

**PERCEPTIONS OF THE CAPACITY FOR CHANGE AS A COMPONENT OF  
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AS REPORTED BY SELECT POPULATIONS  
OF COLLEGE STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR COLLEGE STUDENT  
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT**

A Dissertation

by

SHARRA L. DURHAM HYNES

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of  
Texas A&M University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2009

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

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## ABSTRACT

Perceptions of the Capacity for Change as a Component of Leadership Development as Reported by Select Populations of College Students: Implications for College Student Leadership Development. (May 2009)

Sharra L. Durham Hynes, B. Mus., Houghton College; M. Ed., Alfred University  
Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Bryan Cole

Greater knowledge of specific populations' perception of the capacity for change will assist leadership practitioners in the design and implementation of effective leadership programs. These leadership programs will hopefully prepare students to lead effectively in a rapidly changing society where a strong capacity for change is needed. This study examined three specific populations of undergraduate students who participated in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership in 2006. The three populations of interest were first generation college students, transfer students and male students. The purpose of the study was to determine the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change for selected college student populations based on the Social Change Model of Leadership (Appendix A). A second purpose was to determine differences in this self-perceived capacity to adapt to change between and among these selected college student populations. Responses to the 10 individual items of the Change Scale (MSL) were measured and analyzed to determine if any significant differences and/or interactions existed in the data. The results of this study inform the design of both

Academic and Student Affairs student leadership development programs to enhance the leadership development of these selected student populations.

The research design for the study included the use of descriptive statistics, a correlation matrix to examine the relationships of the 10 individual items of the change scale, and a 3X10 MANOVA. These tests and measures were utilized on all three independent variables (generational status, transfer status and gender) and the 10 individual items of the change scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale.

This study identified distinct differences between/among the three populations of interest and provided numerous recommendations for practice such as tapping into the unique life experiences of transfer and first generation college students to learn more about their stronger capacity for managing change and specifically recruiting students from the three populations of interest to assist in the delivery of change-related curriculum within leadership programs. Another recommendation was made for leadership practitioners to utilize the Social Change Model of Leadership development to help with the development of leaders who will share a commitment to positive change at the individual, group and community levels.

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work first and foremost to God – the author and finisher of my life and my faith. He has been my constant companion in this work, answering my silent prayers even before they could be uttered.

I also dedicate this effort to my Mom, a woman of great strength and perseverance. She has taught me how to push through even the most challenging of days. Her love, constant support and encouragement have bolstered my spirits and efforts during the most trying times. My Dad has always been there as well to support and encourage my further study and growth. He always wanted to know how things were going with classes and writing, and I know that Dad and Mom's prayers are probably the reason that these pages are coming to a close. My sister and her family have provided joy and happiness during these several years of schooling. Each holiday break would be a time of renewal and refreshment as I would get to spend time with them. This always allowed me to return to the work with new energy and enthusiasm.

Finally, I dedicate this work to my loving husband John. Who could have ever predicted that I would become Mrs. Sharra Hynes before I would receive my degree? My dreams have come true in this wonderful journey with you and I know that our lives are meant to be knit together until eternity.

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Thanks to Laura Boren who was a constant friend and encouragement from day one of this program. I can't think of a better person to walk beside during the many deadlines, exams, papers, and victorious moments. You are truly a best friend for life.

Special thanks are also offered to Homer Tolson, Carol McBryde and my sister-in-law, Andrea Krausmann, for helping me with data analysis and a greater understanding of quantitative statistics. Thank you to Joyce Nelson and Clarice Fulton for always pointing me in the right direction and making sure that I was dotting all of the I's and crossing all of the T's. Thanks to my other faculty members who guided me in various courses – specific thanks to Dr. Erlandson and Dr. Parrott for their respective expertise in naturalistic inquiry and higher education law. I use the content of both of these classes on a daily basis and I am a better professional because they were willing to share their knowledge and love of their subject matter with others.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

At no other time in our society has the need for leadership been greater. World conflicts, natural disasters and changing technologies are only a few of the indicators that point out the compelling need for leadership, specifically leadership that can help others to be successful in the current environment of rapid change. It is important for today's leaders to be able to create positive change and influence our society. Leaders of today and tomorrow must come to see change as an opportunity rather than a threat. A leading management scholar, Peter Drucker has gone so far to say that leaders of tomorrow must not only know how to deal with change but also must be people who will create change (2002). They should be able to graft innovation into an organization or society and know how to generate successful outcomes based on the infusion of new ideas or new ways of doing things. The focus of today's organization is on innovation and fast-paced information exchange and therefore leaders must know how to be successful within this realm (Helgesen, 1990).

Our higher education institutions are looked to as a beacon of hope for the ability to meet the growing need for leaders who can create positive change (Astin, 1996; Carry, 2003).

The American public perceives a crisis of leadership in our nation. Major public and private institutions appear increasingly incapable of dealing constructively with an ever expanding list of social and economic problems, and individuals are becoming more cynical about government. We need a new generation of leaders who can bring about positive change in local, national, and international affairs. (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999, p. 5)

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The style and format of this dissertation follow that of *The Journal of Educational Research*.

Significant literature substantiates that students can develop as leaders (Northouse, 2004; Parks, 2005; Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993) and that higher education places a great emphasis on this process (Astin, 1996; Carry, 2003; Simonds, 1988; Vanderlinden, 2006). To support the idea that higher education promotes the potential for students to develop as leaders, it is useful to point out that in the past century, the study of leadership has gained momentum in higher education and in other learning environments such as the corporate and public sectors. Some authors are now defining this growth in terms of a *leadership industry*. Robert Allio (2005), in a recent article on leadership development, points out that a Google search for “leadership programs” now yields over seven million matches. “Despite the abundance of writing on this topic, leadership has presented a major challenge to practitioners and researchers interested in understanding the nature of leadership. It is a highly valued phenomenon that is very complex” (Northouse, 2004, p. 10).

Many scholars have provided hypotheses as to why this topic continues to be of interest to scholars, practitioners, and researchers. One early scholar took the very foundation of our human relationships as a sign that leadership has always been a component of our society. “From the very time that primitive man came around a rock and met face-to-face a second man, there has existed a relationship which distinguishes them in varying circumstances, one as leader, one as follower” (Hargrove, 1952, p. 75). Other scholars trace leadership as a component of our history since the time of Socrates and Plato and still other leadership scholars such as Bass and Stogdill (1990) provide compelling examples of leadership in the Old and New Testaments of the Bible and the writings of ancient Chinese philosophers.

In the past 15 years, there has been a proliferation of leadership program development in undergraduate and graduate institutions around the country. Many of these programs promote leadership as an interdisciplinary field of study with influences from philosophy, history, management, political science, and other fields of study. As stated in the highly acclaimed Kellogg Foundation Report, *Leadership Reconsidered* (2000), “leadership education is still an emerging rather than an established component of the undergraduate experience” (p. 17). With further examination, perhaps the topic and study of leadership can be more clearly and appropriately situated within higher education and other learning environments.

Given the growing interest in leadership in our society and the compelling calls for more effective leadership, institutions of higher education have a responsibility to develop student leaders through successful programs and learning opportunities. “Our times call for a reconfigured understanding of the art of leadership because inherent in our ideas about leadership are deep assumptions about the social contract and how progress gets made” (Parks, 2005, p. 15). With these assumptions in place, leadership educators and programmers should seek creative ways to understand their diverse student populations and meet the leadership training and experiential learning needs of these students.

The Social Change Model of Leadership was created in the 1990’s by a team of researchers and student affairs practitioners. In her article discussing the creation of the model, Helen Astin said, “the Social Change Model we developed can guide the design of a leadership development program that emphasizes clarification of values, development of self-awareness, ability to build trust, capacity to listen and serve others, collaborative

work, and change for the common good” (1996, p. 5). The social change model contains eight values that are configured into three groups; individual values (consciousness of self, congruence, commitment), group values (collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility) and societal and community values (citizenship and change). While the original designers of the model defined and described the eight values, they did not develop any process or instrument for measuring the values. In 1998, Tyree developed the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, a first attempt at measuring student’s self perceptions of the eight values. This instrument was further refined and shortened for use in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership in 2006.

An understanding of the broad diversity of college students at institutions around the country may provide leadership programmers an opportunity to change and adapt their current programs, allowing for more individualized training and development. Currently, most programs are configured to meet the needs of all students and do not consider that students may respond and learn differently based on their unique backgrounds, perspectives, and gender differences (Dugan, 2006a).

Given the changing demographics of youth in the United States, higher education institutions are showing a particular interest in the experiences and needs of first-generation college students (FGCS). “Despite the social and financial barriers to postsecondary access and achievement, low-income, first-generation-college students in the United States are attending and succeeding in college in record numbers” (Balz & Esten, 1999, p. 344). First generation college students are just one of the sub populations that should be considered in the design and implementation of leadership programs.



**Statement of the Problem**

Currently, many leadership programs in higher education are designed to meet the needs of the broadest group of students possible. The unique needs of specific groups of students are not always accounted for in the design process. Because the demographics of college students are changing dramatically, the efficacy of these leadership programs may be in jeopardy. Leadership educators must assess the needs of unique student populations and take these needs into consideration when designing and implementing leadership programs. By analyzing the generation status, transfer status and gender of participants in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (with particular emphasis on the Change subscale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale), the researcher will be able to recommend specific curricular and co-curricular experiences that may increase the leadership capacity of students.

**Purpose of the Study**

This study was conducted based on results found within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). The purpose of the original study was to enhance knowledge regarding college student leadership development as well as the influence of higher education on the development of student leadership capacities. Specific attention was given to the influence of college environmental factors (e.g., educational interventions, faculty and peer relationships, diverse peer interactions, co-curricular involvement) on leadership development.

The purpose of this study was to determine the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change for selected college student populations based on the Social Change Model of Leadership (Appendix A). This study utilized findings from the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership that was conducted by researchers at the University of Maryland and the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs in 2006. A second purpose of the current study was to determine differences in this self-perceived capacity to adapt to change between and among selected college student populations. The selected college student populations include generation status (first/non-first generation attending college), transfer status and gender. Responses to the 10 individual items of the Change Scale (MSL) were measured and analyzed to determine any significant differences and/or interactions. The results of this study inform the design of both Academic and Student Affairs student leadership development programs to enhance the leadership development of these selected student populations.

## **Research Questions**

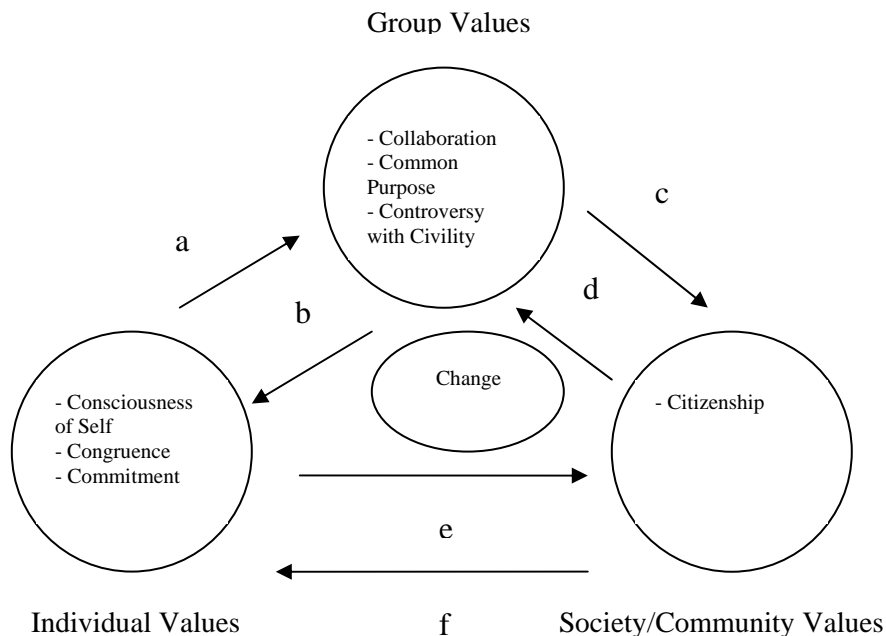
This study addressed the following questions:

- 1) What is the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change, one of the 8 values of the Social Change Model of Leadership and a component of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, for select populations of college students as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?
- 2) Are there significant 3 way or 2 way interactions among the independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?
- 3) Is there a significant difference between first generation and non first generation students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?
- 4) Is there a significant difference between male and female students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?
- 5) Is there a significant difference between transfer and non-transfer students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?

## Operational Definitions

*Social Change Model of Leadership*: The Social Change Model of Leadership (Figure 1) is designed for college students and advocates for leadership development grounded in social responsibility and change for the common good. It is comprised of eight values; consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (HERI, 1996).

The model has two primary goals: 1) to enhance student learning and development; more specifically, to develop in each student participant greater: self-knowledge: understanding of one's talents, values, and interests, especially as these relate to the student's capacity to provide effective leadership and leadership competence: the capacity to mobilize oneself and others to serve and to work collaboratively. 2) to facilitate positive social change at the institution or in the community. That is, to undertake actions which will help the institution/community to function more effectively and humanely. (HERI, 1996, p. 19)



**Figure 1. Social Change Model of Leadership**

*Description of the Social Change Model (Figure 1)*

Arrow “a” indicates that the nature of the group process depends in part on the personal qualities of the individual “leaders” who make up the leadership development group. Arrow “b” symbolizes the reciprocal effect of the group on the individual. Much of what happens in any leadership development effort...is that it involves a continuous feedback loop between the group and the individual (a-b-a, etc.). Arrow “c” symbolizes the service activity, where the group focuses its energies in an effort to effect positive change in something outside of itself. Arrow “d” indicates that how the outside community (i.e., service recipient or “audience”) responds will inevitably affect the group process. The feedback loop suggested by arrows “c” and “d” thus symbolizes the byplay between the group and the community that necessarily occurs during any leadership activity which is designed to effect change. Arrow “e” symbolizes the direct engagement of the individual in the service activity. The final arrow “f” indicates that the individual can be directly affected by the engagement in the change-action project. However, some of the most important community feedback to the individual occurs indirectly, where individual students are able to compare their own direct experience of the service activity (arrow “f”) with that of other group members (arrows “d” and “b”). (HERI, 1996, p. 19-20)

*Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership:* The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership was conducted at 52 institutions in the Spring of 2006. The study was coordinated in partnership between the University of Maryland and the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (MSL/NCLP Guidebook, 2006).

*Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS):* A scale that was designed to measure the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership (Tyree, 1998).

*Capacity for Change:* The self-perceived ability to adapt to environments and situations that are constantly evolving, while maintaining the core functions of the group.

*Change Value:* “The ability to adapt to environments and situations that are constantly evolving, while maintaining the core functions of the group.” (HERI, 1996) The change value is the “hub” which gives meaning to the 7 C’s within the Social Change Model of

Leadership. “Change...is the ultimate goal of the leadership process, to make a better world or society for self or for others.” (HERI, 1996, p. 21)

*Change Sub Scale of the SRLS:* A ten-item subscale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Appendix A).

*Selected Colleges and Universities:* Institutions that applied for and were subsequently accepted into the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership in Fall, 2005.

*First Generation College Students:* Students whose parents did not attend college.

*Non First Generation Students:* Students who have one or more parent who attended college.

*Transfer Students:* Students who have matriculated to a second institution of higher education.

*Non Transfer Students:* Students who matriculated to a single institution of higher education.

### **Assumptions**

1. The respondents surveyed understood the scope of the study, the language of the instrument, were competent in self-reporting, and responded objectively and honestly.
2. The person who received the invitation to complete the instrument (via e-mail) was the individual who completed the instrument.
3. The methodology proposed and described here offers a logical and appropriate design for this particular research project.

