	1	1	5	0	5	5	0	1	2	5	0	0	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	1	2	0	2	2	0	1	2	0	2
Social Clubs	6	7	13	1	0	1	1	2	3	3	2	5	5	1	3	4	1	2	1	3	4	1	1	2	2	1	3	4	1	2	2	1	3	4	1	2
Band or Chorus	4	5	9	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	4	7	3	2	5	0	7	3	2	5	5	3	4	7	3	5	5	3	4	7	3	5
Community Serv.	4	4	8	1	0	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	0	2	2	2	1	3	0	2	2	1	2	3	0	2	2	1	2	3	0	2	2	1	2	3
Dance	2	2	4	2	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Theatre/Debate	5	5	10	1	0	1	0	2	2	3	2	5	5	1	1	2	1	3	0	1	2	1	2	3	0	1	2	1	2	3	0	1	2	1	2	3
Yrbk./Newspaper	4	3	7	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0
Work	8	8	16	1	0	1	1	3	4	2	2	4	4	4	2	4	4	7	1	3	7	1	1	4	1	3	7	1	1	4	1	3	7	1	1	4
Girl or Boy Scouts	6	3	9	1	1	2	4	0	4	1	1	2	0	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	2	0	1	3	0	1	2	0	1	3	0	1	2	0	1	3
Church Youth Grps.	7	6	13	0	0	0	2	2	4	2	1	3	3	3	3	6	2	4	2	1	3	3	3	6	2	2	4	2	2	4	2	2	4	2	2	4

Note: Data is reported by gender of participants (M - male and F - female), and as a total group (T).

In cheerleading it was the projection thing, getting out in front of people and doing something that's a little different.

I think its like any team sport you play, it teaches teamwork in the workplace. If you want to be successful in life, you have to do a lot of team building with your employees in order to accomplish goals that are common to both of you.

In football you always hear that winners never quit and quitters never win. As you go through life, you get in situations where you want to quit. Football made a difference.

The team concept was one of the most important things I learned from youth athletics. I learned how to get along and how to put together a competitive team. We always wanted to be competitive.

Involvement in student government brought other learning experiences.

You had the opportunity to be an advocate, if you thought it would make a difference.

I knew I wanted to be a lawyer, and this gave me an opportunity to become involved with something constructive: to set objectives, to receive criticism, and hopefully receive praise. When you are given responsibilities you are expected to perform these beyond your schoolwork.

I learned a little bit about how things operate on a small scale, and the structure that goes into any organization or agency.

Losing the student council presidency at my high school to the quarterback of the football team was one of the best things that ever happened to me. And to loose in such a public way as well, everyone in that school knew I had lost. I learned a good lesson in life that sometimes it doesn't matter how strong and how good a person you are and how hard you might work. There are other people that are more popular, and can go about doing things differently than you. After I lost I went on with things at school. Shortly after that I was elected president of the state association of student council. I became his boss.

Group music experiences like band and chorus were reported as a very impactful activity in high school. Those involved were highly committed, and their music directors were noted as positively influencing the participants.

We were a great high school band. The quest for excellence, the demand for excellence, and at the same time there were very clear set goals. My understanding of teamwork was formed by this.

It took a commitment to be in the choir. You don't just show up and sing. You have rehearsals every week. I did that for six years.

The best thing about the band is the discipline. Nobody standing over you saying you have to practice. It doesn't work that way, it has to come from within. You are going to be challenged, have auditions and so forth. It does teach you to be a self-starter. You have to motivate yourself to go in and do the practice, and do enough of it so you will do well.

Church youth groups were important experiences for the participants of the study.

My youth group had 30 different middle schools and high schools represented in it. I had friends I didn't go to high school with because of my church.

I was president of my youth group in my senior year. That allowed me to serve with the adults on the church committees.

I grew up in church. I think that made a great deal of difference in how I approach situations. Faith can make a difference, sometimes.

A lot of the learning of leadership, or the viewing of leadership came to me through the church.

Youth group was a positive, reinforcing experience all the way through. It allowed opportunity to be in a leadership role. The social setting was different than it was in school, the ball field, or anything else.

Other clubs in high school were important in leadership development. Future Farmers of America, Future Business Leaders, and Future Homemakers of America were strong influences for some.

FFA taught leadership through conferences and camp. It was here I began to see the importance of a leader in a group.

FHA sponsored conventions all over the country. I met other teachers and students and stayed in other students' homes across the country. I saw how other families' customs played out in their homes. I'd like to go back to the faculty to say Out of Class was important. Social skills are important to learn.

FBLA allowed me to interact with other people, and exposed me to new ideas. I had to make speeches and presentations. This experience had a major impact on

my college major.

Global Perspective

Developing a global perspective as a young person is a newly discussed concept in the literature on leadership development (Daloz, et al, 1996; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). The researcher reviewed the interview transcripts for comments that related to “global perspective” -- expansion of a young person’s view of the life beyond their hometown, neighborhood, and immediate friends and family. The leaders in the study reported various degrees of this expanded vision. Two had fathers in the military and had lived and gone to school overseas, while others had fathers who had served in World War II and had heard stories of their experiences in Europe and the Pacific Islands. Most had traveled across the United States or to Canada several times on family vacations. Others had lived in urban environments or had attended churches and/or public schools that were not segregated. Several had been encouraged to read about other countries through frequent library visits as a young person, and by family subscriptions to magazines like *National Geographic*. Three others had family members who discussed current events with them on a regular basis. Several others had the benefit of travel to conferences because of leadership positions they held in school student organizations. Organizations mentioned most frequently, which encouraged such travel included band/chorus, Boys State, occupation-related clubs (i.e. Future Farmers, Homemakers, Business Leaders of America), Beta Club, and 4-H. Churches broadened youth horizons with programs led by missionaries and mission trips for the youth. Leader comments about their growing global perspective as youth included:

In talking to my father who had seen the world in World War II, I developed a zeal to be more than what the neighborhood and community offered.

I didn't fit into this population where people lived in one place all their life. My world views were just out of sync with them.

Having lived overseas, I was a senior in high school before I even knew there was such a thing as segregation.

I remember when Kennedy was president. How great it would be to join the Peace Corps. It sounded fantastic!

The Influence of College

Involvement in cocurricular activities dropped significantly between high school and college for the leaders in this study. Table 13 shows participation of the leaders in each of the activities during high school and college as reported in the survey (items 17 & 18). In every category except two, where the activity exists in both the high school and the college, the college level of participation dropped by at least half. Community service participation levels remained the same and academic and professional club involvement increased. Interview data provided possible reasons for the lack of continuation in similar activities between high school and college, as well as an overall drop in involvement:

I joined the SGA briefly when I was in college. It wasn't like high school. They didn't do much. I was bored.

I tried to continue with my music, but I found out I wasn't very talented.

I joined the Broadcasting Club. They were very involved in the Peabody Award, a very big deal in my field.

The Public Relations group brought in a few good speakers. I always went to those.

Many of the leaders were very goal directed, and concerned about grades while in college.

Spending time in cocurricular activities was not a priority. They commented about being so directed:

I came from a pretty typical blue collar family, so the goal was to get a job.

I knew that I wanted to be a lawyer, and was told constantly by my advisor, if I wanted to go to an accredited law school, I would have to maintain my grades. I took that seriously.

I was a highly motivated person with parents of high expectations. I was able to maintain a 4.0 GPA all through high school, college, and graduate school.

A music major was too risky in terms of a stage career, so I became a pre-med major.

I was a very serious young man who wanted to be a physician since he was 5 years old. I was determined to go to medical school.

I dropped out of scouts because I didn't think it was a good use of time. I didn't do a whole lot extra-curricularly. I wanted to make those grades.

My goal when I started college was to go a couple of years, buy a station, and drop out. I just wanted to learn a lot about the business end, to have my own radio station. Boy, was I stupid.

When I got to college, I was expecting grades to be such an issue. Then it became more I need to learn this stuff.

The biggest goal I had was wanting to be exposed to different experiences that would allow me to graduate and go into a job, not just any job, but a career.

Other majors may have been more interesting, but I had to have an income.

My mother and dad lived through the depression so they were very interested in my having some skills, and that there would be a need for those skills.

I quit athletic competition because I had to pay my way through college. My parents didn't pay for any of my college education.

Table 13

Comparison of Involvement from High School to College

Type of Cocurricular Activity	Leaders' Participation in College			Leaders' Participation in High School		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Student Government	3	3	6	8	6	14
Residence Hall Living Experience *	2	2	4	N/A	N/A	N/A
Community Service	4	4	8	4	4	8
Intercollegiate Sports/Athletics	2	0	2	8	3	11
Intramural Sports	4	1	5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Academic Clubs and Pre-Professional Societies	6	4	10	5	2	7
Programming Board	1	0	1	N/A	N/A	N/A
Social Fraternity or Sorority	1	2	3	N/A	N/A	N/A
Drama, Theatre, or Debate	2	0	2	5	5	10
Political or Social Action Group	0	3	3	N/A	N/A	N/A
Newspaper, Yearbook Broadcasting	2	1	3	4	3	7
Religious Group	4	2	6	7	6	13
Cultural or Ethnic Group	1	0	1	N/A	N/A	N/A
Honor Societies	2	2	4	2	2	4
Band or Chorus	2	1	3	4	5	9
ROTC	2	0	2	N/A	N/A	N/A

Note. N/A indicates that this activity was not listed as a high school activity.

* Appears under reported based on interviews with leaders.

Significant Life Events in High School and College

From high school to college, the leaders experienced significant life events that created challenging learning experiences. Realizing how their family's economic status compares to others, loss of loved ones, a miscalculation in decision-making all created circumstances that tested many of these leaders early. Two leaders dropped out of college for a time due to a life-changing event or just not having direction in their program of study. The Center for Creative Leadership refers to this kind of developmental experience as a "hardship" (Moxley, 1998). A hardship is not planned. The lessons were learned from such experiences through reflection after the encounter. The challenge from a hardship was an internal assessment of one's limitations, and a transition to a new identity.