## **Limitations**

1. This study is limited to the selected colleges and universities that responded to the invitation and were subsequently selected for participation in the original study.
2. This study is limited to the information acquired from the literature review and survey instrument.
3. Comparatively, there were a small number of first generation college students participating in this study. The researcher does not believe that this small number invalidates the findings, but further research should be conducted on FGCS to determine their values and unique leadership needs.
4. While purposive sampling techniques were used to select institutions for this study, there is a potential for skewed gender demographics because several women's colleges were included in the study. Two other factors may contribute to the larger number of female respondents – a greater number of female students attending college and the larger response rate that is typical of women versus men.
5. While the researcher had primary interest in the differences between male and female respondents other gender classifications were measured within the study but were not included for analysis. Unanswered questions result because of the decision to refrain from analysis on gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender student respondents.

**Theoretical Frame**

The specific theoretical frame for the study was the Social Change Model of Leadership. The conceptual frame was built on the college impact model, which is used to examine context specific outcomes while controlling for pre-college experiences and perceptions (Astin, 1993). Results will contribute to a fuller understanding of college student leadership development needs, knowledge on how to improve programs and services, and a foundation from which to build future research.

**Significance of the Study**

Higher education institutions across the United States are investing more time, and human and financial resources into the design and implementation of leadership programs, both curricular and co-curricular. The results of this study will provide data and related recommendations to leadership programmers that will allow for the creation of relevant leadership programs. While it is the responsibility of leadership educators and practitioners to constantly assess and adapt their programs, the results of this study may serve as a catalyst for creating appropriate changes to programs that will positively impact two growing populations of students, first generation and transfer students.



## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to the present study. The review begins with a discussion of the industry of leadership development that has been emerging for the past several decades. The interest and focus on leadership development has produced considerable research, writing and the development of multiple and divergent theories of leadership. While research related to leadership development in industry with executives and senior officials has increased, comparable studies on college students have decreased (Rowlands, 2005). The current study is seeking to address this void.

A brief overview of the growth of leadership development will be conducted to set the stage for a more detailed understanding of leadership development within the higher education setting. After defining and describing how leadership development has blossomed and impacted higher education, a specific model will be introduced that was designed intentionally for college student leadership development. This model, the Social Change Model, will be explored and analyzed in detail. Three particular populations of college students will be introduced and discussed in light of the Social Change Model.

The three populations, male and female college students, transfer students, and first generation college students will all be explored in detail based on the current research and understanding of each population. Finally, a particular value of the Social Change Model, the change value, will be described and considered. It does not appear that other research

exists with this specific combination of populations and the researcher will ascertain if there is a potential relationship between or among these populations.

### **History of the Study of Leadership**

The study of leadership began with ancient thinkers and philosophers and continues today with an ever increasing emphasis and focus (Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999). “The scientific study of leadership originated in the work of one of the founding fathers of sociology, Max Weber (1864-1920). A polymath, who came to the study of sociology via law, Weber set the questions of authority, status, and legitimacy in the context of religion, politics and the military” (Temes, 1996, p. 3-4). Weber’s work was instrumental in setting up a foundation for future study, research and theory building in leadership studies. The scientific study of leadership can be further delineated into three distinct phases. From the turn of the century until World War II, the emphasis was on the traits of leadership and demystifying the concept of charisma in leaders. The second phase, lasting from World War II to 1970 looked closely at how leaders behave and enact their leadership positions. Finally, the third phase of the scientific study of leadership continues to the present day and places primary emphasis on the interaction between leaders and followers (Temes, 1996). Conger (1992) believes that we are in a very exciting time to study leadership today because of the shift in focus to learning about the process of leadership and because our perceptions of leadership have become more positive and accurate.

Although the study of leadership has been an increasing focus for the past several decades, there remains considerable confusion and a lack of congruence in leadership

theories. Leadership scholars and researchers continue to write prolifically and yet no clarity appears to emerge.

Unfortunately, what Warren Bennis wrote in 1959 about our understanding of leadership remains true today: “of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends the top nomination. And, ironically probably more has been written and less known about leadership than any other topic in the behavioral sciences. Always, it seems the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity.” (Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p. 15)

This taunting complexity has not discouraged the interest in leadership development and the texts and theories that have been created appear to get considerable attention in a variety of fields; management, business, higher education, industry, medicine, etc. All of this emphasis on leadership and creating leaders does not however appear to have improved the quality of leadership or the difficult and complex dynamics present within our society.

Writing and studying leadership has become a growth industry in recent years, yet our cities seem to have sunk deeper into crisis, our communities are in turmoil, our political leaders of both parties are repeatedly charged with ethical violations, and the world’s multiple crises demand the immediate attention they are not receiving. (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997, p. xi)

It appears that our traditional approaches to leadership are inadequate, or at best deficient, and are not meeting the needs of our world. The rate of change has contributed to the lag in impact as well as the difficulty that so many organizations and individuals have had with sustaining positive change efforts (Askew & Price, 2003). While statements that identify a lack of progress or success may be discouraging, there is growing interest in new models of leadership development that will more appropriately and sufficiently address the

challenges of the society in which we now live. These new models of leadership should be more customized, learner centered and integrated into the life and culture of the organization (Conger & Benjamin, 1999).

One desired outcome of the study being conducted herein is to ascertain if one of these models, the Social Change Model, may be an appropriate canvas on which to paint a new picture of leadership development. Before delving into a full description of the Social Change Model, it is important to dissect the broader field of leadership that is the foundation for any study conducted today.

### **Definitions of Leadership**

The very term *leadership* conjures up a myriad of definitions. “There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Bass and Stogdill, 1990, p. 11). While this vast array of definitions can be prohibitive to further study and research, it does not appear that researchers and scholars have been discouraged from the challenge of discovering and developing new findings.

Leadership has been defined in many ways by people of varying perspectives over the years. Indeed, there are so many definitions that vagueness and confusion seem to prevail in the many minds about the whole issue. It is not surprising then that many leaders question their roles, their effectiveness, even their importance, are questioned by those around them. (Anderson, 1998, p. 269)

Since the early 1900’s, researchers have been examining both individual and group concepts of leadership. Several leadership theories have been promulgated and tested in

order to explain the phenomenon of leadership. Some of these theories closely align with other disciplines such as management, sociology or psychology.

### **Leadership Theory**

Leadership theories can generally be grouped according to trait, situational and transformational types of theories (Mello, 2003). Trait theories promote that leadership skills are inborn and that there is a particular personality type that is best matched with leadership roles (Anderson, 1998; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Northouse, 2004). The trait theory of leadership is closely aligned with the great-man theory of leadership and is espoused by those who believe that *individuals* are responsible for turning around organizations or winning battles and wars. These theories worked well in past eras when organizational goals were primarily focused on production and efficiency rather than human development (Jacob, 2006). The trait theory of leadership would support that idea; “if the leader is endowed with superior qualities that differentiate him from his followers, it should be possible to identify these qualities” (Bass and Stogdill, 1990, p. 38).

In 1948, Ralph Stogdill, a professor of management and psychologist at Ohio State University conducted a review of 120 trait studies and made the declaration that no consistent pattern of traits could be detected among leaders. This declaration led researchers and leadership scholars to begin investigating new theories and ideas around leadership behaviors and attributes (Temes, 1996).

While there is no magic formula or certain set of traits that come together to make a great leader, certain attributes of leaders have been promoted as being more desirable than

others. One set of authors set out a balanced perspective to consider because of the need for these attributes in order to positively impact others.

In the leaders we admire, ambition is always balanced with competence and integrity. This three-legged stool upon which true leadership sits – ambition, competence, and integrity – must remain in balance if the leader is to be a constructive force in the organization rather than a destructive achiever of her or his own ends. (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997, p. 3)

The situational theory group promotes that leadership occurs within a broader context and there is no one style of leadership best matched with every situation, rather some leaders will be preferred in one situation and not in another.

Situational leadership has a lot to do with the so-called androgynous leadership style, which involves a mixture of ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ leadership. Masculine leadership styles mean saying no and being tough, whereas feminine or ‘soft’ leadership involves asking questions, listening, showing emotions, standing aside and letting others be heard, admitting faults, and being a mentor and trainer instead of being the boss (Aspinwall & Ursula, 2002, p. 153).

Finally, transformational leadership theories espouse the significance of the leader/follower relationship and promote that development and positive change should occur for both the leader(s) and follower(s) within the leadership process. In both situational and transformational leadership theories, scholars believe that leaders can be taught to assess situations and apply appropriate leadership strategies in order to accomplish a goal or lead a group (Wren, 1995). Woven into the student leadership development programs in higher education are situations where students can practice this assessment and decision making strategies.

Burns (1978) has perhaps spent the most time developing literature and research on transformational leadership and differentiating transformational leadership from transactional leadership. He said, “where transactional leadership is merely a version of managerialism that appeals to the economic self-interest of followers, transformational leadership alters the expectations of followers” (Temes, 1996, p. 7). Transformational leadership also induces followers to act for goals that meet the needs of both leaders and followers. Sayles (1993) described this kind of leadership as a galvanizing of followers with a compelling vision that is worthy of loyalty and the followers’ commitment.

While there are many other theories available, these three basic groupings (trait, situational and transformational) serve as a concise, yet incomplete, summary of leadership theories that are in use today. At this time, no universal theory of leadership has been established (Mello, 2003).

In addition to the varied definitions of leadership, there are also multiple interpretations of the elements or components embedded within leadership. Some of these components are broken out as competencies or required attributes and others are more philosophical in nature.

Leadership really has two essential elements – power and purpose. First, leadership is really an elegant word for power. To exercise leadership is to get others to do things that they would not otherwise do. It involves the ability to shape, directly or indirectly, the interests or actions of others. (Ikenberry, 1996, p. 388)

Haas and Tamarkin stated in their 1992 text that leaders are highly motivated with a drive to prove their abilities and they are curious. These leaders “seem to be learning on a daily basis throughout their lives to satisfy a wanderer’s lust of seeing for themselves what is on

the other side of the mountain” (Haas & Tamarkin, 1992, p. 45). This creativity and desire to know is consistent with other authors’ lists of characteristics of effective and developing leaders (Howell & Avolio, 1992; Parks, 2005).

The interactionist perspective of leadership provides another examination of elements. It states that leaders are involved in an open system that takes a variety of inputs, gives action or influence on those during some kind of process in order to create a desired output (Echtenkamp, 2004). There is no mention of power in the variables of input, throughput and output, however the issue of purpose is an essential component to the process.

While the aforementioned theories and interpretations of leadership are a valuable framework, other scholars have chosen to study leadership using classifications of relationships. In a discussion of the future of international leadership, Ikenberry (1996) points out, “leadership is an overused and underdefined term” (p. 386). Classifications are needed in order to bring clarity to the topic of leadership. “In the past 50 years, there have been as many as 65 different classification systems developed to define the dimensions of leadership” (Northouse, 2004, p. 2). A few of these taxonomies of leadership include:

Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviors, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions. (Bass and Stogdill, 1990, p. 11)

These classifications allow the spectrum of definitions and theories to be grouped for comparison and broader application.



The varied definitions, theories, and ways of classifying leadership all contribute to the diverse ways in which leadership is taught, learned, and experienced on college and university campuses as well as in other settings and venues around the country and the world.

Research on leadership and its widespread applications are coming of age. Their effects can be seen in the awakening in much of industry to the people side of its enterprise, in corporate mission statements, in the principles that US Presidents set forth for their staffs, in professional education and in the established research centers, educational curriculum, and nationwide community programs dedicated to leadership. (Bass & Stogdill, 1990, p. 879)

Depending on the institutional culture, mission, history, and traditions, these leadership programs and practices are utilizing dramatically different methods and approaches to achieve the shared goal or outcome of developing leaders. One common theme most leadership educators could agree upon is that leadership can be learned, and therefore taught. In a recent book by Sharon Daloz Parks (2005), this common theme is explored in great detail. Parks states that “within every person there is a hunger to exercise some sense of *personal agency*- to have an effect, to contribute, to make a positive difference, to influence, help, build, and in this sense to lead” (Parks, 2005, p. 2). This personal interest and investment substantiates the interest in learning more about leadership from college students all over the world. Parks (2005) also states that leadership is not something based solely on authority and position, rather is found in a process and is best described through a definition of adaptive leadership. Adaptive leadership asserts that leaders develop through practice, much like we discuss the practice of medicine, law, politics or religion. Adaptive leadership claims that leadership can never truly be mastered

as the leader is always growing, learning and changing based on the practices he/she is experiencing or has experienced in the past. These leaders possess the ability to use authority as a limited resource and they generally are able to recognize the significant complexities that are often present in the process of leading others.

Parks (2005) promotes five central competencies that are needed for an individual to be able to deploy him/herself as an adaptive leader. First, the leader must be able to analyze the situation and clarify that there is a sense of worthy purpose in the leadership that is needed in the situation. Second, the leader must step in and intervene – the leader must ensure that the group can and will make progress. Third, the leader must communicate. If this essential step is missed, the whole process will break down as the mutual process of leadership will not be possible. After communicating, the leader should pause, reflect on the situation and set an appropriate pace for continuing to lead and help the group move forward toward progress. Pacing the process is just as critical as the initial analysis. Finally, the leader should hold steady and take any heat that may result from the intervention and deployment of leadership (Parks, 2005). These five steps can establish an individual within the group without breaking down trust or having to be caught up in roles, titles or formal positions of leadership. Anyone within a group can employ these five steps to differentiate him/herself as the leader for a season.

Perhaps the most closely related discipline to leadership is management. Many people believe there is little distinction between the two, while others can delineate the nuances and distinct characteristics of each area. In an essay by John Kotter (1990) included in Thomas Wren's *The Leader's Companion* (1995), a clear delineation is made

between leadership and management. “Leadership is different from management...leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment” (Wren, 1995, p. 114). Kotter goes on to explain that management trains people to cope with complexity, while leadership trains people to cope with change. An understanding and practical experience of leadership allows people to not only manage complexity, but to apply that management to situations in which they can change. This distinction in purpose perhaps supports the idea that leadership is distinct from other fields and a body of knowledge can continue to grow around the study of leadership. In addition to the field of management, scholars have pointed out that the field of leadership has been derived from several other disciplines.

Leadership development derives its subject matter from an array of disciplines that include sociology, organizational development, business management, and educational leadership. It is a complex subject regardless of the education and experience of the participants. It focuses on changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, aspirations, and ultimately behavior. (Bolton, 1991, p. 141)

These disciplines and the complex set of skills that are generated from the confluence of factors in each discipline have come together under the rubric of leadership development. This rubric is still developing and scholars are determining what specific leadership skills will be needed in future leaders to enable these individuals an opportunity to truly influence the shaping of our society (Conger, 1999). Some recommended skills include sensitivity to issues of diversity, interpersonal competency, skilled in

communication and motivation, developers of other leaders, visionaries, and the alignment of people, ideas, systems, communication and technology to achieve a desired result (Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Haas & Tamarkin, 1992).

In order to apply responsibly the specialized knowledge of leadership, individuals must be adept at navigating the changing situations that go along with being in a formal or informal leadership role. “Leadership is not a static thing...many of the components of leadership...change with the situation” (Murphy, 1941, p. 675). This shifting and changing environment demands a leader who can easily adapt and change approaches depending on the situation. Many scholars and researchers believe this adaptability is a component of personality, while others believe all leaders can be taught to assess the situation and apply the appropriate leadership strategy in order to accomplish a goal or lead a group (Sayles, 1993; Wren, 1995).

One perspective of leadership offered in recent literature paints leadership practice as the management of opposites. “How can one be ethical and political at the same time? How can one be sensitive to people, and yet drive through change...The answer is, because leadership involves constantly addressing contrasts, contradictions and paradoxes” (Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999, p. 5). While instruction and examples can teach a leader much about the skills necessary to manage these opposites, true comfort will only come through practice and an understanding of the complexities of the context in which the leadership is taking place.

## **Leadership in the Private Sector**

Leadership development and education has also gained momentum in the private and business sectors. “Since the mid-1980’s, interest in leadership has skyrocketed throughout the corporate world. Today strong leadership is often viewed as one of the most important keys to organizational growth, change, and renewal” (Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p. 1). In these environments, it is generally accepted that leadership skills are not innate and can be learned through formal and informal training (Bolton, 1991; Conger & Benjamin, 1999). Individuals and organizations are gravitating to this training as they recognize that most current leaders are ill prepared for the environment in which they are being called to work. Additional training and preparation for managing change will help leaders to develop sufficient skills to meet the demands of the rapidly changing culture and environment of the twenty-first century.

Peter Drucker, a leadership and management scholar has said that the only way for organizations to gain a competitive advantage in today’s world is to build leaders who will have strong relationships with subordinates and who will look for the potential in people and spend time developing that potential (2002). Less formal structures are also being emphasized within organizations to enable leadership to be practiced at all levels of the organization. Organizations are finding means to identify managerial talent in creative and innovative ways (Helgesen, 1990).

Organizations such as the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) or the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) invest in programs that are designed for executive leadership development. These programs rely on the phenomena pointed out by Allio

(2005), “after all, almost everyone wants to be a leader, for leaders have more power and prestige than followers, and they typically earn more money” (p. 1072). These programs, however, are also moving into a broader scope with the acceptance that everyone can lead. Leadership programs appear to be less elitist and more pervasive in all levels of an organization. Leadership programs are now operating with the understanding that leadership development is a continuous process, not a discrete event (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Conger & Benjamin, 1999). The true effect of these training and development programs is difficult to determine. Many participants will leave a leadership development program with a new language for expressing leadership concepts. This new language cannot, however, substantiate the idea that these people will now act or perform in a different way.

Participants in leadership programs often do polish certain skills, particularly in communications, and they may develop greater awareness of how they present themselves to others. But true leadership is much more than sleek packaging. Leadership is a potentiality, inchoate and unrealized until it is developed (Allio, 2005, p. 1072).

Hope should not be lost in developing leaders for this changing society and higher education appears to be taking up the call to develop leaders who will be able to manage and sustain in environments created by this rapidly changing world. Higher education professionals have been called to develop leaders of vision and those who can develop strategic pathways for a positive future. Every leader will deal with the chaos in their own unique way and the constancy of change brings a demand for leaders who can and will be strategic thinkers and who will lead less with command and control and more with artistry

(Bennis & Goldsmith, 1999; Parks, 2005). One educator went so far as to say that it is less important to teach students how to lead or to follow, but rather the critical task is to teach students how to think. Born (1996) states, “Nothing – including the rhetoric or experiential learning, or call of civic responsibility, or the imperative for social and group cohesion – should obscure this central mission.” (p. 67)

### **Leadership and Higher Education**

Colleges and universities are important contributors to the development of leaders. In fact, it has been suggested that higher education’s original function in America was to groom future leaders (Carry, 2003). Today, leadership should be a planned result of a higher education and that developing leadership among college students may be the best way for us to build civic capacity for our nation (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Institutions should insist on leadership as a responsibility of each individual within our democratic and free society and it may be appropriate to consider the entire college as a leadership laboratory (Boatman, 1999; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999).

The experience a student has in college assumedly contributes to the development of a capacity to lead and influence others. “People with normally endowed intelligence have the right leadership stuff. But getting them to realize it is quite another matter” (Haas & Tamarkin, 1992, p. 4). In the recent past, leadership (although not clearly defined) has been infused into the curricular and co-curricular experiences for both undergraduate and graduate students in the United States. It appears that leadership has not caught on in the same way in other parts of the world.

At least in Germany, but also in many other countries, schools provide no direct education in the professionalism of leadership – that is how to communicate, how to praise, how to constructively criticize, how to convince others, how to solve conflicts and so forth (Aspinwall & Ursula, 2002, p. 154).

With the significant role higher education institutions play in shaping leaders for our society, the topic is of interest to many people – both within and outside the academy. Efforts are constantly being made to establish a means of assessing the leadership development of students and the effectiveness of the programs in which students are learning about and developing the capacity to lead.

In 1981, Denson and Sellers in a text compiled by Roberts stated,

the need for leader education is strikingly apparent today. According to Maccoby (1979), ‘there is a current crisis of authority because neither the function of leadership nor the image of the leader fit the needs of large organizations...nor have universities understood the change and provided the education needed for leadership (p. 17).’ (Roberts, 1981, p. 127)

It is believed that higher education administrators and programmers took this statement to heart and perhaps this has contributed to the advancement of leadership programs and education in our current educational landscape.

The ways and means in which campuses seek to develop student leaders are diverse and unique to each institution. As of 1990, there were already 50 multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary leadership programs at colleges and universities across the country (Rost, 1993). In 1992, the University of Richmond became the first university (in the United States) to offer an undergraduate degree in leadership (Liberty & Prewitt, 1999).



A brief overview of the web page for the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs reveals even more growth and development of these programs as of November, 2005 ([http://www.nclp.umd.edu/resources/curricular\\_programs.asp](http://www.nclp.umd.edu/resources/curricular_programs.asp)). There are now at least seven undergraduate majors, 35 undergraduate minors, 16 masters programs, and 12 Ph.D. or Ed.D. programs that are focused on leadership studies in some form or fashion. This listing should not be presented as comprehensive as those programs listed only represent membership in the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs. Leadership studies programs are being integrated into a broad range of institutions. In an article written in 2003, it was reported that over 900 colleges and universities now offer some form of student leadership programming – ranging from majors and degree programs to workshops and one-time seminars (Carry, 2003). Representing a few examples here, one can see the diversity of program offerings and types of institutions involved in preparing future leaders; Antioch University – Ph.D. in Leadership & Change, Cardinal Stritch University – PhD. In Leadership for the Advancement of Learning & Service, Geneva College – M.S. in Organizational Leadership, and California State University, Chico – Leadership Studies Minor. In addition to the promulgation of leadership programs, institutions have shown a marked increase in stating the goal or mission of developing leadership within students (Jacob, 2006; Roberts, 1981). While higher education is seeing a tremendous growth in leadership programming, the military and business sectors are also experiencing a surge of motivational seminars and workshops. Given this growth of leadership programming in business, industry and higher education, it can now be posited

that virtually everyone will encounter some sort of leadership doctrine in their school or work experiences (Temes, 1996).

As seen above, hundreds of institutions are embracing the call to intentionally develop leaders who will impact the world in positive ways. However there are still hundreds of institutions that appear to be far behind in their development of experiences that will develop the leadership potential of students enrolled at their institutions (Carry, 2003). Many of these institutions have an expressed commitment to the development of student leaders, but the programs and opportunities are lacking or missing all together (Boatman, 1999). While the short term and long term goals of leadership development efforts are important to most, competing institutional priorities limit the development, implementation and assessment of intentional leadership programs on campus (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2001).

Generally, leadership programs in higher education are utilizing theories that have been designed and created for society at large – or are using theories and models that have been specifically designed with college students in mind. One model that is quite popular with college students is *The Leadership Challenge* which was developed by Kouzes and Posner in the late 1980's. This model is accessible and easily understood as it outlines five simple practices that most everyone can begin using to achieve exemplary leadership. The five practices are further broken down into ten commitments that individuals are encouraged to practice on a daily if not moment to moment basis. The five practices include modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). These five practices

have stood the test of time in research conducted by Kouzes and Posner and others and have come up over and over as essential tools for effective leadership. Kouzes and Posner say “any skill can be strengthened, honed, and enhanced if we have the proper motivation and desire, along with practice, and feedback, role models and coaching” (1997, p. 323).

Another significant benefit of the Leadership Challenge is the companion assessment that has been created – the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Kouzes and Posner have now launched a student version of the LPI and this began a surge of interest on the part of leadership educators around the country as they could utilize actual feedback provided by the students’ peers, teachers, mentors and other individuals in the students’ lives.

### **Leadership and Student Development Theory**

While understanding the emergence and development of leadership in higher education is important, the importance can be lost without the benefit of a context in which to place this evolutionary process. Student development theory, in its various forms, can serve as a backdrop for the development of models of leadership that are being taught and practiced in higher education settings.

Erik Erickson, a developmental psychologist, posited one of the early developmental theories that informed student development theory. Erikson’s stage model consists of eight stages of development and each stage includes a central conflict that the individual is attempting to resolve or even conquer.

The eight stages and corresponding conflict are listed below in Table 1.

**Table 1. Erikson's 8 Stages of Development (Parks, 2000, p. 37)**

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- 1) Infancy: trust vs. mistrust
- 2) Toddlerhood: autonomy vs. shame
- 3) Early school age: industry vs. inferiority
- 4) Later school age: initiative vs. guilt
- 5) Adolescence: identity vs. role confusion
- 6) Young adulthood: intimacy vs. isolation
- 7) Adulthood: generativity vs. stagnation
- 8) Later adulthood: ego integrity vs. despair

If the individual fails to adequately resolve the conflict in his/her life, the conflict will potentially reappear in a later stage of development.

Erikson saw stages of development beyond childhood and put more emphasis on social context and strengths built throughout life than on internal energy dynamics or the struggling ego's defense mechanisms. He believed that certain challenges are systematically presented when physical growth and cognitive maturation converge with environmental demands. He outlined eight stages or periods in psychosocial development, each with a life challenge that can lead to progress, regression, standstill, or recurring bouts with the same issue in a new context. (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 21-22)

Two stages of Erikson's model are generally at work in the age range of traditional college students, adolescence and young adulthood. In the adolescence stage, individuals are attempting to define a personal identity and become comfortable enough with that identity to share it with others. Issues such as occupation, sex roles and sexual identity, religious beliefs and political ideas might surface during this period of development. In young

adulthood, individuals are learning how to navigate relationships with others. Typically existing relationships are redefined during this period and new relationships take on a different tone because of the developmental process that is taking place.

College students desiring to practice leadership in both informal and formal roles will have had to successfully navigate the transition from adolescence to adulthood. Leadership practitioners and other professionals in the higher education setting can aid students in this developmental journey by providing accurate feedback to allow the student to see what is taking place in his/her life.

Another developmental theory that serves as an important backdrop for leadership in higher education is the theory of development posited by Arthur Chickering and later added to by Linda Reisser (1993). In their theory of development in college students, seven vectors are proposed as maps to help determine where students are and in what direction they are headed. “Development for college students, which today includes persons of virtually all ages, is a process of infinite complexity.” (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 34) Chickering and Reisser’s seven vectors with a brief description of each can be found below in Table 2.

**Table 2. Seven Vectors**

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- 1) Developing Competence – student moves from low levels of all kinds of competence to higher levels in each area, stronger sense of confidence in one’s abilities
- 2) Managing Emotions – student moves from little control over disruptive emotions and lack of awareness of feelings to flexible control of emotions and appropriate expression of feelings
- 3) Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence – student moves through emotional dependence on others to freedom from reassurance from others
- 4) Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships – student moves from a lack of awareness of differences to a tolerance and perhaps even appreciation of differences
- 5) Establishing Identity – student moves from discomfort with body, sexual, social identity to a clearer sense of self with comfort in each of these areas. The student’s self-concept is clarified through roles and their chosen lifestyle
- 6) Developing Purpose – student moves from a lack of vocational goals and scattered personal interests to a clearer sense of vocational direction and stronger commitment to narrower set of interests
- 7) Developing Integrity – student moves from dualistic thinking and rigid beliefs to a sense of social responsibility and congruence between values and actions.

“Like many humanistic models, this one is founded on an optimistic view of human development, assuming that a nurturing, challenging college environment will help students grow in stature and substance” (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 40).

Chickering and Reisser’s seven vectors clearly overlap with several of the models of leadership that are described herein. The early and contemporary work of student development theory quite clearly served as a catalyst for leadership theories that have been developed with college students in mind.

One final grouping of theories that is worthy of mentioning is the work of Kohlberg and Gilligan. These two theorists helped to establish cognitive theories of moral development that are highly relevant for college student development. Kohlberg posited six stages of moral development. The stages are listed below in Table 3.

**Table 3. Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development**

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- 1) Fear of punishment and gratification of one’s own needs
- 2) Opportunities to meet one’s needs or to bargain with others for mutual benefit
- 3) The need to conform to a peer group’s wishes or society’s rules, need for approval from others
- 4) Respect for “law and order”, duty and authority
- 5) Adherence to legal rights, social contracts, or personal values
- 6) Adherence to personally chosen ethical principles

(Kohlberg, Levine & Hower, 1983)

Kohlberg's later research identified a lack of clear delineation between stages five and six. These stages represent a hierarchical process of developing one's moral decision making.

Carol Gilligan, a theorist who challenged Kohlberg's research based on the issue of gender bias, proposed a unique perspective on moral development. Gilligan's view of moral development has perhaps been more influential in current higher education settings because it takes a more gender neutral pathway for describing moral development (Gilligan, 1993). "The journey of development, as she tells it, unfolds in a language – a voice – that seeks to express more adequately the reality of ongoing relation and responsibility. This voice (expressive of both male and female experience, but tending to be more evident in the voices of women) contrasts with the juridical tone of differentiation and rights identified in Kohlberg's account of the development of moral reasoning in males" (Parks, 2000, p. 43).

Because current models of leadership used in higher education settings tend to favor gender neutral or even more relational views of leadership, the distinction between Kohlberg and Gilligan's view of moral development is important to understand. The distinction made in how moral development is managed becomes important when teaching about personal agency, leadership roles and responsibilities and ethical decision making. All of these competencies are relevant within the models that are described below.



## **Models of Leadership**

While dozens of models of leadership development have been created and written about in the literature, several models stand out as being more relevant and appropriate for the college student population. Three of these models include the Relational Leadership Model (Komives, Lucas & McMahon, 1998), the Leadership Identity Development Model, and the Social Change Model of Leadership.

The relational leadership model is congruent with the post-industrial view of leadership that is presented by Rost (1993). This view of leadership is “grounded in human relations and is characterized by shared goals” (Allen & Cherrey, 2000). The relational model of leadership has been expanded upon by several authors (Boatman, 1999). One set of authors, Allen and Cherrey (2000) discussed leadership from a systemic and networked perspective. They point out that leadership cannot happen alone and requires many people. In the best case scenario an organization will be classified as a leader-full organization and this type of organization will regularly acknowledge that one person cannot control the system nor fully understand all of the complexities within the system.

In 2004, a team of researchers from the University of Maryland including Komives, Casper, Longerbeam, Mainella and Osteen (2005), identified a grounded theory for developing a leadership identity. Grounded theories present an early analytic scheme from which additional research can be based (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). The grounded theory of developing a leadership identity showed a developmental process of how students place themselves in the construct of leadership over time. From this grounded theory, a six stage

model of leadership identity development was created. The six stages include awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leadership differentiated, generativity, and internalization/synthesis.

Because the focus of the current study utilizes the Social Change Model of Leadership, a short introduction is provided here and more in-depth discussion of the model is offered later. As early as 1981, leadership scholars were recognizing the need for social change and making social change a primary goal of higher education. “Leadership programs in higher education have the potential to make contributions toward the attainment of this goal of shared social responsibility by preparing persons who are able to share the leadership” (Roberts, 1981, p. 4).

Higher Education leadership programs are attempting to address claims of inadequacy that have been levied against them. Particularly in our recent history, there have been public outcries against instances of unethical leadership.

If higher education is indeed such a central player in shaping the quality of leadership in America, then one might reasonably ask, where have we gone wrong? The short answer to this question is that the concept of leadership and the educational goals of leadership development have been given very little attention by most of our institutions of higher learning. (*Leadership Reconsidered*, 2000, p. 2)

As can be seen by the breadth and depth of leadership programs that have an interest in preparing leaders for tomorrow, higher education is attempting to rise to the challenge of developing leaders through formal courses of study and through providing students with actual hands-on leadership experience. Conger stated, “studying leadership is no substitute for leading” (1999, p. 189). By actually practicing leadership, students

have the opportunity to learn from both their successes and their failures. Ron Heifetz was quoted by Parks (2005) to say “I can’t think of any encyclopedia for you to learn more from than the encyclopedia of your own failures” (p. 73).

It appears that higher education professionals implicitly agree with this statement as they set up experiences and structures in which students actually get the chance to practice leadership and gain valuable feedback on their leadership efforts. They give students a safe environment in which they can practice leadership skills. Leadership practitioners and other college advisors are also encouraging students to acclimate to a culture that can handle reflection on failure (Parks, 2005).