My father passed away while I was in college. I worked days, and finished my degree going three nights a week. Following that I went to law school.

I was there for a more social thing. I had no idea what I wanted to do. I was not prepared. I went because that was the thing to do. I dropped out for a while, changed majors, and transferred. Then I became more serious.

I didn't know that I was poor until I went to high school. I thought everybody went to school barefoot in the summer.

My dad died when I was a junior in high school. The responsibility changed dramatically; I became more than the baby girl in the family. I have adapted a great deal over the course of my life. Part of that is because I had a lot of change come about in my life, and I had to be able to go on. I had a significant role, an adult role almost, as a child. I became a helpmate to my mom.

After two years I needed a break from college. I dropped out for two years, got married, came back, changed my major, and took one class per semester.

I maintained a 4.0 GPA, and was accepted into medical school. In 6 weeks I knew I had made a mistake. The medical school counselor worked to help me through

my decision to change careers.

Academic Experiences

Stories and descriptions about participants' various college classroom experiences describe eager students who were open to new ideas. One participant noted the expectations for class preparation set by the faculty member.

I tried one college class, and it was like where have you been all my life? It was the greatest thing that ever happened to me. I sat in the front row and soaked up everything they had to tell me.

At first I thought I could halfway prepare, and bluff my way through. I quit that. It wasn't going to work.

I was able to have a different rapport with the professors because I was older. I felt more comfortable with them, and would seek out extra help and have conversations that I probably wouldn't have at a younger age.

The liberal arts emphasis that I experienced is designed to stimulate your thinking, and allow you that process. I am very indebted to that. It instilled my ability to continue to learn and that is very important to nurture.

Residence Hall Living

Living in the residence halls was a positive collegiate experience for the community leaders. Although several participants did not indicate on the survey as having lived in a college residence hall, all but three reported such experiences in the interview. All those who did remarked on how important it was in learning how to get along with other people, and in learning how to be responsible for themselves.

Living on campus, I learned to be a friend to all. We are all there for the same purpose, no matter our backgrounds.

I probably learned more socially at college - knowing the people, and learning

how to get along with different communities and different backgrounds.

The first two years I lived on campus, and that was extremely important. I felt more socially connected with professors.

Living in a residence hall meant learning to be on your own and having certain responsibilities to myself and to others.

You meet people from outside your own community, you meet people from diverse backgrounds. You learn that people, whether you come from a farming community or a manufacturing community, people are basically the same.

You do meet a lot of diverse people, and that's important to see their ideas. That's when you really get a lot of different opinions on what you want to do.

Student Government, Greek Life, Athletics, and Other Organizations

Leaders who were involved in student government in college reported that they were less involved in the group. They described it as being the same experience as in high school, or a college group that did little. Involvement in a college band was not as frequent as in high school. One leader noted that she found out she was not very talented, and therefore dropped out. A more positive experience was reported by another leader who observed the director's ability to be organized, and to direct the movements of 250 people every week. One leader's tribute to Greek life described lifetime relationships and a home away from home "where the welcome mat was always out." Another leader involved in a campus literary society explained his experience as one of being stretched beyond one's comfort zone, a growth opportunity into new experiences. Athletics and intramurals provided leaders with an outlet for physical energy in a comfortable environment. Competition taught how to be comfortable with oneself and how to be comfortable with winning and losing.

Participants were asked to look back at their undergraduate college experience (survey item #23), and rate each of the factors listed in Table 14 as to its importance in their leadership education. Although college-level student organization and student leadership experiences played a moderate role in the leadership development of the study participants, there were other factors which played a more prominent role. In the opinion of the leaders in the study, contacts with other students, paid work experience, grades, and their academic major program played the strongest role in their leadership education. Also highly ranked were internships, community service work, classroom faculty contacts, campus administrator contacts, and programs the students coordinated themselves. Strong statements are made by factors ranked as “not important” or “not involved” by the study participants. Student group advisor contacts, participation in an off-campus leadership seminar, being part of a research project with a faculty member, athletics, and ROTC were rated lowest in terms of influence on leadership education of the participants. Two factors, internships and non-involvement in athletics, showed strong gender differences in their influence on participants. Doing an internship in college was a very positive experience in leadership development for female leaders. By the time these women leaders were in college, participation in athletic programs had ceased. All of the women in the study indicated that they were “not involved” in athletics in college.

Table 14

College Experiences Rated as to Importance in Leadership Development

Undergraduate College Exp.	Very Important				Somewhat Important				Not Important				Not Involved							
	M	F	T	T	M	F	T	T	M	F	T	T	M	F	T	T				
Student Organization Involvement	2	3	5	2	2	2	1	3	2	1	2	3	1	2	3	2	2	2	2	4
Student Leadership Experience	2	3	5	2	2	1	3	1	1	0	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	3	3	6
Student Group Advisor Contacts	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	3	2	2	3	4	2	2	4	2	2	3	5	5
Contacts w/ Students	5	4	9	3	3	3	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Campus Admin. Contacts	2	2	4	3	3	2	5	2	1	1	2	3	1	2	3	0	0	1	1	1
Classroom Faculty Contacts	1	3	4	3	3	3	6	2	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Student Coordinated Programs	2	2	4	2	2	3	5	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	3	3
Community Service	1	3	4	3	3	3	6	3	2	2	5	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
Athletics	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	3	9	9	12	12
Internships	1	7	8	3	3	0	3	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	2
Paid Work Exp.	6	7	13	1	2	2	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

Table 14 continued

College Experiences Rated as to Importance in Leadership Development

Undergraduate College Exp.	Very Important					Somewhat Important					Not Important					Not Involved				
	M	F	T	M	F	M	F	T	M	F	M	F	T	M	F	M	F	T	M	F
Grade Point Average	2	3	5	4	4	8	2	0	2	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Research Proj.w/Faculty	1	0	1	0	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	0	2	4	4	8	4	2	4	8
Leadership Course	3	1	4	1	2	3	1	1	2	1	0	0	1	2	3	5	3	1	2	5
Campus Lead. Seminar	1	0	1	1	3	4	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	4	7	4	0	3	7
Non-campus Leadership Seminar	0	2	2	2	0	2	1	0	1	2	0	0	2	3	5	8	5	2	3	8
Military (ROTC) Leadership Program	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	7	7	14	7	0	7	14

Internships and Paid Work

Many of the study participants described the development of a strong work ethic in their youth through family responsibilities and part time jobs.

We were all brought up to start working early.

I always had a job so that I could help with extras or spending money.

At a very early age of sweeping the floor or being the grease monkey on the equipment, I knew the business from the bottom to the top. If I hadn't been prepared, I probably would have failed the family.

Practices interfered with my work at my father's business, so I dropped out of sports. I worked all through high school and college there.

Work ethics are developed early in life. We had to come home from school, my brothers, sisters, and I, and bail hay, feed the chickens, etc. until dark.

Male participants tended to reference experiences with family business responsibilities, where as none of the women did. Their work experiences came from part time jobs outside the family or internships.

I knew I wanted to work with kids because I had done my internship in the juvenile division of the Police Department.

You talk about an experience. I am here working at their state headquarters. I was exposed to things I never thought a 22 year old could be exposed to. I got to travel with them for three weeks, attended committee meetings, and embassy receptions ... it actually turned into more than an internship. I was his assistant to the assistant on his main person on environmental issues. Then the offer came from the Clinton/Gore campaign ... the stories ... some of them were incredible stories. Meeting these people and working literally August through the middle of November, living on four hours sleep a night ... I did that and came back to school in January.

It was a great place to experience the clinical part because New Orleans had so many different clinics and needs. It was a great place to learn.

I did a double internship and worked through the election. When I came out of

college with the other experience ... CNN opened my eyes.

Male participants in internships commented on how they used their internships to analyze the workings of the organization. They were also supported and developed in their skills. One male leader commented about how weak his abilities were and wondered why they had bothered to keep him on.

Career Path as Adults

The male and female leaders in this study all hold leadership positions in their places of employment (see Table 7). The process of their arrival in these positions is very different, especially when studied through a gender lens. Most of the men had goals and plans. If the goal changed, they made new plans. They also had more than immediate goals. They had a future path in mind with several stops along the way.

Probably the first indicator of whether I was succeeding in my goals would be whether I was getting promoted.

Because at the age of 20, I knew the business from the bottom to the top. If I hadn't been prepared, I probably would have failed the family.

I was fortunate in getting into a big established practice. I was really pressing that environment early on.

I knew I didn't want to be a government employee all my life. I wanted to get into banking somehow. I went to speak to a good family friend about that, and before I left that day, I was an employee of the bank. Soon I was promoted and running another bank. I was making lots of money for the stockholders. So I quit, went out, and put together nine other people and started a new bank

I stayed focused. I knew I wanted to be a vascular surgeon and attend the best residency program in the country. I tried to be competitive to get that opportunity and I did.

The women's goals were more tentative. Because of the uncertainty about following their

dreams, several women had back-up plans to be teachers. Long term goals or planned career paths were not mentioned by the women.

I am not aspiring to be in his (my boss') position. I am aspiring to be respected by my peers as well as my boss.

The teaching came later, probably for a safeguard. It was more interesting to go on an archeological dig, but I knew I had to have an income. Unfortunately, I turned down a graduate assistantship and married a football player.

Now, I realize that I could have not stopped with the medical technology degree, and gone to medical school. I'm glad I didn't, because I wouldn't have my children. There are trade-offs.

I developed a career path while I was in my retirement, so to speak, from my professional background and developed an inventory of voluntary skills that has been very valuable to me.

I don't ever sit down and figure out goals. I am like one of those little balls in mazes that you try to get through. I don't know that I make things happen. They just happen and I deal with them. I didn't really have goals.

I also got a teaching certificate. I didn't have any real strong career direction when I got started. I got the teaching certificate because I wasn't sure what else I could do.

Community Service

Serving others is a powerful learning experience (Eyler, Giles, Jr., & Braxton, 1997). The interviewees shared stories of how involvement in community service impacted their lives.