Cox (1974) pointed out that “the study of leadership itself can be traced to an optimistic impulse, to a conviction that leadership matters because leaders can really change things in desired directions” (p. 143). People with this kind of optimistic impulse should be present and making an impact in every area of our society. It will not serve us well to train up leaders who will congregate in certain spheres of influence or segments of our population. Rather, a more distributed model of leadership is necessary so that leaders can be making positive change throughout our society (Timperley, 2005).

We have, in short, come to believe in leadership because of the impact it can have on people and events, and we believe that the capacity to lead is rooted in virtually any individual and in every community. (Leadership Reconsidered, 2000, p. v.)

If we believe that all people have the capacity to lead, higher education as a whole will miss an opportunity to make a difference in the lives of our students and in our society in general if we do not promote the study and practice of leadership (Cress, et al., 2001).

Leadership programs can and do develop proactive people – people who are in the process of becoming and who have the capacity to learn from both positive and negative experiences (Roberts, 1981).

Those institutions that fail to see their role in developing leaders are neglecting a critical component of the college student experience. Burns said, ‘it is time that the study of leadership be lifted out of the anecdotal and eulogistic and placed in the structure and processes of human development and political action’ (1978, p. 3). In his landmark text *Leadership* Burns challenged institutions of higher education to recognize the crisis in leadership and participate in developing leaders for the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Carry, 2003).

### **Assessment of Student Leadership Programs**

One of the significant challenges of implementing leadership programs is the assessment of what has occurred or what students have learned as a result of participating in the program. With an understanding of leadership as a process, it may be difficult to ascertain if a developmental gain occurred because of a specific program or experience, or if some other influence caused the change to occur. “Leadership skills, attitudes, and knowledge are acquired over a period of time and are generated from a number of sources. It is difficult to develop a methodology which will isolate the learning derived from a given leadership program” (Roberts, 1981, p. 188).

While assessing leadership programs is difficult, it is now being attempted by many scholars, researchers and practitioners. Evidence is being gathered that demonstrates the impact that student leadership programs are having on campuses around the United States. One study conducted by Cress (2001) indicated gains in a student’s commitment to civic responsibility, conflict resolution skills, the ability to plan and implement programs and an

increased willingness to take risks. Another study by Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt (1999) showed similar gains in civic responsibility and organizational skills and also highlighted development of the ability to cast a vision and to effectively communicate with followers. Some of this evidence points to the benefits of more general involvement in campus life and the gains that students are seeing in student learning both in and out of the classroom. Other evidence is more specific to student leadership program involvement (Cooper, Healy & Simpson, 1994; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). It is important to recognize that these studies demonstrate the ability for leadership development to occur within a variety of venues across a multitude of college and university settings (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999).

It is also important to describe and document the gains that are made due to participation in a formal program of leadership development and/or experience in leadership related activities. Kezar and Moriarty (2000) reported that the type of involvement a student participates in has differential influences on development based on the student's background. Cooper, Healy and Simpson report that altruistic values and social concern increase with more involvement in leadership activities and involvement in student organizations (1994). These experiences also appear to have a positive impact on the student's total academic experience (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999; Cooper, Healy & Simpson, 1994). In a study conducted by Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt (1999) students were shown to make gains in "an increased sense of social/civic/political awareness, efficacy, and engagement; increased commitments to service and volunteerism; a higher sense of personal and social responsibility; and improved likelihood of sharing

power with others” (p. 11). In a similar study, students were reported to develop in their capacity for civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, an understanding of personal and societal values and finally a greater understanding of leadership theories (Cress et al., 2001). Finally, Sutton and Terrell (1997) report that leadership involvement in student organizations, particularly those that have a campus-wide emphasis, prepares students for the challenging realities of life upon graduation, particularly the dimensions of civil, political and social life (p. 56). When students step into leadership roles, evidence shows that they are able to sustain and further develop a range of developmental skills and abilities.

While all of the aforementioned studies are very helpful for defining the outcomes that are possible with leadership programs, some of the concern regarding leadership in higher education is that many practitioners may not be accessing the findings of such research to inform the development of their programs. “In most cases, however, a gap exists between research on college student leadership and the models used in practice” (Dugan, 2006b, p. 335).

### **The Social Change Model**

Leaders who exercise social change are able to achieve collective action, shared power, and demonstrate an unwavering commitment to social justice, equality and inclusion of all people (Astin & Leland, 1991). This is the kind of leadership that is discussed and emphasized throughout the Social Change Model. One of the key assumptions of the model has to do with the kind of change that is being sought.

“Leadership is about change. Effective leadership involves being able to accomplish positive change for others and for the community” (Wagner, 2006, p. 8).

The social change model was developed in the early 1990s by a team of professionals from a variety of backgrounds including higher education, business and psychology. Specifically, student affairs professionals in higher education were included in this process because of their vast experience in fostering leadership development in their respective students (Astin, 1996). The entire group of creators recognized that leadership has been predominantly viewed as an individual and solitary activity. They believed that a new model of leadership could be developed that would celebrate both the individual and collaboration with others (Astin, 1996). “The Social Change Model of Leadership development (HERI, 1996) was created specifically for college students and is consistent with the emerging leadership paradigm” (Dugan, 2006b, p. 335). The creators wanted to design a program of leadership development that could instill in a strong sense of civic responsibility and a desire for social change within college students all around the country. These outcomes can be fostered in both formal and informal programs (Astin, 1996).

The model that ensued outlines and defines eight values, the eight C’s, and these values are grouped according to individual, group and community values. The dynamic nature of the model also reflects that interactions between individual, group and community values. Finally, the central value of change is discussed and shown to be interconnected with all of the other values.

To fully understand the model it is important to consider the definitions and associated constructs of each of the eight values. The first personal value is consciousness

of self. As with many other leadership theories, this model begins with a baseline understanding of self. Specifically, the definition of this value is; “awareness of the values, emotions, attitudes and beliefs that motivate one to take action (Astin, 1996, p. 6). This awareness allows the individual to be an observer of one’s self in relationship to others. This concept is similar to what Heifetz described in his definition of adaptive leadership that involves movement between the dance floor and the balcony (Parks, 2005).

Congruence, the second value, is defined in fairly simple terms that might be used in every day conversation and language and the definition appears to be quite intuitive. Congruence is the amount of consistency in one’s thinking, feeling, behaving and living. People who live with the value of congruence are able to live with authenticity and honesty toward others on a consistent basis (Astin, 1996). The last personal value is commitment. This value measures one’s intensity and duration of action in relation to another person, idea or activity. Astin describes commitment as the source of energy for individual and collective efforts (1996). Another perspective on commitment and its relationship to leadership is defined and described by Sayles.

Leadership is primarily viewed as a vitally important skill to obtain commitment and motivation and to energize people to accept the worthwhileness of a new strategy or other major change. But in organizations with highly interdependent and dynamic parts, all of which are in flux, accomplishment takes more than commitment. It is not that commitment is unimportant, rather it is dependent on all the leader’s ability to build a system worth committing to. (Sayles, 1993, p. 227).

This perspective calls into question the leader’s skill in communicating the vision and being able to build loyalty to that vision. These tenets appear to be more akin to the



transformational view of leadership where leaders and followers are transformed through the process of leadership that develops over time.

The Social Change Model of Leadership development also consists of a set of group values; collaboration, common purpose and controversy with civility.

Collaboration, much like the definition of congruence, is a fairly simply defined value. It is characterized by an increase in a group's effectiveness because the group is able to tap into and maximize the individual talents of each group member to create the best possible outcome for a task or given project. The group benefits because the individual efforts create an outcome where the whole is greater than the sum of the individual parts.

Common purpose, the second group value, occurs when people work toward a shared set of aims and values. These shared values may be more implicit or may be overtly stated within the group. "Common purpose is best achieved when all members of the group build and share in articulating the purpose and goals of the group work" (Astin, 1996, p. 6). The final group value is controversy with civility and is perhaps one of the most important and difficult to achieve values when seeking to accomplish social change. This value delineates two fundamental realities. The first reality is that differences are inherent when working in any kind of group or even when working with one other person. The second reality corresponds to the first in that when these differences arise they must be handled in the most open, respectful and gracious way possible (Astin, 1996).

Finally, the last set of values consists of the community values; citizenship and change. Some may believe that citizenship is the ultimate aim of the social change model, but the other values should not be lost by placing sole importance on this value.

Citizenship is defined as the “process whereby the self is responsibly connected to the environment and the community” (Astin, 1996, p. 7). This definition also implies active engagement in the group and the community in order to serve these constituencies and to create lasting change. Change, the collective value that is implicitly connected to all of the other values is defined as the ability to maintain core functions of a group while simultaneously managing the complexities of a change effort. “The dynamic interaction across levels and between values contributes to social change for the common good, the eighth critical value associated with this model” (Dugan, 2006b, p. 336).

“Responsible citizenship and positive change are most likely to occur when the leadership group functions collaboratively with a common purpose, and encourages civility in the expression of controversy” (Astin, 1996, p. 6). In this statement alone one can clearly see the interrelationship of the values and the way in which the change value embodies the collective interaction of all of the other values.

The authors of the model were interested in creating something that could guide the creation and assessment of leadership development programs in higher education. The eight values come together to form a model that is accessible to college students because it was designed with the college student population in mind.

The Social Change Model we developed can guide the design of a leadership development program that emphasizes clarification of values, development of self-awareness, ability to build trust, capacity to listen, and serve others, collaborative work, and change for the common good. (Astin, 1996, p. 5)

The creators of the model were diligent in pointing out what could be expected as outcomes for students who learn and practice the values within the model. These students

should be expected to understand leadership as a process and not as purely positional. These students should also be able to benefit from service activities as a way of developing their leadership and their ability to positively impact social change in our society (Dugan, 2006b).

The social change model is consistent with ideas of self-efficacy. The concept of self-efficacy comes from Bandura's self-efficacy theory of behavior. Self-efficacy theory states that expectations of personal efficacy determine whether human actions and changes occur. Self-efficacy refers to one's ability to successfully perform a task or behavior. A person's self-efficacy expectations may influence whether the person will even attempt a given task, how well the person will cope given a new situation, whether the person will maintain persistence in the task, and the level of success in completion or performance of the task (Bandura, 1997).

Those who study and understand social change efforts recognize that these efforts do not come from top-down leadership. These change efforts typically are initiated and fostered from within organizations and permeate out from the center to introduce innovation and transformation.

This is how successful change most often works in reality. The top picks up on and supports efforts after they are under way and showing promise. It is only in retrospect, wanting to confirm our belief in patriarchy, that we resurrect the myth that change begins at the top (Block, 1993, p. 194).

“Despite the fact that this compelling model was developed for college students and is among the most well known (Moriarty & Kezar, 2000) there exists little published, empirical research regarding its use” (Dugan, 2006a, p. 4).

While the social change model clearly points to social change as hoped for result when the model is utilized, there are other models and theories associated with leadership that also point to social change as an intended outcome. For example, Ron Heifetz, a leadership and management scholar from Harvard University, discusses a view of authority in leadership that should inspire social change. Authority in his definition of leadership should help a group maintain equilibrium and also mobilize the social system to create a new reality or to institute transformational change within the organization (Parks, 2005). Given these parallel desired outcomes, leadership programs may be best designed using multiple models and theories in order to promote the most significant growth within the student participants.

### **The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership**

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership was conducted in 2006 and is known as one of the most comprehensive studies of leadership in higher education to date (Slack, 2006). The study utilized the Social Change Model of Leadership as the theoretical frame and measured student self-perceptions using an updated and shortened version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (MSL Guidebook, 2006). Tyree (1998) developed the original version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale which was a first attempt at measuring the Social Change Model of Leadership development. Reporting on preliminary results of the MSL, students measured in the study struggle the most with controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (Dugan, 2006a). These measures did not

appear to be impacted by gender, class year or other demographic characteristics of those who were sampled.

When originally planned for, the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) was intended to be utilized at just a few campuses. In a surprising response to some list-serve postings, dozens of institutions responded with a desire to participate in the study. In the end, 52 institutions were selected and participated. From these 52 campuses over 165,000 students from around the country were invited to participate in the study (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2006). Of those who were invited to participate, over 63,000 responded and almost 50,000 of those respondents completed enough of the instrument to be included in the analysis.

Purposive sampling was used to select institutions to participate in the MSL. This technique allowed for maximum variation in institutional characteristics and a sample that would be generalizable to the broader higher education community. Samples from each institution were then drawn in one of two ways. Full population samples were used for small campuses. Simple random samples were drawn from all other campuses and standardized at a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of +/- three. Campuses then over sampled by 70% to accommodate the typical 30% response rate achieved with web based surveys. (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2006, p. 5-6)

The researchers have graciously shared the findings of the study at several national conferences and are in the process of publishing a series of articles that articulate some of the findings. The researchers have also been gracious to share the data with other professionals who are in the process of their own research. This data is rich, comprehensive and will be instrumental in helping leadership scholars and practitioners to

be more intentional in planning leadership development programs and services on college campuses.

### **Three Populations of Interest**

“The ancient Greeks saw education (culture) as the path to a good and healthy life and to increase understanding (knowledge) of ourselves as human beings” (Aguirre & Ruben, 1993, p. 36). Given this philosophy of education and the aforementioned role of leadership in education, it is critical that all populations of students are offered the opportunity to grow through participation in leadership programs. Students from all walks of life, backgrounds and socioeconomic groups are attending college in higher numbers than ever before. “Our nation is now in a position to seize this unprecedented participation in higher education to prepare the leadership it needs for the next century” (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999, p. 11). If and when we are able to do exactly this, the entire society will benefit from an educated citizenry and from increased gains in every field of study and professional arena.

“The current perspective of leader education on our campuses suggests that little is being done to promote the leadership potential for our minority students” (Roberts, 1981, p. 127). While this statement was made over 25 years ago, not much has changed in terms of tailored programs that are designed to meet the needs of specific populations of students. Some may perceive that equal opportunity equates to the same programs being offered to every student so that all have access to the same information and experiences. This philosophy would appear to be in line with even ancient philosophies. “Indeed, more

than two-thousand years ago, Aristotle said, ‘The system of education in a state must...be one and the same for all, and the provision of this system must be a matter of a public action’ ” (Astin, 1985, p. 202). Many leadership educators have chosen the “one size fits all” approach and many student constituencies have suffered because of this choice. In addition to moving away from a standardized approach to leadership education, there is also a need to have a commitment to excellence in the programs that are offered. Astin said, “Equality of opportunity does not guarantee excellence. Students can have equal access to equally bad opportunities. In the ideal society, the educational system would be characterized by both excellence and equality” (1985, p. 82).

In order to fully understand the needs of unique populations and demographic groups, groups should be studied individually and program outcomes and offerings should be tailored to meet the specific needs that are found within the data. “If one of our goals is to develop a capacity for individuals to affect change in society, we need to consider the individuals that are served through our leadership programs and courses.” (Askew & Price, 2003, p. 13) We should also understand and be aware of the different outcomes that are possible based on the type of programs that are offered. All leadership programs should not and cannot be designed to provide the same outcomes (Roberts, 1981).

The MSL provides an opportunity to study the data and discern appropriate adaptations to existing programs and suggestions for the development of new programs. While dozens and dozens of dimensions and demographic variables exist within the data of the MSL, three particular populations of interest have been selected for the current study. All of these populations are ones being targeted for greater understanding in other

contemporary studies. The three populations include a particular emphasis on the unique needs of men, transfer students and first generation college students.

### **Men and Women**

From childhood, men and women report different emphases in leadership styles and perceptions. One must wonder if these styles are determined by the genetic make up of the child or by the environment in which he/she is being raised. This classic question of nature and nurture will not be solved here, but some examples of the differences in leadership between males and females will set the foundation for further discussion of the importance of understanding gender as a dimension of leadership development in college students.

Male children learn to put winning ahead of personal relationships or growth; to feel comfortable with rules, boundaries, and procedures; and to submerge their individuality for the greater goal of the game. Females learn to value cooperation and relationships; to disdain complex rules and authoritarian structures; and to disregard abstract notions like the quest for victory if they threaten harmony in the group as a whole. (Helgesen, 1990, p. 38).

In 1990, Helgesen published findings of a research study that examined the differences between male and female approaches to leadership and management. She conducted the study as a follow up to an earlier study that had been completed by Mintzberg which focused exclusively on male respondents. In Helgesen's research, she found that there were very different objects of focus between men and women. "Women focused on the ecology of leadership. Mintzberg noted that his men tended to become overly absorbed in the day-to-day tasks of management, and so rarely had the time to



contemplate the long range. This was not true of the women, who kept the long term in constant focus.” (1990, p. 25) In a more recent publication by Northouse (1997), it was pointed out that women tend to build support systems more effectively than their male counterparts. Women share competence with other women rather than setting up competition as a primary tool for achievement (Northouse, 1997).

The nuances between male and female styles of leadership become more critical as college student attendance patterns are examined and behaviors exhibited by college students become known – particularly the differences between men and women. Even as early as 1981, researchers were pointing to the decrease in college attendance for male students and the comparative increase for women (Chickering, A., 1981; Zwerling, Steven & London, 1992). Interestingly, even with the change in college attendance patterns, researchers in 2001 were still calling for increased attention on the experiences of female students (Cress et al., 2001). Similar calls for attention to male experiences do not seem to be predominant in the leadership literature.

Today the doors of the universities are open wider to women, then, not because educational institutions have become convinced of the justice of admitting more women but because the ‘market’ has changed. Market forces seem to have a greater impact on women than on men, favorable or unfavorable (Chickering, 1981, p. 257).

Women have been going to college in higher numbers for several decades and this has potentially influenced the tone and design of leadership development programs. Simultaneously, our society has begun to adopt more feminine forms of leadership that are consistent with the theories that have been posited in the post-industrial revolution, particularly the Social Change Model of Leadership development (Dugan, 2006b).

Therefore, female students may feel more prepared to lead in their post-graduation experiences because many arenas of work have adopted flatter organizational designs and more collaborative forms of work and they have had specific training that is congruent with their natural tendencies to help them succeed in these environments.

A meta-analysis of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles of leadership revealed some very interesting findings with regard to gender (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and vanEgen, 2003). This study showed that “women demonstrated more transformational behaviors (e.g. clearly communicated values, motivation, optimism, willingness to consider new perspectives, and attention to individual needs) than their male counterparts” (Dugan, 2006a, p. 2). While these transformational behaviors may help women to be successful in some leadership roles, the authoritarian style that women are less comfortable with often comes into play in higher level administrative positions.

The gender segregation so evident in the modern work world is exacerbated at the top echelons of business, the professions, and politics by gendered concepts of authority and leadership potential. Women are seen as legitimate leaders only in areas considered of direct concern to women, usually health, education and welfare. (Temes, 1996, p. 148).

Juxtaposing the exacerbated gender segregation, Helgesen offers a different perspective when she notes that chain of command leadership and hierarchical styles with their unspoken but loudly understood rules and codes, is “too lumbering and muscle bound for today’s economy” (1990, p. xix). Perhaps Helgesen is not stating that the command and control styles of past eras have gone away, rather that they are not appropriate for today’s economic environment.

It is encouraging that both men and women are being positively impacted by the college experience with regard to their views of gender equity and roles. Pascarella and Terenzini report

most studies indicate that during the college years students become increasingly more egalitarian, or 'modern', in their views on the equality of the sexes with respect to educational and occupational opportunities and roles, as well as to the distribution of responsibilities in marriage and family relations (1991, p. 282).

This developmental process may be something that leadership educators can capitalize on when they introduce concepts related to non-hierarchical and shared leadership.

The aforementioned pilot study of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, conducted by Dugan, is congruent here and supports other meta-analysis findings previously reported by Eagly & Johnson in 1990. The results of the pilot indicate that women may possess an advantage in leadership when it is "defined according to the emergent paradigm" (Dugan, 2006a, p. 6). Dugan's writing also pointed to findings that men and women score lowest on the same areas of the model: change, citizenship, and controversy with civility (2006a).

Specifically, past studies using the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale that is based on the Social Change Model of Leadership indicate that men and women differed on many of the eight constructs. "Statistical differences between men and women across six of the eight constructs point to the need for increased values-based leadership training and exploration for college men." (Dugan, 2006a, p. 7) This finding should immediately begin to impact the infusion of values-based curriculum in leadership programs across the country. Young men need to have the tools necessary to be effective in the values-based

leadership arena. Dugan suggests that one way of infusing this into leadership curriculum is to engage men in meaningful discussions that ascertain how they are currently tapping into their values to inform their leadership philosophy and to offer them suggestions for more capably doing this in the future (2006a). It is not that women could not benefit from similar discussions, but the demonstrated need is greater among men and these discussions could be a means of increasing understanding and potential for leadership performance. This may be particularly the case if the discussions are happening between a leadership professional who has a high quality relationship with the student participants.

Where the gender issue becomes increasingly complex is when you begin to factor in other variables like ethnic background and socioeconomic status. For example, “Latino males have one of the lowest college-going rates for underrepresented students” (Collatos, Morrell, Nuno, & Lara, 2004, p. 165). If Latino males are going to college in even lower numbers than other ethnic groups it may be difficult to ascertain the specific kinds of leadership programming that will be effective for this population of students.

Another confounding issue presented by Sutton and Terrell in 1997 is that black males are very eager to assume leadership positions and responsibilities in their lives, specifically in organizations in which they are involved. However, after being involved in these positions, these same men often report that they do not feel prepared to provide the leadership that is needed within the organization (Sutton & Terrell, 1997). This issue of self-efficacy and confidence may be something that could be fairly easily addressed with specific leadership programming.

## **Transfer Students**

The process of transferring from one institution to another has become more acceptable and more widespread in the recent past. Many students begin their college experience at one institution and for a variety of reasons find themselves believing that a different institution may be more suited to their educational and/or personal needs. There has also been a surge in students who begin their college experience at a community college or two-year college and then transfer to a four-year institution to complete their baccalaureate degree. Students who begin at a two-year institution with the intention of transferring to complete a four-year degree at another institution have a variety of reasons for choosing this route. These reasons may include the significantly less expensive tuition at community colleges, the opportunity to complete general education requirements at this less expensive tuition rate, and potentially the location of the community college may be a factor as it may be closer to home to allow the student to save money by living at home and not paying for college room and board. In addition to these financial reasons, some students may not feel academically prepared for a four-year institution and may have been recommended to a two-year school for additional academic preparation. “The transfer function is of paramount importance to maintaining access to higher education by providing the lower-division coursework for a baccalaureate degree for those students who, immediately after high school, may be ineligible for admission to a four-year college or university.” (Laanan, 2001, p. 5)

For the purpose of the current study, transfer students are being included because little has been discerned about the unique leadership needs and capabilities of these

students. Current leadership programming efforts around the country do not appear to be specialized in any way for this population. Community colleges face significant challenges in providing leadership training and experiential learning opportunities for their students. “Two-year students at commuter campuses are typically on campus less often than are students at four-year institutions because of work responsibilities; they attempt fewer credit hours and they interact with faculty members less as a result of residing away from the college campus.” (Laanan, 2001, p. 16) Assumedly, these students are probably also less able to take advantage of co-curricular programs, specifically any kind of leadership programs, because of the complexity of their life circumstances.

The phenomenon of transferring has received additional attention in the literature because these students represent a unique population and they have unique needs due to their status as a transfer student.

Each year, thousands of students transfer from a community college to a four-year college or university. Because of the large number of students involved in this process, many individuals and organizations-including administrators, researchers, faculty members, and policy makers-are interested in the progress of academic achievement of these students (Laanan, 2001, p. 61).

Specifically, transfer students often come to a four-year institution with specific needs related to the academic expectations and rigor. College officials should be aware of the need that transfer students have for information and explicitly stated expectations. If these expectations are not stated up front and in explicit terms, the complex adjustment process for transfer students can become too overwhelming to manage and achievement of the four-year degree will be less probable (Laanan, 2001).

Transfer students who are African American may benefit from the relationships that are built through participation in leadership programs. Sutton and Terrell (1997) reported that African American students may refrain from participating in leadership programs and opportunities because they feel isolated both socially and culturally. Being invited to participate in a program that is designed with them in mind, these students may feel more inclined to join in and benefit from the experience.

Given the frequent overlap between low-income, minority and transfer statuses, great gains may be possible through the use of intentionally designed leadership curriculum. One well designed and constructed leadership program may address educational outcomes for all three of these demographic characteristics. When students move through these experiences successfully, great gains may be possible both for our nation's economic future as well as for our society in general (Balz & Esten, 1998).

### **First Generation Students**

There can be significant overlap between the transfer student population and the population of first-generation college students (FGCS). "First-generation college students often represent a large segment of the community college population, and they represent a unique population with distinct goals, motivations, and constraints." (Inman & Mayes, 1999)

In 1994, a landmark study was published on the unique needs of first-generation college students. This study, conducted by Riehl, has been referenced in many subsequent studies and appeared to raise an initial concern about the experiences of this population of

students. At that time, Riehl said, “relatively little has been written about the special academic and personal characteristics of first-generation college students in the United States and how these characteristics affect their success in college” (1994, p. 15). Since 1994, dozens of additional studies have been conducted to ascertain these unique characteristics and how these impact higher education (Inman & Mayes, 1999). In 1992, Zwerling et al. provided a foreshadowing of the importance of FGCS from an economic perspective.

As technological advances have made many jobs obsolete and created others and as more occupations have sought to ‘professionalize’ by keeping their recruits in school longer, students have increasingly needed to exceed the educational level of their forebears in order to maintain their relative socioeconomic position. (Zwerling et al., 1992, p. 6)

There have been a variety of definitions used for a first-generation college student. Some definitions state that the student is the first in their family to attend any type of college including siblings (Billson & Brooks-Terry, 1982; York-Anderson & Bowman, 1991). Still other definitions would say that both parental and sibling college achievement is relevant. Most definitions point out the other frequent circumstances that are present for FGCS such as low-income households and limited exposure to higher education in any fashion (Balz & Esten, 1998; Hertel, 2002). Some studies also illuminate the significance of expectations within the family environment. “Parents communicate expectations and life goals to their children based on their own educational experiences.” (Steinmetz, 1988, p. 122)

First-generation college students (FGCS) have spawned particular interest in education because these are students who are breaking with the past experience in their



families and they are becoming involved in higher education with the hope of making a brighter future for themselves and for their families. Part of this interest has been generated because causal dependence between educational attainment and parental education status has been established (Billson & Terry, 1982). Researchers have sought to determine why this causal relationship exists and what other factors may be impacting educational attainment for FGCS. “As we have seen, the first-generation student appears generally to be less committed to the process of higher education, to experience more frustration and conflict, and subsequently is more likely to leave the academic circle entirely than is the second-generation college-goer” (Billson & Terry, 1982, p. 74).

In 1995-96, it was reported that 34% of students entering four-year institutions and 53% of students entering two-year colleges were first-generation students (Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak & Terenzini, 2004). It should be presumed that this number has increased with the additional emphasis on diversifying higher education and the increases in scholarships and financial aid for “at risk” students, including those who are first-generation. FGCS are also of interest because of the predominant ethnic groups that comprise this category of student. These groups are of particular interest because of the historical inequities that they have faced in the United States educational systems. “First generation African American, Hispanic, and Native American youth still lag behind the college-going rates of their white and Asian American counterparts” (Tierney & Hagedorn, 2002, p. 1). For the purpose of the current study, FGCS are being included because little has been discerned about the unique leadership needs and capabilities of these students.

Current leadership programming efforts around the country do not appear to be specialized in any way for this population.

FGCS may be often lumped in with other populations of students who are “at risk”. The challenge with this lumping together is found in that there can be so many factors that contribute to a student being labeled as high risk and more specific categories are not often established so that the unique nuances of each category or group of student can be studied and met. “University personnel should not make generalizations for academically high-risk students as a single group; instead they should be aware that first-generation and low-income students may present unique needs and risks” (Ting, 1998, p. 19). These unique needs may sometimes be difficult to identify because FGCS lack a communal identity due to their unique and diverse backgrounds (Orbe, 2004). They often overlap with other rubrics of students such as non-traditional, under-prepared or low-income students.

Naumann, Bandalos, and Gutken (2003) reported on variables that predict college success for FGCS. These variables include being a self-regulated learner. This type of learning manifests itself in students seeing academic tasks as having utility and they have stronger academic self-efficacy related to these useful tasks (Naumann et al., 2003). Still another study by Bartels (1995) identified these findings: “(a) first-generation college students perceived less social support from family than second-generation students, (b) social support from friends had a stronger relation to overall adjustment and institutional attachment for second-generation students, and (c) college self-efficacy was the psychosocial variable that most consistently related to the five adjustment outcomes for both groups of students” (p. iv). Finally, Ting reported that both cognitive and

psychosocial variables are critical to predicting the success (specifically academic achievement) of FGCS (1998). Some of these psychosocial variables include things such as high school rank and leadership experiences. These should be considerations in the design and development of leadership curriculum for FGCS.

FGCS tend to have a more difficult time adjusting to college than their second, third, etc. generation counterparts. FGCS deal with conflicting messages from home – the message to stay and be loyal to the family and the simultaneous message to achieve in the outside world, to be a strong delegate for the family (London, 1989). They have less commitment to being a student and this is often due to the lack of support they receive from home and the issue of being less prepared for college, i.e. lower SAT scores, lower High School GPA, etc. (Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004; Riehl, 1994). These students may be defined as reluctant or passive students and they often fail to develop high quality relationships within the university community (Folger, Carter & Chase, 2004). They are generally less participative in student organizations and activities and they interact less with faculty and other students on campus (Billson & Terry, 1982; Orbe, 2004; Steinmetz, 1988). These students also tend to work longer hours and may be constrained geographically because of wanting to be close to home (Inman & Mayes, 1999). FGCS also tend to be at a disadvantage financially because of the amount of family support they receive (Billson & Terry, 1982; Filkins & Doyle, 2002). These students are found to have weaker cognitive skills, have lower degree aspirations and believe that they will need longer to pursue their degree as compared with other students (Filkins & Doyle, 2002; Pascarella et al., 2004; Riehl, 1994). They also tend to be more career oriented and less

drawn to liberal arts curriculum (Billson & Terry, 1982). Finally, in two studies, FGCS were more likely to be female, more likely to have dependents and more likely to be older than the traditional median age of other students (Balz & Esten, 1998; Inman & Mayes, 1999).

FGCS may also have a more difficult time separating from their family of origin and making best friends or strong, high quality relationships on campus (Billson & Terry, 1982; Cushman, 2007; Riehl, 1994).

Students feel the tensions of entering new territory, and their parents are unable to reassure them. Their fellow college students often seem to be members of a club of insiders to which they do not belong. These kind of cultural tensions may be one reason that almost one-fourth of first-generation students who enter four-year colleges in the United States do not return for a second year. (Cushman, 2007, p. 44)

In the Inman & Mayes study referenced above, interviews with FGCS indicate that they often feel that they must make an “all or nothing” decision about staying connected to their family’s culture and expectations (1999). “They can only become active and passionate learners if they can gain the necessary skills to understand and self-direct themselves, to become full participants in the academic community, while still maintaining a strong connection to family and home” (Folger et al., 2004, p. 2).

These students live and share in the life and traditions of two distinct cultures, never quite wanting or willing to break with the past, even if permitted to do so, and never fully accepted, because of prejudice, in the culture in which they seek a place. (Zwerling et al., 1992, p. 7)

The family role cannot be understated in the lives of these students. One scholar noted, “unconsciously, family roles and struggles are recreated in work and social spheres” (Blum, 2007). These family roles and struggles will certainly be influential in a student’s

ability to succeed in college and not repeat multi-generational patterns. Instead of falling in line with past patterns, it is hoped that these students will be able to break a cycle and complete “unfinished business” on behalf of their family (Blum, 2007, p. 3). The higher education process includes significant transitional challenges for all students, regardless of gender, ethnicity, and generational status. In addition to the more routine transition issues, first generation students are also tasked with internalizing a new lifestyle, the lifestyle of the college-educated middle class (Steinmetz, 1988, p. 123).