I can remember being in second grade, and being involved in community service at a very young age. That exposed me to a lot of people with special needs - physical and psychological handicaps, medical conditions, and economic struggle. Those experiences, I feel, are the reasons why I am so involved in community service now.

It was a continuation of service for me. It was never really a career thing. It was more of a cause.

In middle school I started doing community service work, now it is a way of life. My children are involved in this now too.

The success or failure of United Way depends on people like myself giving their time and effort. I went from one point of 'you have to do it' to another point more recently where 'it's your obligation.'

It's like my grandfather said about the land, you can't continue to take from the land; you have to put something back if you want it to continue to produce. It's the same with community work and leadership roles.

Somebody came to me and said would you be willing to help? So I felt pushed because of the need. At first, I wasn't real comfortable in that place of leadership. Then there was this growing sense of satisfaction to be involved.

Political Involvement

As adults, many of the interviewees currently are, or have worked in the political arena. There did not appear to be gender differences in this area in the adult years. Only 2 leaders (1 male and 1 female) reported strong negative feelings about involvement in politics. Two leaders were actively involved as candidates for office, 2 worked in government jobs, several have served on governmental committees as consultants, and 1 is married to a political candidate.

Significant Life Experiences

Significant life experiences gave some of the community leaders unexpected educational moments in their lives and in their leadership development. Some leaders faced moves to new communities at critical points in their youth. Some lived in areas and time frames that allowed them to experience segregation and

desegregation. Several grew up in rural areas, others in urban communities. One leader lost a parent while in high school; another while in college. One leader's parents divorced when she was young, and later the mother had a life-threatening illness. Two were married while in college. One grew up in poverty. Two had fathers who were in the military, and therefore, had lived overseas. One of these individuals was involved in working against the Vietnam War issues, while the other leader has had a life threatening illness needing accommodation. Moxley wrote (1998) that "the challenge built into hardship is the challenge of adversity. It means being uncomfortable in new roles, being tested by fire, learning by doing in tough and demanding circumstances." All of these experiences impact how one lives a life and the choices that one makes.

Advice to Future Leaders

Reflecting on the sum total of each of their experiences, the interviewees were asked to describe important characteristics of leaders and leadership, give their personal definition of leadership, share lessons they have learned, and offer advice to future leaders. Their definitions incorporated a sense of determination and action, combined with an ability to work with other people in a supportive and motivational environment. Important characteristics of leaders included such qualities as honesty and integrity, giving back to community, vision, teamwork, communication and people skills. Advice for leadership development incorporating such experiences as a broad-based education, community awareness, learning from role models, investigating career paths, and knowing yourself. The lessons they have learned over time are varied and rich.

When the leader values the persons on the team, the goals seem to be secondary.

Leadership -- it's something you can make yourself better or worse, and you need to work on it.

How you do the job is just as important, maybe more so.

Expose yourself to life. Be flexible.

Leadership is not always pleasant.

Your resume is not what leadership and community are all about.

You can't continue to take without giving back.

The book is a "damn" good guide. Take the book, put in life experiences ... get results.

People want to be able to get to the moon on a tricycle. The leaders job is to raise their vision ... to build the rocket.

A detailed summary report of these reflections is located in Appendix F.

The next chapter will relate the patterns and trends from the data of this study to the current practices in leadership education, particularly in higher education.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of college cocurricular experiences on the development of leadership. Eighteen current leaders in 3 similar sized communities were identified, and given surveys to explore their cocurricular and community involvements as youth, as high school and college students, and as adults. Interviews were conducted to hear the stories that described the people and significant life experiences that were a part of their leadership development. This information was analyzed and integrated to create a picture of leadership education as a process of development. The process to develop as a leader begins as a young person and continues through adulthood, with family, school, community, church, and work influences all playing a teaching role (Daloz, et al, 1996).

As a qualitative study, research “findings” were reported as patterns and trends that reinforce other studies in the literature or that offer new possibilities to explore through qualitative and quantitative methods.

As a group the nominated leaders were mostly ages 40 through 59. There are several reasons why younger adults were not represented in higher numbers in the leader nominees. As a learning process that develops over time, leadership may not always be consistently exhibited by young adults. Opportunities for leadership may also be difficult for young adults to obtain (Gardner, 1990). For individuals to be recognized by others as

leaders takes time, and involvement with current community leaders. For young adults to step forward in a community leadership role, a support mechanism is needed. In the group of young adults from this study, support came from employers, churches, mentors, and knowledge about community needs.

The process of nomination by United Way Board members to be considered as a participant in this study required that the leaders in the study be visible leaders. It also indicated that the leader was probably involved in some form of community service as an adult.

Although birth order was not given major attention in the study, the participants tended not to be the youngest child in a family. Seven of 18 leaders were oldest, 8 were middle children, and three were youngest. Some studies have shown a strong correlation between being the oldest sibling and taking leadership roles (Bass, 1990). This study showed that these community leaders were least likely to be the youngest child. They were much more likely to have been oldest or middle children.

The women participants identified as leaders tended to be at a life-stage where they did not have children at home. Only 3 female leaders had children at home, whereas 7 male leaders did. Arnold emphasized the family trade-offs women made to accept leadership positions (1993).

Educationally, participants were graduates of mostly public colleges and universities in the southeast, not surprising since the communities used in the study are in the same geographic region. Gender differences appeared in graduate school opportunities for the study participants. All males in the study took some graduate

classes or completed graduate degrees. Five males went directly on to graduate school after completing the Bachelor's degree; no females did. Furthermore, 4 females have never continued their formal education.

Parents of the study participants had wide ranges of educational levels and a variety of occupations. Patterns that emerged in this data focused on the participants' mothers. Most of the leaders' mothers were "stay-at-home" moms, a more typical pattern for the generations they represent (DiMona & Herndon, 1994). Within this small group, however, more mothers of the female leaders were "working" moms, mothers working outside the home, and were involved in more diverse community activities than mothers of the male leaders. Such diverse activities and memberships for these women included sports, professional associations, and civic clubs. Mothers of female leaders may have influenced their daughters as role models of active, career women. The participants' fathers had much less involvement in school-related organizations for their children than did the mothers. These groups include school booster organizations and PTA. This behavior is different for the leaders in the study, as they, males and females, were equally involved in such school groups for their children. In contrast, no male participants indicated that they served in the community as adult leaders of youth organizations, although their fathers did. There was an overall increase in the rate of joining behaviors for current leaders as compared to their parents. Since parent information was gathered from the leaders, this difference could be attributed to the lack of knowledge the participants had about their parents. The study participants report many more groups and types of groups in which they are members. Contrary to some observations of American

society (Putnam, 1995 for example), their behavior demonstrated a high value placed on joining.

Political involvement was different for male and female participants and their parents. Female leaders reported no political involvement of either parent. Male leaders reported that some of their fathers were members of political organizations. This trend influenced how comfortable or active the female leaders were in the political arena. The survey data showed that male leaders were more involved in formal political party groups than were the female leaders. However, both males and females actively campaigned for candidates of their choice; all vote regularly; and two (a male and a female) successfully ran for public office. The CIRP Freshman Survey (Higher Education Research Institute, 1997) reported alarming drops in the interest and engagement of college students in their interest and involvement in political activity. These leaders exhibited behaviors in college that would classify them as being politically interested and engaged: read newspapers, discussed political issues, contacted government officials about particular problems, and voted. Data from the study also showed growth in those behaviors as the participants move from college to adult years.

Mentors played a significant role in the development of these community leaders. Stories of family members, teachers and community members and what they had done for the participants were told to the researcher with a great deal of emotion and love. For the researcher, it was one of the most rewarding parts of the interview process. Analyzing who mentored whom revealed several patterns of influence for the participants. Family members and middle/high school teachers were the most frequently mentioned

individuals as mentors. For the female leaders, it was mothers and grandmothers who influenced their development as family mentors. For the male leaders, it was fathers and grandfathers whose family mentoring stories were told. Most participants had more than one mentor through their youth, college years and adulthood. Middle/high school teachers, including high school student organization advisors, were remembered as much more influential than college professors or administrators according to the participant's stories. Outside of family and school related mentors, females reported no mentors other than some special friendships developed through community organizations when they were adults. This network of friends proved influential in persuading one female leader to go to college and another to run for public office. Only male leaders reported mentoring from coaches of athletic teams and community members. They did not discuss influence from friends. Workplace mentoring was also only reported by males. Two women reported some "new job advice" offered by males, but true workplace mentoring with referrals to important positions on professional association committees or local boards of directors was reported only by males. In the interview, when asked if the leaders mentored others, there was almost always a long pause. Responses to that question had repeated tones of "I need to do a better job of that." Most mentoring done by the participants was reported as informal. Mentoring others was not a behavior more predominant in males or females.

Participants reported that high school cocurricular activities were meaningful learning experiences in their leadership development. Activities attracting the largest number of leaders as participants were student government, athletics, social clubs, church

youth groups, and part time jobs. Those activities which had the highest level of involvement (defined as commitment and learning experiences) by the leaders were student government, band/chorus, church youth groups, and part time jobs. Stories from the leaders reported learning discipline, loyalty, teamwork, and advocacy skills as well as gaining self-confidence and an ability to work with others. The data showed group music experiences were especially strong leadership learning environments for youth. High school athletics was a positive learning experience for most males. Few females participated. In fact, if cheerleading were excluded, only one female leader competed on an athletic team in high school. Title IX was not law when most of the participants were in high school, and therefore sports opportunities for women were very limited when most participants were in school. Another series of student groups was reported as very influential in the leadership development of participants. The Future Farmers/Homemakers/Business Leaders of America offered many seminars and opportunities for leadership development of high school students. Travel to regional and national conferences, band competitions, and church mission work provided many leaders their first experience away from their home communities. Most leaders described this travel opportunity as their first steps in the development of a more "global perspective" (Daloz, et al, 1996).