Vincent Tinto has described a three stage process that students go through when transitioning to college. First they separate from their families. This is particularly difficult for FGCS because the family support they have received at home changes dramatically because no one can relate directly to what the student is experiencing (Hertel, 2002). This separation process is also challenging because FGCS may have only heard messages that a high school education would be sufficient to achieve life goals and assure a reasonable livelihood (Gandara, 1995). The second stage is that of transition. This stage includes the initial identification with the college community and the adjustments to new surroundings, new expectations and responsibilities. Folger et al., indicate that FGCS are often at risk in the university setting because they have transitional needs that are not met with traditional support structures (2004). They struggle adapting to the stresses of the college environment and find the transition process more challenging than their peers (Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004). Finally, the last stage of the transition process is integration or full membership in the new environment. FGCS may never reach full membership because of the ties they often maintain to home. This lack of full membership and sense of

belonging in the community contributes to their greater risk for dropping out of college (Filkins & Doyle, 2002). Other risk factors for FGCS include finances. FGCS may not be able to forego earnings while attending college and their families of origin may need the student's earnings to survive (Gandara, 1995). Membership and leadership in student organizations can serve as an aid to helping FGCS achieve this feeling of full membership and integration (Orozco, 1995). "Further, making it easier for FGCS to become involved in extracurricular activities may help them develop a social network on campus. It may also increase confidence from feeling more a part of the college culture." (Hertel, 2002, p. 15)

It appears that private higher education institutions are making greater strides at assisting FGCS to persist and graduate. "First-generation college students at private four-year institutions were more successful in attaining bachelor's degrees, with more than half (51%) receiving their degrees five years later compared to just 34.1% at public four-year institutions." (Balz & Esten, 1998)

Sometimes the FGCS status has an opposite effect in the life of a student. It can serve as a motivator and can have a galvanizing effect in academic achievement and success. Students who see themselves as pioneers and want to pave the way for others in their family may be responding positively to the pressure of being "the first" to attend college. This phenomenon may be particularly the case for African American and Latino students because they often come from more communal backgrounds and they may feel that they are not just representing their immediate family, but they are representing an entire community (Orbe, 2004).

Mentoring relationships can be instrumental in helping FGCS feel supported and advocated for in the college or university setting and are particularly important because these students cannot rely on their parents for advice on educational matters (Collatos et al., 2004; Cushman 2007). In fact, FGCS often find out about college from peers and siblings rather than from parents (Inman & Mayes, 1999). “Non college friends living off-campus may not be able to provide adequate and sorely needed social support that first-generation college students need.” (Hertel, 2002, p. 14) Cushman interviewed a group of FGCS whom she labeled as her student collaborators. These students attributed their success to the strong supportive relationships that were formed on campus. The strength of the relationship came in the academic and social elements that were included and the relationships were often fostered through membership in student organizations focused on minority groups (Cushman, 2007). Mentoring relationships may help to draw students into campus life and will help with the important support that these students need for success.

The same pioneering spirit that helps these students to break with the past educational achievement within their family may help these students to excel in leadership programs and in leadership roles as well. This will be particularly true if they can attach the same sense of pride and ownership as being the first to achieve such a position or accomplishment in their family. “If educators support them in the task, first-generation students will emerge with a strong new identity as college-educated adults.” (Cushman, 2007, p. 47)

Hertel conducted a study that compared the factors that impact first generation versus second generation college students. First generation students placed a higher value

on intellectual activities. “It appears that FGCS may utilize the value of intellectualism to keep them connected to the university and motivated in their first-year of college.” (Hertel, 2002, p. 14) In a different study, Filkins & Doyle (2002) found that first generation students tended to benefit more from interactive learning experiences and activities that engaged them in collaborative learning processes. Given these findings, additional research may be appropriate to determine if this is the case in leadership activities as well. Would FGCS respond more positively to leadership activities that were more intellectual in nature or activities that are interactive and collaborative? More research is needed in this area and could significantly impact the design of leadership programs in the future.

One successful program in aiding FGCS has been the TRIO program. “Funded under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, the TRIO programs (so named because initially there were three programs) were designed to help first-generation, low-income students overcome class, social and cultural barriers to higher education.” (Filkins & Doyle, 2002, p. 6) More specifically, TRIO programs were required to be comprised of at least 2/3 students from low-income families with incomes less than \$24,000 and should be the first to attend college in their family (Balz & Esten, 1998). These programs are still in effect today and continue to help in the aforementioned transition process of separation, transition, and full membership.

### **The Change Value**

While the Social Change Model of Leadership Development is comprised of eight values, the current study focused on the change value which is also known as the central



value. Wagner (2006) in a recent article about the Social Change Model said, “Since it is a key assumption of the SCM that the ultimate goal of leadership is positive social change, ‘change’ is considered to be at the ‘hub’ of the SCM.” (p. 9) All of the other values of the SCM interconnect with the change value and therefore the metaphor of the hub of a wheel is valid and accurate.

While the essence of the change value corresponds to an everyday understanding of change, there are some fine nuances that must be understood in order to see the importance of this value in the life and practices of a leader. The change value is defined as “the ability to adapt to environments and situations that are constantly evolving, while maintaining the core functions of the group.” (HERI, 1996) A key assumption of the change value is “leadership is about change. Effective leadership involves being able to accomplish positive change for others and for the community.” (Wagner, 2006, p. 8) This assumption identifies the outward focus of the change value and shows how it clearly interconnects with the individual, group and community values within the SCM.

In the distant and recent past, the change phenomena has been noticed and written about by leadership experts. Helgesen said, “America is entering the nineties at a far more entrepreneurial pace. A fast-changing economy that stresses innovation and diversity in order to meet global competition has spawned leaner, less hierarchical organizations.” (1990, p. 18) This pace of change has only increased with the advancement and proliferation of technology. The less hierarchical organizations have also fueled the flame of change efforts as individuals feel they can exercise change efforts from anywhere within the organization.

The aforementioned definition of the change value points out the necessity of flexibility and openness within the leadership environment. Parks said the art of leadership incorporates a willingness to sit between the edge of what is familiar and what is emergent (2006). Bennis and Goldsmith (1997) made a similar assessment when they said, “It is a fine line to walk in today’s volatile climate to steer a clear and consistent course while empathizing, responding, and dealing with change.” (p. 134) This place of balance in the statements by Parks and Bennis & Goldsmith is consistent with skills associated with the change value. Leaders must be flexible and adept at managing change, but they have to be able to maintain the core functions of their group or organization while exercising this flexibility.

With the heavy emphasis on change in the leadership literature, it can be concluded that if someone is not capable in this area, their leadership will be ineffective and they will not be able to move their organization forward toward positive growth and change. Leaders today must be prepared to navigate the sea of change in order to be successful. “Leadership within our institutional environments is being transformed as organizations undergo monumental changes. It is hard to find a single professional category that is not affected.” (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999, p. 11)

With the rapid pace of change in society, this value should be one that is focused on in leadership development programs both in higher education and in industry.

Schooled on the calmer waters of a more stable past, many executives and general managers have reluctantly come to realize that their existing leadership skills may be insufficient to meet the demands of the hypercompetitive, rapidly changing business environment of the twenty-first century.” (Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p. 145)

Leadership development programs can be designed to give executives, managers and non-positional leaders the chance to hone change skills. These change skills can introduce individuals to the more connected and integrated world in which they will be leading and managing change processes (Allen & Cherrey, 2000). When leaders begin to understand the interconnectedness of organizations and the broader society, they will approach change in a more systematic and holistic way. Leaders will make fewer decisions that are based on an individual situation or event and will begin to see things more contextually and systemically.

Eventually, leaders must be capable of not only managing change, but also of creating change. One author said,

To survive and succeed, every organization will have to turn itself into a change agent. The most effective way to manage change successfully is to create it. But experience has shown that grafting innovation on to a traditional enterprise does not work. The enterprise has to become a change agent. This requires the organized abandonment of things that have been shown to be unsuccessful, and the organized and continuous improvement of every product, service, and process within the enterprise....the point of becoming a change agent is that it changes the entire organization. Instead of seeing change as a threat, its people will come to consider it an opportunity. (Drucker, 2002, p. 295)

In addition to Drucker's comment about seeing change as an opportunity, Haas and Tamarkin also state the change is a constant in the life's equation and that it should be seen as a challenge, not as a threat (1992). This approach to becoming a change agent and valuing change as a way of producing social progress and positive innovation is admirable and often very difficult to achieve. One element of leadership that can help in this process is that of visioning. When leaders are able to cast a vision for what *could be* within the

organization, people become less afraid of the change process because they have a clearer understanding of the transformation process that will have to take place within the organization to achieve the desired vision (Haas & Tamarkin, 1992). With a decrease in fear, the change process will integrate more easily into the organizational culture.

In today's flatter organizational structures, the change value must be exercised in every quadrant of the organization.

Social change does not cascade down through the organization, anymore than it cascades down through society. If you look closely at successful change efforts in American industry, like Ford's employee involvement effort, you will see the innovation started from the middle and spread outward. (Block, 1993, p. 193).

In order to create sustainable change within an organization, perhaps the best case scenario is for an individual to have a vision for a change and to begin sharing this vision within his/her sphere of influence. As others catch on and implementation of the change begins, social change and positive change will inevitably result. This is the desired end of leadership development programs in higher education – that students would learn how to initiate change movements within their places of worship, work environments, families and broader society. When these efforts are successful, the return on investment from a leadership development curriculum is exponential.

## **Conclusion**

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership examined several demographic variables – all of which are proving to have interesting findings that will create inroads for further research on college student leadership development in the future. The purpose of

the current study was to examine three specific populations to determine if there were significant differences in their leadership self-perception, specifically surrounding their self-perception of the change value within the SCM.

For all three of the populations of interest in this study, male, transfer and first generation college students, there was concern regarding the effects of being in the minority on a college campus. “Several researchers have studied the effects of minority or out-group status within a majority ruling community. Findings revealed that the out-group membership is associated with social isolation, marginality and status inconsistency, increasing the risk for emotional breakdown.” (Orozco, 1995, p. 22) Interpreting what this trend may mean for higher education, if students in out-groups are not invited to be a significant part of the community, they may experience the marginality noted above and may not persist in their educational pursuits. This lack of persistence may contribute to the broader issue of educational opportunity and social equality and mobility within our society (Aguirre & Ruben, 1993). These students may join the ranks of so many others who have failed to achieve their academic goals and aspirations and are not able to benefit from the socioeconomic mobility that a higher education degree can afford. Not only that, but the students’ capacity to lead effectively within whatever future they pursue will be compromised and limited.

Well designed leadership programs with a specific emphasis on each unique population may help to provide students with a feeling of belonging and membership. These leadership programs, when designed intentionally for specific populations of

students, may provide learning experiences that supplement the student's in-class education and prepares them to be contributing members of society.

Rather than focusing on teaching leadership as abstract subject matter, or in any way suggesting that it may be a role for the elite, leadership should be a planned result of a college education for all students. We should have the courage and the wisdom to insist that leadership is the responsibility for everyone in a free society. (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999, p. 12)

If this philosophy is practiced, the planned result of leadership education may become a significant force in our society as more and more people will be prepared to live and lead in the ever-changing world in which we live. If the Social Change Model of Leadership development or tenets of this model are incorporated into the program the result may become true positive change within our society – change that celebrates both individuality and collaboration.

“The American system of higher education has come closer than any other system in the world to achieving the objective of making some kind of postsecondary educational opportunity available to all citizens.” (Astin, 1985, p. 80) With this commitment to education, it seems plausible that changing the educational experience to include intentionally designed leadership development curriculum may have rich rewards over time. Any changes made to leadership curriculum would need to be evaluated and assessed to determine their impact, but with consideration for the self-perceived leadership values found within the MSL, this hypothesis may prove to be very beneficial both now and in the future.

### **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The current study was conducted using data collected in 2006 in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). Because archival data was being utilized, it is necessary to describe both the original study's methodology as well as the methodology that will be used herein.

The original study was initiated through a partnership between the University of Maryland-College Park and the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). It was funded by several sources, including; grants from ACPA: College Student Educators International, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), the Maryland General Research Board, fees from participating institutions, the NCLP and the University of Maryland. The co-principal investigators were Dr. Susan Komives and Dr. John Dugan. A research team was formed to assist in working with institutional partners in the data collection and analysis processes. A guidebook was created for the research project and partner institutions were provided with significant direction in how to implement the study on their respective campus.

The theoretical frame of the original study, the MSL, was the social change model (SCM) of leadership development. The SCM was created in the 1990's by a team of 10 researchers and student affairs practitioners. "Calling themselves, 'The Working Ensemble,'" this group met six times in two-day working sessions, discussing what knowledge, values, or skills students need to develop in college in order to participate in

effective leadership focused on social change.” (Wagner, 2007) These scholars were interested in creating a model of leadership development that would be consistent with the developmental process and desired leadership perceptions and behaviors of college students. Two primary goals were identified for the model; 1) to enhance student learning and growth specifically in the areas of self-awareness and leadership competence or the ability to mobilize others in a collaborative approach to accomplishing tasks, and 2) to serve as a catalyst for positive social change (HERI, 1996). The social change model was created separately from a tool to measure the eight values contained within the model.

The first attempt to measure the Social Change Model of Leadership development came from a doctoral dissertation that was completed by Tyree in 1998. Tyree’s Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) was designed to measure the eight values of the social change model. The original scale was lengthy, but did lay a foundation for measuring student perceptions of the social change model through a self-report tool.

The MSL team adapted the original SRLS to be more concise in order to increase the potential for a good response rate. Also, several sub-studies as well as a leadership efficacy scale were included in the broader MSL project. The sub-studies included were student employment, student government, student activism, cognitive complexity, and leadership identity development (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2007).

Once the study was initiated, the team of researchers from the University of Maryland sent e-mails over several listservs inviting schools to participate in the study. “Over 150 individual campuses completed a preliminary application for MSL consideration” (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2007). The 52 participating institutions were



selected based on a variety of criteria that included, but were not limited to, size, regional representation, Carnegie type, leadership program description and type of institution (ie, Women's College, Hispanic Serving, etc.) These institutions were asked to pay \$1,000 to help support the expenses of the study. This purposive sampling technique for selecting institutions may contribute significantly to the broad application of possible findings from the study.

Campus liaisons were designated for each participating institution and MSL team members intentionally interacted with campus liaisons before each significant portion of the implementation process. Campus liaisons were charged with securing human subjects approval for the study from their individual campuses. Key pieces of information for the human subjects review application were supplied directly by the MSL team including informed consent letters and a copy of the instrument that was intended to be used in the study. Additionally, every campus was invited to supplement the instrument with 10 questions that would only be asked of participants from their institution. Larger campuses utilized a random sampling process rather than surveying the entire population of the campus. Those using random sampling were invited to select a group of 500 students to provide a comparison group. "Examples of comparison groups included students in leadership courses, positional student leaders, or those in particular programs like living learning communities." (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2007)

Two pilot studies were conducted using the SRLS and the results of these studies were critical to the process of shortening the instrument. Survey Sciences Group (SSG), based in Michigan, was responsible for designing the format of the final survey and

provided invaluable advice regarding the best procedures for implementing web based surveying. Selected participants at each institution were only able to complete the survey in the on-line format.

The MSL was administered to undergraduate students at 52 participating institutions in the United States entirely via the internet with data management services provided by Survey Sciences Group. Participation in the study was voluntary, and participants could withdraw from the survey at any time. Identifying information has been kept separate from the student responses. The study was implemented by a University of Maryland research team.

### **Population/Sample for Original Study**

Once the 52 institutions were selected for participation, one of two processes was utilized to sample students at the institution. “Full population samples were used for small campuses. Simple random samples were drawn from all other campuses and standardized at a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of +/- 3.” (Komives, Dugan & Segar, 2007). In addition to the simple random sample, campuses were able to over sample by 70% due to the lower response rate often found within web-based surveys.

Students on each campus received individualized e-mail invitations to participate in the study. Up to four follow up reminders were sent to each student. The window of time for the study was strategically coordinated with campus calendar conflicts such as spring break, etc. Anonymity was ensured in the process because student’s e-mail address was immediately separated from his/her responses to the instrument. Over 165,000 students

were invited to participate and 63,095 students responded. All college students who were enrolled at the 52 varied institutions of higher education in the United States; Sample - students (165,701) who were invited to participate in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership that was administered in Spring, 2006. Response rate of 38% yielded 63,085 student responses upon which the findings are based. Over 53,000 responses were from the random /population samples. Of these responses, 49,078 completed at least 90% of the survey and were considered to be viable responses for inclusion in the data analysis. The 38% response rate included the following breakdown by independent variable; 14,312 male students and 24,157 female students, 12,286 transfer students and 38,022 non transfer students, and finally, 7,164 first generation college students and 42,335 non first generation college students.

### **Instrumentation for Original Study**

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership is a descriptive study that allows for analysis of college student responses across the eight constructs of the Social Change Model of Leadership. As mentioned previously, the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale was included within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership and provided the data for analysis of student perceptions of the Social Change Model of Leadership.

### **Procedures for Original Study**

The 52 colleges and universities participating in the study represented a cross section of type, size, and Carnegie classification. The MSL was administered entirely via

the internet with data management services provided by Survey Sciences Group. Participants received an email from the study asking them to participate. The email directed them to a website and provided a unique, randomly assigned identification number. When students entered the web site, they were prompted to provide their ID number. This number separated the data on file from the student email in order to protect participant confidentiality. Once entered, they were able to begin the survey. Participants were sent up to three reminder emails requesting they complete the survey.

### **Data Analysis for Original Study**

Each campus received individualized data and accompanying analysis in a guidebook with charts, graphs, and descriptions. A follow up phone call was conducted between each institutional liaison and a member of the MSL research team. The purpose of this phone call was to assist the institution with the initial interpretation of the data for the particular institution. Campuses were expected to implement their own procedures for sharing the data and doing appropriate follow up on any interesting findings within their individual campus report. For example, if an institution found that male students scored higher on several of the scales, they might host a focus group of male students to follow up on these findings.

### **Current Study**

For the purposes of the current study, one specific value of the model was selected as a focus because of the centrality of the value and the critical role that it plays in shaping

the other values. The value focused on within the current study was the change value. “Change, of course, is the value ‘hub’ which gives meaning and purpose to the 7 C’s. Change, in other words, is the ultimate goal of the creative process of leadership – to make a better world and a better society for self and others” (HERI, 1996, p. 21). Speaking of the social change model, “the point of the model is...to help students acquire the skills and perspectives that will enable them to become effective change agents, regardless of their actual position or level of affluence” (HERI, 1996, p. 76).

Effective leadership can be defined by some as the ability to make things happen or to institute some kind of positive change that moves an individual or an organization forward. Because so many organizations are seeking effective leaders, it is important for students to advance far enough in their leadership development to be able to make things happen and institute change efforts.

Three distinct populations are also being singled out for inclusion in the current study. The researcher had an interest in the initial findings of the national study as it related to gender, transfer/non-transfer students and first generation college students/non FGCS. These three populations served as the independent variables for the study while the dependent variables consisted of the 10 questions related to the change value in the SRLS (See Appendix A) and the aggregate of these 10 questions, also known as the change scale. Five research questions were included within the study and were answered through appropriate statistical analyses.

Access to the data was obtained through written permission from the co-principal investigators of the original Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. The researcher

committed to utilizing the data for only the purposes of this study and the data file sent to the researcher will be destroyed at the close of the study. Also, the researcher was asked to commit to submitting the findings of the study for publication in at least one journal and appropriate credit should be given to the originators of the MSL.

The results of the study are reported using appropriate quantitative techniques according to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003). The data collected with the instrument were analyzed with a statistical analysis software program, specifically SPSS. Data has been appropriately coded by the researchers of the MSL project.

Research question one, “What is the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change, one of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership and a component of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, for select populations of college students as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership”, was analyzed utilizing descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations). “Descriptive statistics produce a number or a figure that summarizes or describes a set of data” (Spatz, 2001, p. 2). The mean form of central tendency was selected for this study because the scale of measurement of the dependent variable is interval scale.

Because of the presence of multiple independent and dependent variables, research question two asked “Are there significant 3 way or 2 way interactions among/between the three independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” was analyzed using a MANOVA. “The application of multivariate statistics in the behavioral sciences has

increased dramatically and it appears that this will be the dominant method of analysis in the future” (Bray & Maxwell, 1982, p. 340). The MANOVA technique is a sub-set of the general linear model or GLM. The GLM utilizes a regression approach to the analysis while the sub set MANOVA technique utilizes an approach that compares the explained or systematic variance to the unexplained or unsystematic variance (Field, 2005). To detect group differences on multiple dependent variables, the MANOVA technique was appropriate. “The principles of ANOVA extend to MANOVA when there is only one independent variable or when there are several, we can look at interactions between independent variables, and we can even do contrasts to see which groups differ from each other.” (Field, 2005, p. 571)

The MANOVA was appropriate for this data set because several independent and dependent variables were included in this research question and a univariate form of analysis would not be adequate to identify wherein the differences within and between groups lie. If a univariate form of analysis had been selected for this data, there would have been limited control of the experimentwise error rate. With the MANOVA, that error rate was held constant (Koslowsky & Caspy, 1991).

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) is a generalization of analysis of variance that allows the researcher to analyze more than one dependent variable. Many times it is of interest to compare group means on several variables simultaneously, and MANOVA allows the researcher to do this in both experimental and observational research. (Bray & Maxwell, 1982, p. 5)

The use of MANOVA also limited the number of chance findings on these conceptually related items within the change value scale (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990).

Once a MANOVA is run on the change subscale and if significant interactions are obtained, simple main effects will be calculated for each of the 10 individual items of the subscale. “Like ANOVA, MANOVA is basically a two-step process. The first step is to test the overall hypothesis of no differences in mean centroids for the different treatment groups. If this test is significant and no significant interactions are present, the second step is to explain the group differences.” (Bray & Maxwell, 1982, p. 340) If significant differences are found, follow up ANOVA’s will be conducted to further define where the significant differences can be found. Appropriate post hoc tests such as Tukey’s HSD will also be utilized to control for the potential of error in the analysis of the multiple comparisons and multiple determinations (Benjamini & Braun, 2002). The researcher should consider the homogeneity of variance and the issue of unequal sample sizes when utilizing this follow up test (Dayton, 1998).

In addition to the MANOVA test statistic, the researcher also conducted a 10x10 correlation matrix using the 10 dependent variables. The correlation matrix (or R-matrix) allowed the researcher to determine the how the 10 dependent variables related to each other. If the variables were related, the correlation matrix assisted the researcher in determining if those relationships were positive, negative or complex with a combination of positive and negative. “Considerable caution must be taken when interpreting correlation coefficients because they give no indication of the direction of causality.” (Field, 2005, p. 127)

Answers to research questions three, four and five were determined through the significance levels (F-tests) for each dependent variable. This type of analysis allowed the



researcher to determine if the two levels within each of the three populations included in the study were different. By calculating an effect size for any differences found, the researcher was also able to ascertain the degree of difference; small, medium or large (Spatz, 2001). The effect size equation was used; the mean difference between groups divided by the pooled standard deviation (Maor, Olmer, Bar-Meir & Mozes, 1998). An effect size index was also used for standardization purposes. The size of the effect (strength of association) is interpreted as follows:  $<.01$ - no effect,  $.01-.05$  – small effect,  $.06-.13$  – medium effect and  $>.14$  – large effect. It is becoming increasingly important in social science fields, including the field of education, to report effect size to augment and increase the value of significance testing (Levine & Hullet, 2002). In the current study, significance was not used as the sole indicator of a finding rather effect size was calculated to determine if differences found are large enough to be important for consideration (Carver, 1984; Levine & Hullett, 2002). An effect size reveals how strongly two or more variables are related. The effect size calculation used in this study was partial eta squared. The reason why partial eta squared was chosen over eta squared is that the same dependent variables are being investigated in this study across several independent variables. For comparability purposes, the partial eta squared effect size measure is the most appropriate (Olejnik & Algina, 2003).

In addition to the partial eta squared effect size calculation, it is also important to take note of the measure of observed power. “According to Cohen and others, the minimum level of power researchers should accept is  $.80$ , indicating an 80% chance of rejecting a false null hypothesis at a given level of effect.” (Osborne, 2008, p. 156)

Reporting power aided the researcher in determining the likelihood of Type I and Type II errors in the study.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **ANALYSIS OF THE DATA AND RESULTS**

The purpose of the study was to determine the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change for selected college student populations based on the Social Change Model of Leadership. A second purpose was to determine differences in the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change between and among the selected college student populations. Responses to the 10 individual items of the Change Scale (MSL) were measured and analyzed to determine any significant differences and/or interactions.

The purpose of this chapter is to share the results of the analysis conducted by the researcher, specifically the data analysis that relates to the five research questions presented in Chapter I. Where it is appropriate, tables and figures are included to illustrate the data findings and comparisons.

In the original Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership study conducted by researchers at the University of Maryland, selected students on each of the 52 campuses received individualized e-mail invitations to participate in the study. Over 165,000 students were invited to participate and 63,095 students responded. Over 53,000 responses were from the random /population samples. Of these responses, 49,078 completed at least 90% of the survey and were considered to be viable responses for inclusion in the data analysis.

The current study utilized data from one specific portion of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. Specifically, this study examined three populations of interest (first

generation college students, transfer students and male students) with regard to their self-reported scores on the change sub-scale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale. These scores were analyzed using a variety of statistical procedures to allow the researcher to answer the five research questions of the study.

### **Research Question One**

Research question one asked, “What is the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change, one of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership and a component of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, for select populations of college students as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” This question is answered through careful analysis of descriptive statistics for the independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status.

The gender variable must be analyzed carefully. It should be understood that the option was provided for respondents to forego this question completely or to identify oneself with a different sexuality than male or female, i.e. homosexual, bisexual or transgendered. For the purposes of this study, the difference between males and females is most critical and therefore, for the sake of simplicity and clarity, the other gender categories are not included in the analysis. Approximately 74% of respondents identified as being either male or female and these respondents were utilized in further data analysis. To answer research question one, the researcher disaggregated each of the select populations of gender, transfer status and generational status and looked specifically at the students’ scores on the change value. More specifically, the researcher looked at the

aggregate value of the change scale - a combined score for the students' responses on the 10 individual items of the change scale. For the gender variable, the mean score for male students was 3.75 and male students constituted 37.2% of the total number of respondents. The mean score for female students was 3.74. The scale was a likert scale with the following categorizations; one equaled strongly disagree, two equaled disagree, three was a neutral response, four equaled agree and five equaled strongly agree. See Table 4 for a full description of the change value by gender.

**Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for the Gender Variable**

	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
Mean	3.75	3.74
Standard Deviation	.47	.47

The change variable for transfer status indicates that 70 respondents failed to clearly identify themselves as either starting at their current institution or starting their education at another institution. With 99.9% of the respondents reporting, the differences between transfer and non-transfer students is as follows; 75.6% of students reported as being non-transfers while 24.4% reported to have started their education elsewhere. On the aggregate change scale described above, those who started elsewhere or who had transferred had a mean score of 3.80 while those who started at their current institution had a mean score of 3.73 reflecting that transfer students scored considerably higher than non-transfer students on the 10 items of the change scale. Given what is known about the path of transfer students who have moved from one institution of higher education to another, it

can be stated that transfer students (through their first-hand experience) have a greater capacity in the area of change. They score higher on the ability to manage change while maintaining the core functions of a group. Transfer students and their counterparts shared the same standard deviation of .47. Table 5 provides descriptive information on the transfer status variable.

**Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Transfer Status Variable**

	<b>Transfer Students</b>	<b>Non-Transfer Students</b>
Mean	3.80	3.74
Standard Deviation	.47	.47

The final independent variable to be analyzed was generational status. For the purpose of the MSL, generational status was defined through asking the student “What is the HIGHEST level of formal education obtained by any of your parent(s) or guardian(s). If students answered high school diploma, GED or less they were categorized as first generation students. Once again, some cases were excluded from the analysis because of the way in which the respondent(s) answered the questions of the instrument (879 respondents failed to answer clearly in this area, leaving 98.3% of the respondents for analysis). A relatively low number of respondents identified themselves as being first generation college students, 14.5%. On the aggregate change value, these students scored a mean of 3.77 while their non-first generation counterparts scored a mean of 3.75. While this numerical difference appears to be quite small, given the sample size included in the

study, the difference is important. It can be determined from simply examining this difference that FGCS have a higher capacity for managing change. This determination is consistent with the literature on FGCS as they are implementing a change by their very attendance at college. They are breaking from the tradition of the past experience of their families and paving a new way forward. Interestingly, the definition of change used within the SRLS is that one is able to manage change while maintaining the core functions of a group. In the future, it may be interesting to follow up with qualitative research efforts to determine how responsible FGCS feel for maintaining the core functions of the family unit. For a comprehensive view of the descriptive statistics related to generational status, see Table 6.

**Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for Generational Status Variable**

	<b>First Generation</b>	<b>Non First Generation</b>
Mean	3.77	3.75
Standard Deviation	.48	.47

In summary, the gender variable is the most complex to evaluate using descriptive statistics because of the exclusion of students who did not categorize themselves as male or female. All of the other measures are fairly straightforward. It is interesting to note the small size of students who fall within the first generation college student category. Of the over 50,000 respondents, only 7,164 identified themselves as first generation college students. Perhaps additional study will be appropriate with larger samples of first generation students in order to discern their leadership and change perceptions and needs.

While there were not major differences in the average scores of different levels among these three independent variables, it is interesting to note that the smaller group in each variable scored higher on the aggregate change value. For example, there were only 7,164 FGCS vs. 42,335 non FGCS. This is interesting because one might believe that students in the majority who generally scored higher on the other values of the change scale would also score higher on the change value because it is the central or hub value of the entire model.

In summary, the answer to research question one, “What is the self-perceived capacity to adapt to change, one of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership and a component of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, for select populations of college students as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” is found in the aggregate change value score in Table 7 below. For each independent variable, a mean score is reported.



**Table 7. Comprehensive View of Descriptive Statistics for Three Independent Variables**

	<b>N</b>	<b>% of total respondents</b>	<b>Mean Score on Aggregate Change Value</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
Male Students	14,312	37.20	3.75	.47
Female Students	24,157	62.80	3.74	.47
Transfer Students	12,286	24.40	3.80	.47
Non Transfer Students	38,022	75.60	3.73	.47
First Generation Students	7,164	14.50	3.77	.48
Non First Generation Students	42,335	85.50	3.75	.47

In examining the comprehensive view of descriptive statistics for all three independent variables, it can be determined that the largest percentage of total respondents had the smallest standard deviation within their responses. Non first generation college students represented 85.5% of the total reporting number (42,335 respondents) and had a standard deviation of .47. This means that the dispersion from the mean was the smallest for this group of respondents. The smaller range of variability indicates that these students (even with a very large number of respondents) responded in more uniform ways to the individual items of the change scale. Perhaps this indicates that the experience of non-first generation college students is more similar in comparison to each other than the experience of FGCS in comparison to each other.

FGCS, with the smallest percentage of total students reporting, had a standard deviation of .48. This means that the dispersion from the mean was the largest for this group of respondents. While there is not a huge difference in these two measures of standard deviation, it is an interesting difference to note given the slightly wider range of variability in the replies from the FGCS. The wider range of variability in the replies from FGCS indicates that these respondents had more unique and/or diverse responses to the items on the change scale. Their answers indicate more breadth and less uniformity.