College cocurricular activities were not as popular among the participants as high school activities. The level and rate of involvement dropped for the participants through their college years. They reported that college activities were the same experiences as in high school or that the college groups did not accomplish much. Leaders' involvement in

community service was maintained at the same level as in high school while involvement in academic clubs increased. Leaders described themselves as “focused and serious” students while in college. Future career goals and grades were stress-producing factors that also got in the way of involvement at the same level as in high school. Living in residence halls was the one college cocurricular learning experience to which the leaders gave consistent positive endorsement. Most of the leaders had a residence hall experience in college, and reported that it taught them how to get along with and be more accepting of others. They reported this as another learning experience that broadened their “global perspective” (Daloz, et al, 1996). The survey asked participants to rank the importance of specific college experiences in their leadership development. Those clustered in the very important category were interactions (informal) with other students, work experience, grades and academic major. Clustered in the important category were internships, community service work, classroom faculty, campus administrators, and student coordinated programs. For women especially, internships were very influential experiences. No female leaders were athletes in college. Two of the females were in college after Title IX had become law, however, the regulations are still being implemented and interpreted over twenty-five years later (Snowden, 1997).

Leaders learned to have a strong work ethic when they were young. Most had part time jobs or worked in the family business. Most took advantage of internship opportunities while in college. All went directly to work, the military, or to graduate school after completing the undergraduate degree. The female leaders tended to have short-term, practical career goals; several with back-up plans to be teachers. They

reported having difficulty picturing themselves in high level positions. Some gave up completing their degree or seeking additional education in order to get married. They talked about the trade-offs they had to consider in order to have a career and a family. The men did not discuss compromises made in career plans to accommodate their families, although one man shared concerns about community activities interfering with family time. The male leaders in the study had long-term career goals, and plans laid out to achieve them. Most knew what and where they wanted to work, and had benchmarks in mind to measure their progress towards success. The career paths for the men were logical progressions of responsibility in the same or related fields. Friends' and family businesses were springboards to careers and future opportunities for the men. Career paths for the women participants were dramatically different. Little thought and future projection beyond the first job was discussed by the females. In fact, most acknowledged not having a long-term career plan. Many planned to teach or use teaching as a fall-back career. Most had taken a major shift in their careers between seemingly non-related jobs. Flexibility to take advantage of new opportunities seemed to be the method for advancement in their career path.

Significant life experiences also played an important role in the growth and development of these leaders. Being raised in the military, frequent moves, illness or death of a family member, and growing up in poverty all contributed to the learning experiences of these individuals.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Higher education has made claims for many years about its influential role in

leadership education through cocurricular activities (Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Komives, 1996). This study suggests an apparent “weak link” in higher education’s cocurricular activities as a significant factor in leadership development. The researcher was able to analyze the participants’ discussions of high school cocurricular activities from interviews as well as survey question responses. The intensity and detail of the responses as well as the length of time spent in describing these experiences demonstrated that high school activities were considered much stronger learning experiences by the interviewees.

Differences in the nature of high school and college environments may explain why the college experience is weaker. High schools are highly structured learning environments, even in the cocurriculum. Teachers are very “hands-on” advisors to student groups and activities, and spend a large amount of time interacting one-on-one with the students and the experience. Most teacher sponsors of such activities receive supplemental pay for this work, and are, therefore, valued by the institution. Many of the high school activities are connected to the sponsoring teacher’s courses and may take place during a class period. Contrast the high school cocurricular learning environment with the college cocurricular environment. In college, students are considered “adults,” to plan and do what activities they wish. The cocurriculum is managed by a small staff within a division of student affairs, usually unconnected to the academic side of the academy. Advisement for student organizations is not required by many institutions. Those that do require advisors for student organizations have no criteria or consistent expectations for faculty and administrators who serve in those roles. Advisors to college

student groups are mostly faculty who are rewarded for research and teaching, not advising.

Eight of the participants were in college during the 1968 - 80 time frame when involvement in traditional cocurricular activities was questioned. Although none of the participants' alma maters was considered to be in the limelight for such activities, the national climate at that time could have impacted the activity level and choices for some participants.

Knowing the research about program characteristics and student learning outcomes (Eyler & Giles, 1997), the current structure of cocurricular activities in higher education will not accomplish its mission -- to educate and develop future leaders. Eyler and Giles (1997, p.63) describe the key program elements and structure necessary to make a difference in a student's personal, social, or intellectual growth. Reflection and integration are key elements that create intentional learning connections for the student. The current model of cocurricular programs in higher education demonstrates that leadership learning opportunities are available, but that there is no one there to intentionally guide the student's reflection on the experience, and then integrate it with the student's other learning goals and experiences (Kuh, et al, 1991). Duration and intensity are additional elements that impact the student's learning. Studies (Kraft & Krug, 1994; Kraft & Swadener, 1994) show programs that involve students over a long period of time are more powerful. Experiential programs of less than one academic year duration show little increase in the student's learning and development. Students also perceive programs of longer duration to be of higher quality.

It is the recommendation of this researcher that colleges and universities that are serious about leadership education utilize the best practices of program quality as demonstrated by the service-learning model outlined by Eyler and Giles (1997). Utilizing the practices of this model, a cocurricular leadership program would be developed with an intentional plan. Included in this plan are connections to the academic learning experience through faculty and related courses, guided experiential learning opportunities, and institutional commitment to the process for at least an academic year with each student involved.

Not to be lost in this focus on higher education is the demonstrated impact K-12 teachers had on the development of future leaders. Teachers, principals, and school boards need to celebrate their success by conducting additional research with larger samples, and communicating to the public their impact on future leaders. Teacher and principal preparation programs should consider requiring demonstration of mentoring skills as necessary tools for educators.

Preparation programs for higher education professionals in student affairs have a tremendous role to play in this metamorphosis of cocurricular education. Teaching future student life professionals the best practices of program quality and how they relate to student learning is imperative. Providing opportunities to work in partnerships with faculty as well as other student affairs professionals needs to be part of the internship experience for the master's degree. Current preparation programs include courses of study in counseling, administration, programming, research, and student development theory, with practicums in student life areas. Such programs need to teach how to construct

meaningful experiential learning experiences. Student affairs professionals need to know these skills in order to take their place as educators in the academy.

This study has identified a potential cause to the problem of women's lack of career direction. The literature review in chapter two explored this concept of "tacit knowledge," a type of career understanding that is not explicitly taught, but one that is understood through our socialization process (Arnold, 1993). The female leaders in this study reported strong mentoring from mothers, grandmothers, teachers, and their network of friends as adults. Male leaders in the study were mentored by fathers, grandfathers, teachers, and community members. Career goals and paths were decidedly different for the male and female leaders. This socialized knowledge of careers and career paths for the male leaders is connected to having male and community mentors. If males have traditionally succeeded in the arena of career development, having male mentors from the community can be fundamental to having tacit knowledge. If women were to have community mentors as a young person, as many males in the study did, there could be a significant increase in women having better understanding of career planning -- tacit knowledge. Arnold (1993) believed this problem in tacit knowledge was due to lack of faculty mentoring. Because this study showed strong faculty mentoring for males and females, this researcher believes additional study should be done regarding male and female career success, male and community mentors, and the concept of tacit knowledge.

As valuable as mentors were in the stories reported by the leaders, the art of becoming a mentor is a role more leaders should learn about and commit to doing. As higher education improves its leadership education programs, teaching mentoring skills to

faculty, administrators, and future leaders is highly recommended.

Leadership is an action that involves people in groups. Putnam (1995) described American society as becoming a society of “non-joiners.” The value of community building and people working together is recommended to be integrated across the curriculum of higher education institutions. Divisions of student affairs in higher education can take a leadership role in involving faculty and students to create learning communities across the curriculum. Learning how to work in groups as well as valuing group effort over individual accomplishment are important concepts in leadership and civic responsibility. As technology pulls the educational process into an impersonal communication between students and faculty in off-campus venues, across greater distances, higher education has a responsibility to integrate group learning experiences within this distance curriculum. Research in achieving such learning outcomes for college students involved in distance learning is increasingly important.

The final set of recommendations, as told to this researcher by the 18 community leaders (see Appendix F), is an excellent blueprint for higher education as the academy works to develop integrated learning experiences as part of its role in the leadership development process. In this part of the interview, the leaders were asked to define leadership, and to offer advice to college students on their leadership development process. This researcher calls those in higher education to heed the advice of these leaders as leadership programs are being developed. The most important skill areas identified by the leaders were teamwork, ability to relate to all with sensitivity to differences, and oral and written communications skills. Other highly ranked abilities

included giving to -- not just taking from -- the community, vision, credibility/ integrity, accepting challenges, determination, ability to make decisions, and understanding the process of how to get results. The leaders' top advice to college students are those things higher education has long promoted:

Explore; prepare broadly; and be involved in many things.

Be aware of community; have responsibility to others; make this place better.

Be patient and learn from experience; be a lifelong experiential learner.

Is higher education taking steps to implement these recommendations with its students? Although colleges are working to encourage students through programs such as service-learning, experiential education and internships, continuing education, and student activities, the core requirements for graduation usually do not require students to participate in such learning experiences. Upper division professional preparation programs do tend to require an internship. Most college catalogs describe such learning experiences as available options, not as part of an integrated educational plan. The Kuh et al. (1991) study of "involving colleges" describes several models of campus-wide, integrated educational plans that incorporate recommendations comparable to those of the leaders in this study. This researcher recommends that an integrated educational plan that incorporates these recommendations be developed and communicated to students, and that such a plan be incorporated into accreditation criteria, performance funding and other outcomes-based assessments of higher education.

The picture of leadership education is one that begins in childhood though influences of family, church, youth activities and school. In adulthood it continues

through career experiences, church, and community organizations. Higher education takes credit for playing a major role in leadership development (Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Komives, 1996). Specifically, collegiate cocurricular activities claim to play a significant role in this leadership development effort (Astin, 1996). However, the leaders in this study identify high school cocurricular activities, mentors, and college internships as much more significant in their development. Male leaders did select different learning paths from the women. Athletic opportunities for men were much greater than for women. Title IX's slow implementation has not yet leveled this playing field. Understanding how all these experiences influenced the leaders in this study will help guide the development of similar inquiry with larger groups in other regions of the United States, resulting in a more intentional and integrated plan for leadership development of its citizens.

Suggestions for Future Research

This researcher cannot emphasize enough the importance of having both a written survey and an interview from which to investigate the leadership development of each participant. The depth and details of the interviews combined with the specificity of the surveys created a picture of the development process for the leaders in the study. Few of the research questions could have been answered by relying on only one method of inquiry. This researcher strongly recommends the use of both methods to gain a rich and more complete view of the leadership development process.

Now that this project is complete, some questions emerge and one remains unanswered. The impact of Title IX on women's leadership development through

athletics could not be appropriately addressed with this population. The implementation of this legislation has been so slow, participants of this study did not benefit from the changes that resulted. This researcher recommends that future research investigate the impact of this legislation on leadership development. The evidence here suggesting a weak influence of college cocurricular activities on leadership development of the study participants raises questions about the college cocurricular experience itself, and those students who do participate in it. What kind of leadership roles are they involved in today? What were their leadership learning outcomes? This researcher recommends future research on college graduates who were involved in college cocurricular activities. Specific interest areas include a longitudinal look at their leadership roles after college and inquiry about their significant leadership learning experiences. Although previously mentioned, research about community and male mentors and their influence on men and women in their leadership development will be important to the ongoing discussion of the concept of tacit knowledge.

Most important is the continued look at the experiential influences on leadership development in all phases of a person's life. Higher education can play an important role in leadership education if it learns how to effectively teach through a process of development that utilizes the best practices of experiential education. Continued research about the impact of experiential learning and the lifelong developmental process of leadership education will provide educators the tools needed to teach through quality learning experiences.

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NOTE TO USERS

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UMI

APPENDIX A

Community Leader Survey

· General Information ·

Your last name _____

1. Age: Your age _____

2. Sex: Please check your sex:

Male

Female

3. Marital status: Please check your marital status?

Single

Married

Significant relationship

Divorced

Widowed

4. Children: Do you have children at home? Yes _____ No _____
If Yes, how many? _____

5. Please check your ethnic category.

White/caucasian

Mexican American/Chicano(a)

African American/Black

Puerto Rican

Native American

Other Latino(a) _____

Asian American

Other _____

· Family Information ·
This section contains questions about your parents, their education,
and community involvement.

6. Parent's education: Indicate your parents' level of education when you entered college.

	Mother	Father
Elementary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some high school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
High school graduate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enrolled in college also	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
College graduate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some graduate work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Graduate degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Parents' Occupation: When you entered college, what were your parents' occupations? (Fill in the blank.)

Mother _____
Father _____

8. **Parental Community Involvement**
 While growing up and through college, my parents were members or participated in the following:
 (Please complete as much as possible - even if you do not remember the specific organization.)

#	Type of Activity	Specific Organization	Father	Mother
1	Service and social clubs (e.g., Rotary)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Political	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Civic/governmental	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Professional association	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	School-related (e.g., PTA)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Social awareness/advocacy groups	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Recreational sports (e.g., Little League)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Performing/fine arts	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Religious	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Cultural/ethnic	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Outreach/mentoring (e.g., Big Brothers)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Chamber of Commerce	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Neighborhood Association	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Service Agency (e.g. Red Cross)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Philanthropy (e.g. Cancer Society)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Adult leader of youth organization	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	Other _____	_____		

· High School Involvement ·
 This section asks about your activities while in high school.

9. What high school did you attend?

Name of school

City State

Year of graduation? _____

Approximate size of your graduating class? _____

10. **High School:** Please indicate the type of activities, your level of involvement, and if you were an officer in the following activities

✓	Type of Activity	Level of Involvement				(✓) If you remember the adult advisor to this group as having a positive impact on you	(✓) If you held an office
		Low 1	2	3	High 4		
<input type="checkbox"/>	Student government	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Sports	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Academic clubs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Social clubs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Band/Chorus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Community service	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Dance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Theatre/Debate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Yearbook/Newspaper	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Work after school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	N/A	N/A
<input type="checkbox"/>	Work during summer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	N/A	N/A
<input type="checkbox"/>	Scouts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Youth/church group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Other _____						

11. Please list Awards received while in High School. Please include such items as: Eagle Scout, Gold/Silver Award, All State Band/Chorus, Valedictorian, Salutatorian, Who's Who, Athletic Player of the Week, Conference Athlete, National Honor Society, Boys/Girls State, etc.

12. A mentor is defined as a more experienced person who recognizes and supports the emerging competence of others, challenges limited notions of possibility, and offers themselves as beacons toward significant purpose. Did you have a mentor in high school? _____ Yes _____ No

If YES, was this person:

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| _____ a student | _____ a coach |
| _____ a teacher | _____ a school administrator |
| _____ a family member | _____ a community member |
| _____ an advisor to a student organization | |

•Your college career and life immediately after graduation•
 This section contains questions about your undergraduate years and what you did after graduating from college. Included are questions about academics, student activities and involvement, attitudes and your first job.

13. **Major:** What was your college major/minor?
 _____ Major _____ Minor

14. **Civic involvement:** Using the scale provided, please indicate how often you engaged in each of the following as an undergraduate.

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently
I engaged in discussions about politics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I worked with others to solve local problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I contacted local, state, or federal officials about specific problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I took an active part in political campaigns	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I read the newspaper or magazine similar to Time or Newsweek	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I voted in local and national elections	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Did you have a mentor in college? _____ Yes _____ No

If YES, was this person:

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| _____ a student | _____ a coach |
| _____ a faculty member | _____ a campus administrator |
| _____ a family member | _____ a community member |
| _____ an alum of the college/ university | _____ an employer |
| _____ an advisor to a student organization | |

16. **Athletics:** While in college, were you a member of campus athletic teams? _____ Yes _____ No

If Yes, what sport(s) did you play? _____, _____, _____

How many years did you compete? _____, _____, _____

Did you hold a leadership role on any of the teams? _____ Yes _____ No

If Yes, please specify:

17. **Activities:** Please indicate the types of activities that you were involved in as an undergraduate student. Check all that apply. Then give the name of each organization and whether you were an officer.

√	#	Type of Activity	Specific Organization	√ If you held an office
<input type="checkbox"/>	1	Student governance	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	2	Resident Life	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	3	Volunteering/Public Service	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	4	Intercollegiate sports	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	5	Intramural/recreational sports	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	6	Academic Interest club	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	7	Program Board	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	8	Service fraternity	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	9	Social fraternity/sorority	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	10	Drama/Theatre	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	11	Pre-professional (med,law, PT)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	12	Political/social action	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	13	Student newspaper/magazine/yr.book	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	14	Religious	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	15	Cultural/ethnic	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	16	Honor Societies	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	17	Band/Chorus	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	18	ROTC	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	19	Other	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. **Reasons:** Look at QUESTION #17. Note that each type of activity has a number. Of the activities that you checked, choose up to four activities that were *most important* to you when you were in college. Put the number corresponding to each of the four selected activities in one of the spaces below.

19. **Graduation:** What year did you graduate with your BA/BS _____

Age at graduation? _____

Name of college/ university? _____

Number of years to complete BA/BS? _____

20. **After graduation:** What did you do in the year immediately following graduation?

- I went to work right away.
- I went to graduate school
- I took some time off and then went to work
- I traveled. (How long? _____)
- I looked for a job.
- Other, what? _____

· Leadership After College ·
 In this section, we are seeking information about your employment, graduate, education, work, community and civic involvement.

21. **Current Occupation:** In the space below, please provide information about your current position and your most recent previously held position.

Present Position

Title
 Organization
 Profession
 Length of time in this position ..
 Duties

Most recent Previous Position

Title
 Organization
 Profession
 Length of time in this position ..
 Duties

22. **Education:** Have you continued your education beyond your bachelor degree? (Check all that apply; indicate area of specialization.)

- No additional course work
- Some graduate course work Area (e.g. bus., education) _____
- Masters Type (e.g. M.Ed., M.B.A.) _____
- Doctoral course work Area (e.g. sociology, econ.) _____
- Doctorate Type (e.g. Ph.D., M.D.) _____

23. Looking back at your undergraduate experience, rate each of the following factors according to how important you think each was to your leadership education.

	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important	Not Involved
Student organization involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Student leader experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Student group advisor contacts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Contacts with fellow students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Campus administrator contacts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Classroom faculty contacts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Campus program/event I had helped coordinate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteer work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Member of a campus athletic team	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internships	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grade Point Average	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Major	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Research project with a faculty member	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Specific course I took related to leadership development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Campus sponsored leadership seminar participant	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Non-campus sponsored student Leadership Conference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
ROTC (other military) Leadership Program	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

24. Describe your first leadership experience after college.

25. Leadership in the Workplace: Please check these work activities which are present in your current position; in your previous position.

	In Current Position	In Previous Position
Do you hire/fire employees?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Can you authorize purchases?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you supervise employees?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you make policy decisions?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you initiate new ideas?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you authorize trying new ideas?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you coordinate a workteam?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you chair a committee?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you own your own business?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you participate in the Chamber of Commerce?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you represent your business/agency in community settings?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you represent your business/agency in professional meetings?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you persuade others about your vision/concept for the future of your department/business/agency?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Have you mentored a colleague?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

26. Levels of community involvement: Check the one statement that best describes your level of community involvement.

- I do not participate in community activities.
- I am rarely involved in community activities.
- I am involved in community activities occasionally.
- I am regularly involved with one agency or organization.
- I am regularly involved with a number of different community groups.
- I am committed to a cause rather than a specific agency or organization.

27. **Type of Activities:** Please indicate types of activities in which you are currently involved. Check all that apply. Then provide the specific name of the organization, indicate whether you are an officer, the approximate number of hours per week you spend on the activity and the number of years you have been involved with that activity.

√	#	Type of Activity	Specific Organization	√/If you are an officer	Years of involvement
<input type="checkbox"/>	1	Service and social clubs (e.g., Rotary)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	2	Political	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	3	Civic/governmental	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	4	Professional association	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	5	School-related (e.g., PTA)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	6	Social awareness/advocacy groups	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	7	Recreational sports (e.g., Little League)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	8	Performing/fine arts	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	9	Religious	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	10	Cultural/ethnic	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	11	Outreach/mentoring (e.g., Big Brothers)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	12	Chamber of Commerce	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	13	Neighborhood Association	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	14	Service Agency (e.g. Red Cross)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	15	Philanthropy (e.g. Cancer Society)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	16	Adult leader of youth organization	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
<input type="checkbox"/>	17	Other _____	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

28. **Civic involvement:** Indicate how often you have participated in the following:

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently
I have worked with others to solve local problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have formed a group to work on local problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have contacted local, state, or federal officials about particular problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have participated in group protest of a public issue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have helped organize protest of a public issue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I vote in local, state and national elections	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I engage in discussions about politics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I send messages to political leaders concerning their performance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I inform others in my community about politics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I try to persuade others to vote in a certain way	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take an active part in political campaigns	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I participate in a political party between elections as well as during election time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have been a candidate for political office.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Thank interviewee for time and assistance and give a short description of purpose of study.

Review a couple demographic questions from the survey. Follow with....
How many siblings do you have? Are you the oldest /youngest /middle child?

Who did you admire as a child/ young person? _____

- In your youth, what experiences provided you with a more global perspective allowed you to interact with individuals from other regions, states, countries or cultures? Travel?

Friends/Guests?

Reading?

Discussions?

Now follow with:

- What kinds of skills and behaviors do you think successful leaders possess?
- What kinds of learning experiences helped you develop these strengths? (Interviewer will reference items from the demographic survey.)
(Work, School, Family, Role Model, College, Cocurricular Activities)
- In your youth, I see you were involved in _____ (from survey). How did your participation in this activity impact your development as a leader?
- In high school, I see you were involved in _____ (from survey). How did your participation in this activity impact your development as a leader?
- In college, I see you were involved in _____ (from survey). How did your participation in this activity impact your development as a leader?
- In looking back on your undergraduate college years, what learning experiences relating to your development as a leader do you appreciate most?

- What were your goals when you started college?

What were your goals when you completed college? Were leadership roles part of that plan?

Have you ever experienced a negative outcome in your leadership development?

- In looking back on your own development as a leader, who were/are the most important people - mentors - in that process? Who were these individuals? What did they do?

- Were you involved in athletics? Describe your involvement?

- Were you in the military? When? In what capacity?

- What are your goals related to leadership now?

- Have you served as a mentor to another?

- What is your personal definition of leadership? Has this definition changed over time? Why?

- Advice for current college students and future leaders in their leadership development?

- Anything you thought I'd ask that I didn't?

APPENDIX C

Correspondence to Community United Way Board Members

Deborah H. White
2805 Avondale Dr.
Johnson City, TN 37604

November 10, 1997

FIELD(Board Member)
FIELD(Business)
FIELD(address)
FIELD(city/state/zip)

Dear **FIELD**(Mr. Name)

I am a doctoral student at East Tennessee State University beginning a research project on *leadership* for my dissertation. I am seeking to learn how college life impacted the development of successful leaders. As a community leader and board member of your local United Way Agency, I know you can help me with this project. Mr. C. V. Dinsmore, Chair of your Advisory Board, has agreed to support the United Way Board's involvement with this study. Because the United Way touches all aspects of a community, I felt that you and your colleagues on the Board would be ideal to help me identify a broad range of leaders from Cherokee County.

The enclosed chart will help you to think about the various aspects of a community in which leadership is shown. For each area of leadership that I have listed, please try to identify the name of someone in your community who is a successful leader in that realm. Please also try to provide the address, phone number, and gender of each nominee for each category. It is OK to not have a nominee in each of the categories on the chart. However, please try to have an equal number of men and women total on the chart. Please return the nomination chart to me in the enclosed, stamped, self-addressed envelope by November 30, 1997.

Tabulating yours and your Board colleagues' nominations, I will send a letters to those persons most frequently nominated, and ask them to participate in this study. (Your nomination does not force them to participate.) I thank you in advance for your time and cooperation in this project. If you have any questions concerning the study or how to complete the nomination form, please call me at (423) 439-5675 (daytime) OR (423) 282-2388 (evening) or by e-mail WhiteD@etsu.edu .

Sincerely,

Deborah H. White
Director of Student Activities
East Tennessee State University

encl.

Leadership Nomination Chart

Instructions:

Please list by name those persons you would identify as leaders who reside in Warren County (as well as the towns within) and exhibit leadership in the interest areas noted on the attached chart. Feel free to list several persons in each interest area or to leave some categories blank. It is not necessary to have a person identified for each interest area. You may attach pages or write on the back if you need more room.

Examples: (1) Sally Smith, County Commissioner who championed more citizen input to decision-making processes would be listed as a leader in the area of government.

(2) Joe Green, a teacher who lead the fundraising drive for a new food bank facility would be listed as a leader in the area of community organizing.

(3) Marsha Johnson, a nurse who directs a clinic to treat the homeless would be listed as a leader in the area of health care.

(4) Sam White, a teacher who developed an alternative school for at risk students would be listed as a leader in the area of education.

It would be helpful to have an address or phone number so that I can contact these individuals to possibly arrange an interview later. Please list the community leader even if you do not have an address or phone number.

Because this study is also interested in tracking experiences of male and female leaders, please list an equal number of men and women on this chart, and label their listing (M) for male and (F) for female. You do not need to have equal numbers of men and women for each interest area, only equal numbers in the total numbers of names on the entire chart.

Time periods can sometimes play a role in determining the kind of educational opportunities that were available in college. Knowing the approximate age of the nominee will be helpful. (I will not reveal how old a nominee was thought to be.)

Please also note that the nominated leaders must currently reside in Warren County, and have completed a bachelor's degree. (Knowledge of your nominees' college graduation is helpful, but not necessary as we will verify this in the next step of the process.)

Keep in mind the following definition of a leader when selecting your nominees:

“Leaders are people, humans with all their strengths, weaknesses, and special traits. They are people who are persuaded to accept extra responsibilities in the workplace or in the community, persons who seek out a position of advantage to promote progress toward valued goals, individuals who take charge in order to help a group achieve important objectives, people elected or appointed to a position who want to make a difference, and people who simply have a compulsion to get things moving” (Clark & Clark, 1992, pp. 2-3).

Leadership Nomination Chart

Interest Area of Leadership	Leaders in my Community	Address and/or Phone	Male/Female	Approximate Age
Agriculture				
Arts				
Board of Directors				
Business				
Civic Groups				
Community Organizing				
Education				
Finance				
Government				
Health Care				
Human Service Agency				
International Relations				

Labor				
Law				
Mass Media				
Military				
Minority Groups				
Natural Resources				
Religion				
Youth/Children's Issues				
Other:				

_____ Total # Men

_____ Total # of Women

_____ Your Name

_____ Your United Way

Thank you for your time and support of this study. Please return this Leadership Nomination Chart in the enclosed, stamped, self-addressed envelope by November 30, 1997. If you have questions, please don't hesitate to call me at (423) 439-5675 - daytime or (423) 282-2388 - evenings.

Deborah White
2805 Avondale Dr.
Johnson City, TN 37604

APPENDIX D

Correspondence to Community Leader Nominee

Deborah H. White
2805 Avondale Dr.
Johnson City, TN 37604

Leader Nominee
Street
City, ST Zip

Dear Leader Nominee,

I am conducting a research study on the influence of college co-curricular experiences on leadership development. I hope to learn from current community leaders the kinds of college learning experiences that lead to their success. This study is my dissertation topic in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at East Tennessee State University.

Through a survey I conducted last month, members of the United Way Board in your community have identified you as a successful *leader* in Washington County and the cities within. As a community leader, I am asking that you be a participant in this study of leadership development. If you choose to participate, you would be asked to:

- 1) Meet the two criteria on the agreement form. (see enclosure)
- 2) Return the enclosed agreement form by January 26, 1998.
- 3) Complete and return a questionnaire by February 13, 1998. This questionnaire would be mailed as soon as the agreement form is received. It will require 30 minutes of your time to complete.
- 4) Schedule an in-person interview with me between February and May of 1998. I will be traveling to your community to conduct these interviews, and will be willing to accommodate your schedule. Interviews are estimated to last 90 minutes. (Most all participants will be asked to participate in an interview.)

Please indicate your participation agreement response on the enclosed form, and return it to me by fax at (423) 439-4386 or by utilizing the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope.

If you have any questions about the study or the process, please feel free to call me at (423) 439-5675 - daytime OR (423) 282-2388 - evenings. I can also be reached by e-mail at WhiteD@ETSU.EDU.

Thank you in advance for sharing you leadership development story with this research project. If you would like to receive a summary of the final research project results, please indicate this on the enclosed agreement form.

Sincerely,

Deborah H. White, Director
Student Life and Leadership
East Tennessee State University

LEADER PARTICIPATION AGREEMENT

Name _____

_____ Yes, I will participate in the research study on leadership.

_____ No, I cannot participate at this time.

If yes is your response, please complete the following:

This research study requires that participants must have lived in their current communities for at least two years and be college graduates.

Please indicate the date(s) you have lived in _____. From ___/___/___ To ___/___/___;
If you lived in this community at another period of time, what were the dates?

From ___/___/___ To ___/___/___; From ___/___/___ To ___/___/___

Please indicate institution, year of graduation and degree.

_____ 19_____ BA / BS in _____

_____ 19_____ Other Degrees _____

Mailing Address you prefer the researcher to use:

Phone Number you prefer the researcher to use:

E-Mail Address:

Fax Number:

_____ Yes, I would like to receive a summary of the results of the study.

Voluntary Participation - Participation in this study is voluntary. Participants may ask questions or withdraw at any time. The nature of the project has been explained to me and I understand what my participation involves.

Every attempt will be made to keep the identities of the study participants confidential. The general results of this study may be published or presented at meetings without naming specific participants. Specific, identifying information will not be released unless required by law. The interviews will be audio recorded to allow for accurate reporting and auditing of the study.

Signature of Leader Participant

Date

APPENDIX E

Auditor Instructions

AUDITOR INSTRUCTIONS

To Ronnie and Sally,

Thank you again for agreeing to be auditors for my dissertation. As I am sure you remember your final process, I am on a timeline. Ideally, your part of the data analysis needs to be completed and back to me by noon on July 17. If this is not possible, please call me to negotiate an alternative date. I estimate that your portion of the analysis - this audit - will take 4-5 hours. It can be done in pieces or all at once.

Using the attached chart and enclosed highlighters, please code three interviews from the folders I have provided. Please select one interview to code from each of the three states, Tennessee, Kentucky, Georgia. (Please note that from the initial three chapters I provided last winter, Virginia was to be included too. However, there was not enough participation to warrant inclusion in the study.) You may select at random, one from each folder. I have enclosed blank copies of documents used by myself and the interviewees for your information. The transcribed interviews do have a few typos, and blank spots where the volume level of the tape and/or background noise made it hard to hear. I do not believe these few places will affect your understanding of the material. The purpose for your auditing my work is to be sure my interpretation of the passages in these interviews agrees with an independent review - namely you two.

Based on the literature review and the research questions, I have defined several categories for coding. These are described on the chart. I have tried to make it easy by providing highlighters for you to code by. Using the color indicated on the chart, simply highlight the word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, etc. that you believe fits the definition of the category. In some cases there were two categories that overlapped. If you find similarly, simply draw brackets [] in the second color around the passage that applies. A couple questions may not appear to be covered by this coding process. They are being summarized by a listing, and do not need coding.

If you have any questions about this process, please call me at work at X5675 or at home at 282-2388. Happy coloring .. er .. coding. Many thanks!!!!

Debbie White

CATEGORY OF CODING	DESCRIPTION OF CATEGORY	COLOR OR METHOD OF CODING
SIGNIFICANT LIFE EXPERIENCE	A life experience that can cause change. ex: death of parent, major illness, living overseas, service in a war, poverty level upbringing, ..	turquoise highlighter
COMMUNITY MENTOR	A mentor who is not a relative or employed by an educational institutional and who you perceive to be at least five years older than the interviewee	orange highlighter
FAMILY MENTOR	A mentor who is related by blood or marriage to the interviewee	green highlighter
TEACHER/SCHOOL MENTOR	A mentor who is employed by a K-12 school or institution of higher education	blue highlighter
PEER MENTOR	A mentor who is in the same age range as the interviewee, particularly during the school and college years	yellow highlighter
YOUTH AND HIGH SCHOOL ACTIVITIES	Out-of-class activities	see below
ATHLETICS	Team and individual sports and cheerleading; including those sponsored by community leagues and churches	lilac highlighter
STUDENT GOVERNMENT	Includes student councils class officers, and homeroom representatives	pink highlighter
GROUP MUSIC EXPEREINCES	Included band, orchestra, chorus, choir	yellow highlighter
OTHER CLUBS AND ACTIVITIES	Includes any school or community organized youth activity other than church-related ex: Beta Club, Future Farmers, Future Homemakers	blue highlighter
SCOUTS	Boy or Girl Scout experience in grades K-12	purple highlighter

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE	In years K-12, evidence of interaction with others from, or knowledge of regional, national, world cultures, events, people,...	orange highlighter
CHURCH YOUTH GROUPS	Includes any organized youth organizations within a religious group	red highlighter
COLLEGE ACTIVITIES	Organized activities outside the classroom, particularly during the undergraduate years	see below
ATHLETICS	Team and individual sports, intramurals, and cheerleading	green highlighter
STUDENT GOVERNMENT	Student governance type positions	yellow highlighter
RESIDENCE HALL EXPERIENCE	Interviewee lived in college owned housing or Fraternity House or Sorority House for any amount of time as an undergraduate. Also includes work on housing staff - RA/RD	turquoise highlighter
OTHER CLUBS / ACTIVITIES	Other organized activities within the purview of higher education ex: Sororities, fraternities, band, academic clubs	lilac highlighter
COLLEGE INTERNSHIPS	Organized placements in work opportunities related to a course of study, sometimes required in the major	pink highlighter
WORK	All part time for full time work the interviewee did while a student in K-12 or college	pink highlighter
DIRECTEDNESS OF STUDENT	Evidence of non-goal direction or very goal directed, knew I was going to..., expected to..., pushed for the top grades, ...	red highlighter
ACADEMICS - COLLEGE	Classroom experience that was impactful, other than mentoring role by faculty	blue highlighter

COMMUNITY SERVICE	Any work done by interviewee for a non-profit agency or public issue in K-12 or college or as an adult	purple highlighter
ADULT COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS	Non-church groups such as Rotary, Chamber of Commerce, ..	yellow highlighter
MILITARY	Evidence of time served in the military in an active or reserve capacity, to include ROTC	orange highlighter
MENTORS OTHERS	Evidence of mentoring others as an adult in a formal or informal way	purple highlighter
CAREER PATH	Comments regarding planning a career strategy, evidence of planned movement, promotion,...	blue highlighter
GROOMED FOR JOB	Evidence of a network of professionals looking out for the upward career movement of an interviewee	orange highlighter
FELL INTO JOB	No evidence of career plan, not much relationship between course of study and career, by luck happened to be in the right place at the right time	lilac highlighter
HOPEFUL / UPBEAT	As adult, excited about work / project / future plans	turquoise highlighter
ADULT FAMILY ISSUES	As an adult, concern about marriage and family	green highlighter
POLITICS	Experience with and comfort level with political situations as an adult	red highlighter
REFLECTIVE	Evidence as an adult of having thought about, analyzed the paths that their life has taken before this interview	pink highlighter

APPENDIX F

Interview Data: Advice from Community Leaders

DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

Provide a vision where groups of people should go. Helping those people reach that vision.

The ability to move forward.

The ability to lead and to follow; to motivate and be motivated.

Someone who is dedicated to the enhancement of the quality of life of the citizens.

A blend of someone who is able to make a decision and carry it out, but also has the ability to depend on others to guide you in areas you are not familiar with.

Leadership is a quality possessed by humans. It is the desire to accomplish something that is positive for all.

Leaders help others want to be a part of something, to be leaders themselves.

A good leader is someone who surrounds themselves with good people. It involves getting out of the way of other people, and letting them develop. It is doing what is good for everyone that is involved.

Translating ideas into action.

A cluster of personality traits in people, learned at an early age from family and life experiences.

A Leader is someone who can maintain their own personal beliefs and standards, and at the same time stand and represent the people he or she represents. Being elected or appointed to a position, does not make one a leader.

A leader is a person who is willing to step up to the plate and do whatever is necessary to try to fulfill that need. Leadership is being responsible with what we have and use it for the good of all.

Working with someone and giving guidance as well as having them express their ideas.

The role of a leader is to put people in an environment that motivates them. Leadership is getting people to attain goals that they themselves couldn't attain, or don't think they could attain.

Leaders are respected and work to make positive changes for people.

CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS & LEADERSHIP

Ability to build a team of the future; teamwork; recognize the talents of colleagues |||||

Ability to relate to other people (empathy, graciousness, compassion) |||||
(Including respect for, and sensitivity to the cultures, religions, economic class,
and politics of others)

Communication skills (esp. listening, writing, presenting, articulate) |||||

Giving to not just taking from community; leave it better than you found it ||||

Vision ||||

Honesty / Credibility / Integrity / Ethics ||||

Risk taker, likes challenges ||||

Determination / Stamina / Self-motivated |||

Ability to make tough decisions and follow through |||

Results-oriented; understands the process of how to get from here to there |||

Dedication / Commitment / Loyalty ||

Work ethic ||

Successful; share success with the team ||

Not for personal gain; unselfish; without personal agendas ||

Ability to motivate others ||

Willing to take the flack and the heat; to control one's emotions in a volatile situation \

Ability to handle a multitude of things in a short period of time \

Creativity; ability to think outside the box \

Flexible \

Enthusiastic \

**Delegates to others **

**Leaders are personally never satisfied; strives for perfection **

**Seek advice before deciding; know what you can and can't do **
(Organizational Culture)

Ability to predict and comprehend the ramifications of a decision

Patient

Outgoing

Influential

Organized

Pleasant

Ability to bring out the good in others

High energy

To be themselves

Appreciative of others who have paved the way

Share; no surprises

Self-confident

Sense of humor

Approachable

Aware of others perceptions of her/himself and the situation

LESSONS LEARNED

Even though the textbook may say this, that doesn't mean that's the only way to go.

The book is a "damn" good guide. Take the book, put in life experiences ... get results.

The hardest thing is to listen to what they are saying and act accordingly.

If you end in micro management, you either had the wrong philosophy or you had the wrong team in place.

Do something everyday to make a difference.

Leadership - it's not something that you're as good as you're ever going to be, or as bad as you're going to be. It's something you can make yourself better ... or worse ... and you need to work on it.

Leaders make others believe it can happen. People want to be able to get to the moon on a tricycle. The leader's job is to raise their vision ... to build the rocket.

When the leader values the persons on the team, the goals seem to be secondary. The outcome is usually that the goals are met and mostly exceeded. The coach doesn't say "get out there and win;" instead the message is "have fun and do your best."

People with lots of money, and a successful business in the community should not be assumed to be leaders. When you get to know them, they are not leaders, they are owners. There's a big difference.

How you do the job is just as important, maybe more so.

Expose yourself to life. Be flexible. Allow experience to help make you a person you are and can be.

Sometimes we search for what our purpose is; if you are true to yourself, your purpose will be fulfilled.

Believe in yourself.

Your success is related to your beliefs, not just in God, but in other beliefs.

You have to have a lot of faith and perseverance, going back to what you learned as a youth, and you have to be able to go over and beyond this level.

**Leadership is not always pleasant. **

Don't think you are so important that you can't be replaced.

Hire people of different leadership styles than your own. Allow their skills to complement yours.

**How you spend your time today impacts how you will spend it in your future.
Community service is expected of me, more than I realized when I was in college.**

Don't take defeats personally. Keep up your spirits and keep moving.

Your resume is not what leadership and community are all about.

When we die, the only things we can take with us is what we have given away.

There are people out there who are not going to jump on something until its proven.

Don't be afraid of failure.

You can't continue to take without giving back. Somebody has to do it.

We can make a difference in the world.

ADVICE FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Be involved in many things; explore; prepare broadly \\\

Be aware of community; have responsibility to others; make this place better \\\

Be patient and learn from experience; be a lifelong experiential learner \\\

Study role models; emulate the good ones, learn from the bad ones \\\

Make contacts, do career-related experiences, learn about career path \\\

Understand what qualities you bring to the table, your boundaries, and your motivation \\\

Learn to communicate well: to be sincerely interested in people; to sell yourself, your thoughts, your goals \\\

Learn about yourself; care what others think about you \\\

Be well read \\\

Join professional organizations \\\

Have a passion for your purpose \\\

Find quality time for yourself \\\

You don't have to be president to be a leader \\\

Avoid negatives; eliminate "can't" from vocabulary \\\

Make use of resources / ask for advice \\\

Get some hands-on, real-world experience \\\

Have respect for yourself

Look for and be selective about your mentors

Persevere

Reflect on your work

Learn to listen

Be creative, think outside the box

Know your objective

Always know you are not the final authority

Pace yourself

Take the time to learn to be a good leader

Know that leadership is not easy

Remember, the textbook is not “gospel”

Work for the common good

Do the right thing even though it may not be the easiest route.

Ethics is important

Don't be afraid to take on new responsibilities

APPENDIX G

Auditor Letter: Dr. Sally S. Lee



East Tennessee State University
Associate Vice President for Student Affairs • Box 70725 • Johnson City, TN 37614-0725 • (423)439-4210
Fax: (423) 439-6454 • E-mail: lees@etsu.edu

September 22, 1998

To Whom It May Concern,

My involvement in this research was to be the independent overall auditor. Through this process, the principal investigator and I were able to verify that she utilized a consistent analysis system. This audit assures a standard of truth and rigor were adhered to by the researcher.

In chapter 3 of the dissertation, the researcher outlines the methods and procedures utilized and these were all followed with respect to this audit. Using the instructions and chart in Appendix E, I audited the process. In order to accomplish this task, I read and marked with color coding the many aspects of the study. My color coding was consistent with the researchers on one case from each county.

Therefore when put to the test of an independent review, I feel confident that the researcher's interpretations of the passages in the interviews were consistent with the literature review and research questions. Consistency was also evident when comments could be interpreted as representing more than one concept or category. I observed total equity in the interpretation of comments made by males and females within the study. This process resulted in credibility and confirmability being assured.

The process of an audit in qualitative research is important to assure the researcher adheres to the standards specified in the study. It is my opinion that this researcher did follow her plan and was truthful to the concepts being studied.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Sally S. Lee".

Sally S. Lee, Ed. D.
Associate Vice President
for Student Affairs

APPENDIX H

Auditor Letter: Dr. Ronnie D. Gross

East Tennessee State University
Student Support Services • Upward Bound • Veterans Upward Bound
Office of TRIO Programs • Box 70714 • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0714
(423) 439-5396, 5619, 5310 • fax (423) 439-7300

October 5, 1998

Ms. Debbie White, Director
Student Activities Center
P.O. Box 70,618 ETSU
Johnson City, TN 37614-0618

Dear Ms. White,

Please accept this letter as verification of our meeting to review the coding of the interviews regarding leadership development that you conducted for your dissertation research. I agree with the minor changes that we discussed.

I commend you on selecting and researching such an interesting topic. I must say that it was an educational experience to review the interviews. I was honored when you selected me to participate in your study.

Good luck in finishing your research and your dissertation! If I can be of further assistance, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,



Ronnie D. Gross, Director
ETSU TRIO Outreach Programs

VITA

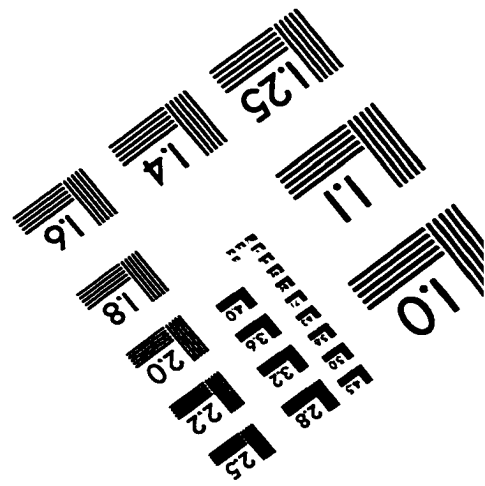
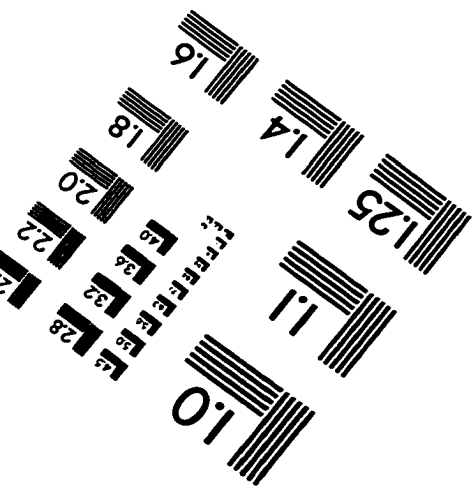
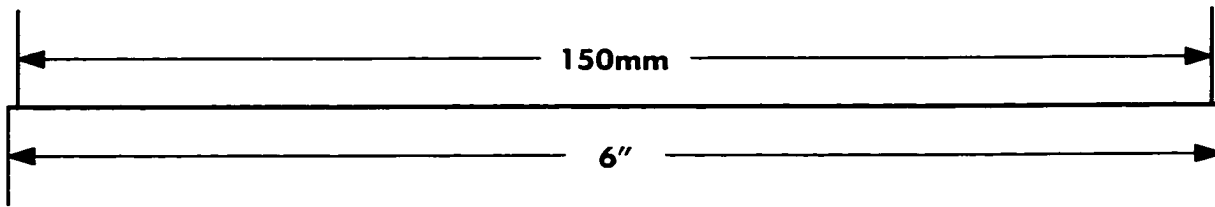
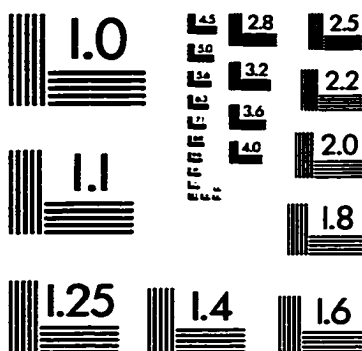
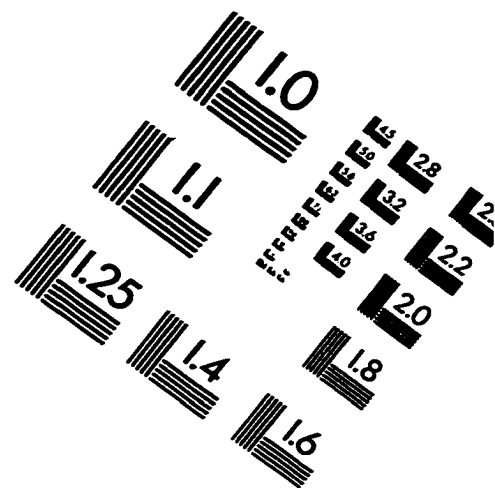
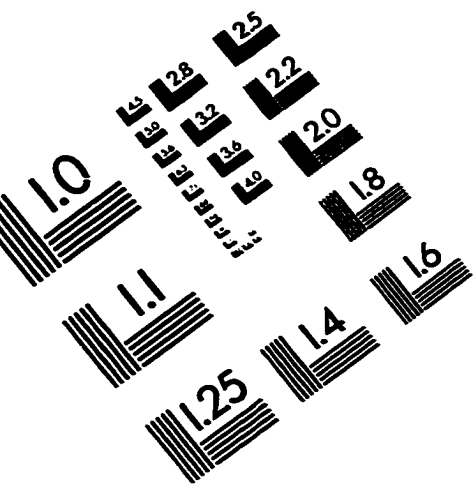
DEBORAH H. WHITE

VITA

Deborah H. White

- Education:** University of South Florida, M.A., 1977
 University of South Florida, B.A., 1975
 St. Petersburg Junior College, A.A., 1973
- Professional Experience:** Assistant Vice President for Student Life and Leadership
 East Tennessee State University; 1998 - present.
- Director of East Tennessee Consortium for Service-Learning
 East Tennessee State University; 1994 - present.
- Director of Student Activities, East Tennessee State University;
 1993 - 1998.
- Assistant Director for Student Activities, East Tennessee State
 University; 1985 - 1993.
- Director of Orientation and Communter Affairs, University of
 Maryland Baltimore County; 1978 - 1982.
- Publications:** Case study of a service-learning project in a nurse-managed clinic for
 homeless and indigent individuals. In Caring and community:
 Concepts and models for service-learning in nursing. AAHE's Series
 on Service-Learning in the Disciplines, 1998.
- ACPA Commission IV Newsletter, Guest Editor, 1997
- Community service on college campuses: Empowering and enabling
 students to act, Programming 27(4), October, 1994.
- Honors and Awards:** Tennessee Higher Education Community Service Award (95); Alpha
 Xi Delta Foundation Scholarship (95); Order of Omega Doctoral
 Fellowship (94); Phi Kappa Phi (94); NACA Donald McCullough
 Scholarship (92); Kappa Delta Pi (91); Phi Delta Kappa (91); Who's
 Who Among Students in American Universities and Colleges (75-76)

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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