### **Research Question Two**

Research question two asked, “Are there significant 3 way or 2 way interactions among the three independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” Given the differences represented in the aggregate change value for gender, transfer status and generational status, the results of research question two will begin to denote from where these differences are coming within the 10 individual items of the change scale of the SRLS.

First, a correlation matrix (Table 8) was completed for the total (aggregate) sample for the 10 individual items in the change scale within the SRLS. The correlation matrix revealed interesting relationships between/among the 10 items, but the amount of emphasis placed on these findings must be carefully considered and examined. In these bivariate correlation coefficient situations, the third-variable problem must be taken into account. In any one of these correlations, causality cannot be assumed because of the potential for

**Table 8. Correlation Matrix of Individual Items Found in the Change Scale**

	<b>Trans. makes me unconf SRLS 8</b>	<b>I am comf. init. new ways of looking at things SRLS 12</b>	<b>Change brings new life to an org. SRLS 17</b>	<b>There is energy in doing some- thing a new way SRLS 20</b>	<b>Change makes me unconf SRLS 26</b>	<b>New ways of doing things frus- trate me SRLS 36</b>	<b>I work well in chang- ing env SRLS 39</b>	<b>I am open to new ideas SRLS 43</b>	<b>I look for new ways to do some- thing SRLS 45</b>	<b>I can identify the diff. btwn positive and neg. change SRLS 50</b>
SRLS 8	1	.26	.11	.18	.64	.47	.48	.24	.24	.10
SRLS 12	.26	1	.32	.39	.29	.31	.42	.39	.47	.22
SRLS 17	.11	.32	1	.31	.10	.15	.26	.30	.28	.19
SRLS 20	.18	.39	.31	1	.20	.25	.34	.36	.40	.25
SRLS 26	.64	.29	.10	.20	1	.51	.50	.27	.28	.12
SRLS 36	.47	.31	.15	.25	.51	1	.39	.31	.31	.12
SRLS 39	.48	.42	.26	.34	.50	.39	1	.36	.42	.22
SRLS 43	.24	.39	.30	.36	.27	.31	.36	1	.37	.22
SRLS 45	.24	.48	.28	.40	.28	.31	.42	.37	1	.24
SRLS 50	.10	.22	.19	.25	.12	.12	.22	.22	.24	1

unmeasured or measured variance found in other variables. However, to determine a greater amount of information about the strength of relationship between the two dependent variables (each pair of SRLS item responses), the correlation coefficient can be squared. It is known as the coefficient of determination. The coefficient of determination "...is a measure of the amount of variability in one variable that is explained by another" (Field, 2005, p. 128).

Several items within the 10X10 correlation matrix present interesting findings. SRLS 8, "Transition makes me uncomfortable" crossed with SRLS 26, "Change makes me uncomfortable", reveals a Pearson correlation of .64. Squaring this to discover the correlation coefficient leads to a value of .41 (Table 9). If this value is converted into a percentage it can be determined that discomfort with transition (SRLS 8) accounts for 41% of the discomfort associated with change (SRLS 26). This makes logical sense as many people would probably equate change and transition to similar circumstances or phenomenon. Of all possible relationships between the 10 items of the change scale, the relationship between items SRLS 8 and 26 demonstrates the strongest relationship between two items.

**Table 9. Correlation Coefficients for the 10 Individual Items Found in the Change Scale**

	Trans. makes me uncomf SRLS 8	I am comf. init. new ways of looking at things SRLS 12	Change brings new life to an org. SRLS 17	There is energy in doing some- thing a new way SRLS 20	Change makes me uncomf SRLS 26	New ways of doing things frus- trate me SRLS 36	I work well in chang- ing env SRLS 39	I am open to new ideas SRLS 43	I look for new ways to do some- thing SRLS 45	I can identify the diff. btwn positive and neg. change SRLS 50
SRLS 8	1	.07	.01	.03	.41	.22	.22	.06	.06	.01
SRLS 12	.07	1	.10	.15	.08	.10	.17	.16	.22	.05
SRLS 17	.01	.10	1	.10	.01	.02	.07	.09	.08	.04
SRLS 20	.03	.15	.10	1	.04	.06	.12	.13	.16	.06
SRLS 26	.41	.08	.01	.04	1	.26	.25	.07	.08	.01
SRLS 36	.22	.10	.02	.06	.26	1	.15	.10	.10	.01
SRLS 39	.22	.17	.07	.12	.25	.15	1	.13	.17	.05
SRLS 43	.06	.16	.09	.13	.07	.10	.13	1	.14	.05
SRLS 45	.06	.22	.08	.16	.08	.10	.17	.14	1	.06
SRLS 50	.01	.05	.04	.06	.01	.01	.05	.05	.06	1

The smallest correlation is found between SRLS 50, “I can identify the differences between positive and negative change” and SRLS 8, “Transition makes me uncomfortable” (Table 9). The Pearson correlation score is only .10. Squaring this gives a value of .01. If converted into a percentage it can be said that “Transition makes me uncomfortable” only accounts for 1% of the variability seen in the responses to SRLS 50, the “ability to identify the differences between positive and negative change”. Once again, this outcome is quite logical as the feeling of discomfort with transition would probably have little to do with the skill that a student has or feels that they have to differentiate between positive and negative change.

A few other interesting correlations are present within the matrix. None of these examples are quite as strong as the previously cited example of transition and change, but for the sake of understanding how student respondents are reacting to change, these examples merit analysis. The next strongest correlation came between SRLS 36, “New ways of doing things frustrate me” and SRLS 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable”. This correlation has an R of .51. The correlation coefficient is .26, so each of these two variables account for 25% of the variability in the other variable. One last relationship of interest is between SRLS 39, “I work well in changing environments” and SRLS 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable”. This correlation has an R of .50. The correlation coefficient is .25, so once again “change makes me uncomfortable” accounts for 25% of the variability found in SRLS 39, the “ability to work well in changing environments”. This relationship appears to suggest that although students are somewhat uncomfortable with change, they may have ways of overcoming that discomfort and may have skills in working well in changing environments. All of these examples represent a high effect according to Cohen’s effect size index.

Using Cohen’s effect size index of  $r=.10$  (small effect),  $r=.30$  (medium effect), and  $r=.50$  (large effect), it is interesting to note patterns in the number of small, medium and large effects across the 10 individual items of the change scale. Table 10 represents the same information as Table 8 with added color coding by effect size. This table begins to show interesting trends and patterns in small, medium and large effects.

**Table 10. Cohen's Effect Size within 10x10 Correlation Matrix of Individual Items****Found within the Change Scale1**

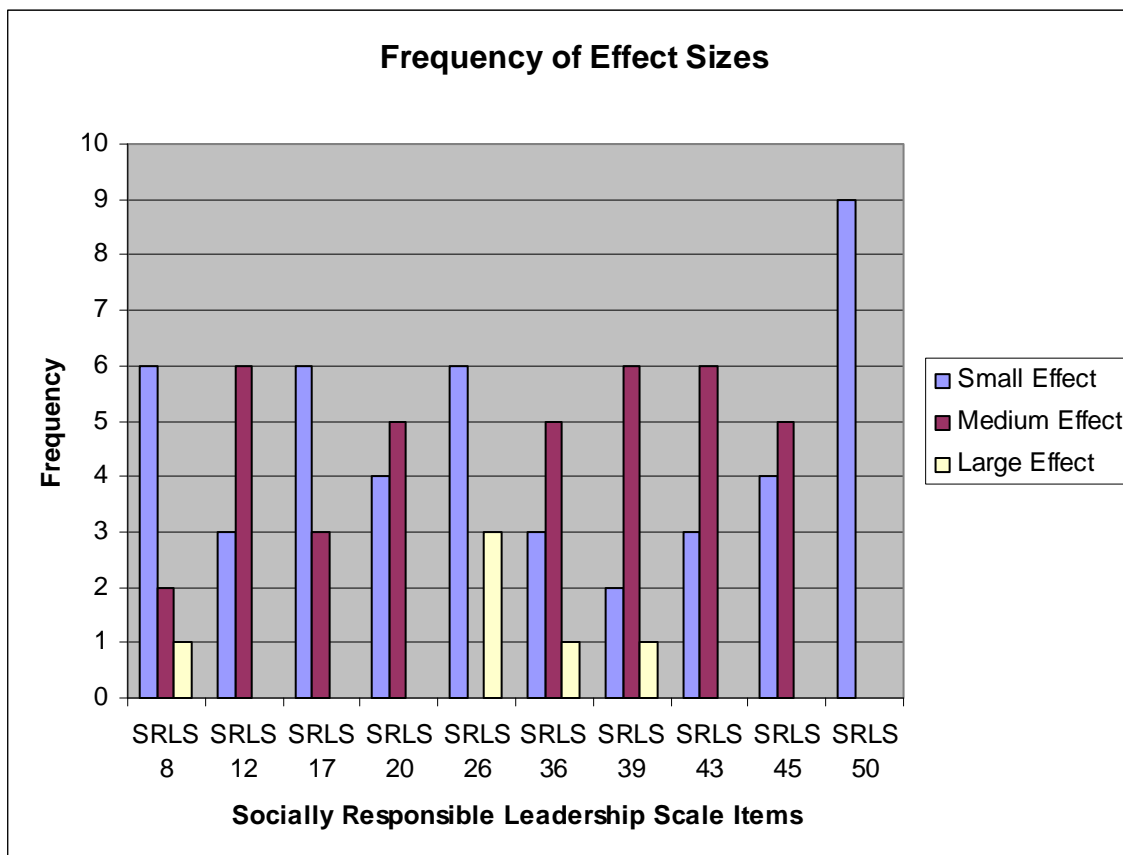
	Trans. makes me uncomf SRLS 8	I am comf. init. new ways of looking at things SRLS 12	Change brings new life to an org. SRLS 17	There is energy in doing some- thing a new way SRLS 20	Change makes me uncomf SRLS 26	New ways of doing things frus- trate me SRLS 36	I work well in chang- ing env SRLS 39	I am open to new ideas SRLS 43	I look for new ways to do some- thing SRLS 45	I can identify the diff. btwn positive and neg. change SRLS 50
SRLS 8	1	.26	.11	.18	.64	.47	.48	.24	.24	.10
SRLS 12	.26	1	.32	.39	.29	.31	.42	.39	.47	.22
SRLS 17	.11	.32	1	.31	.10	.15	.26	.30	.28	.19
SRLS 20	.18	.39	.31	1	.20	.25	.34	.36	.40	.25
SRLS 26	.64	.29	.10	.20	1	.51	.50	.27	.28	.12
SRLS 36	.47	.31	.15	.25	.51	1	.39	.31	.31	.12
SRLS 39	.48	.42	.26	.34	.50	.39	1	.36	.42	.22
SRLS 43	.24	.39	.30	.36	.27	.31	.36	1	.37	.22
SRLS 45	.24	.47	.28	.40	.28	.31	.42	.37	1	.24
SRLS 50	.10	.22	.19	.25	.12	.12	.22	.22	.24	1

Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

**Yellow** = small effect, **Green** = medium effect, **Gray** = large effect

There are 46 correlations with a small effect, 38 with a medium effect and only six correlated items with a large effect according to Cohen's scale. These comparisons allow the researcher to determine that the change scale is measuring a fair number of items that are unique and do not have a strong relationship with other items in the scale. However, enough of the items have a medium effect or strength of relationship to demonstrate that these individual items fit together well to form the change scale. Figure 2 shows a visual illustration of the frequency of small, medium and large effects of the correlation between individual items of the change scale. For each item of the scale, the number of small, medium and large effect size correlations are indicated. SRLS 50, "I can identify the

difference between positive and negative change” has the largest number of any effect size correlation, a small effect in this case.



**Figure 2. Frequency chart of small, medium and large effects by SRS change scale item**

SRS change scale items with a large number of small effects included item 8 “Transition makes me uncomfortable”, item 17 “Change brings new life to an organization”, and item 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable”. No particular patterns appear to exist for these items.



Items with a large number of medium effects included item 12 “I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things”, item 39 “I work well in changing environments” and item 43 “I am open to new ideas”. Within item 12, there appear to be several stronger correlations with other items that represent a positive perspective toward change. For example, item 39 correlates the highest with item 12 and together these indicate a comfort and confidence in dealing with change.

While item 17 only had 3 medium effects, there appeared to be a pattern among those correlations. Examining item 17 “Change brings new life to an organization” more closely, the pattern that appears in the medium effect correlations exists in items 12 “I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things”, item 20 “There is energy in doing something a new way” and item 43 “I am open to new ideas”. All of these items appear to indicate optimism about change and doing things in new ways based on the percentage of overlap between these items and item 17 where the respondent is indicating a belief in the value of change for an organization.

As mentioned within the methodology section, several items within the SRLS change scale were scored negatively. This means that the question was phrased from a more negative perspective so that a lower score on the interval scale has to be inverted to appropriately register the students’ reaction to the statement. Another correlation of interest is between SRLS 12, “I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things” and the medium correlation (.31) with SRLS 36, “New ways of doing things frustrate me”. One might think that students would not score as high on SRLS 36 if they feel comfortable initiating new ways of doing things or initiating change efforts. If this is a frustrating

experience, why might students feel comfortable with it? Questions such as this one will be more fully explored in the final chapter of this research.

Of all of the individual items within the change scale, the item that appears to have the highest correlation with other items is SRLS 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable”. As seen in Table 8, this item has three high correlations with other individual items within the change scale (SRLS 8, 36 and 39). These individual items all correlate with a level of over .50. This indicates that a students’ perception of discomfort with change is interdependent on other perceptions of change. This may be based on the students’ personal experiences with change or with societal viewpoints of change that may lead one to adopt a negative perception about change.

The review of the correlation matrix and accompanying coefficient of determination measures revealed patterns of students’ perceptions and self-assessments regarding change. While the review of information from the correlation matrix and the coefficient of determination measures did not reveal the answer to research question 2, it did establish that the change scale contains 10 items that appropriately fit together and relate interdependently enough to establish confidence in the 10 items as a scale or set of correlated questions. This is important as aggregate values of the change scale are utilized throughout the study to establish possible interactions between/among the three independent variables.

### **Three Way Interaction Analysis**

In order to establish the specific answer to Research Question 2, a 3X10 MANOVA was employed to determine if differences existed in the three populations of interest with regard to the 10 individual items of the SRLS Change Scale (Table 11). The three independent variables (with two levels in each variable) included gender, transfer status and generational status. The dependent variables were the respective mean scores on the 10 individual items of the SRLS Change Scale. No significant interactions were found between/among the three independent variables. There is no significant interaction among the three independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership.

**Table 11. Findings of MANOVA Test for Gender, Generational Status and Transfer****Status**

<b>Effect</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Hyp. df</b>	<b>Error df</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Partial Eta Squared</b>	<b>Noncent. Parameter</b>	<b>Obs. Power</b>
<b>Gender</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.01	27.61	10	37805	.00	.01	276.12	1.0
Wilks' Lambda	.99	27.61	10	37805	.00	.01	276.12	1.0
Hotelling's Trace	.01	27.61	10	37805	.00	.01	276.12	1.0
Roy's Largest Root	.01	27.61	10	37805	.00	.01	276.12	1.0
<b>Transfer Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.01	18.62	10	37805	.00	.01	186.28	1.0
Wilks' Lambda	1.00	18.62	10	37805	.00	.01	186.28	1.0
Hotelling's Trace	.01	18.62	10	37805	.00	.01	186.28	1.0
Roy's Largest Root	.01	18.62	10	37805	.00	.01	186.28	1.0
<b>Generational Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.00	3.89	10	37805	.00	.00	38.98	.99
Wilks' Lambda	1.00	3.89	10	37805	.00	.00	38.98	.99
Hotelling's Trace	.00	3.89	10	37805	.00	.00	38.98	.99
Roy's Largest Root	.00	3.89	10	37805	.00	.00	38.98	.99
<b>Gender* Transfer Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.00	1.01	10	37805	.42	.00	10.14	.55
Wilks' Lambda	1.00	1.01	10	37805	.42	.00	10.14	.55
Hotelling's Trace	.00	1.01	10	37805	.42	.00	10.14	.55
Roy's Largest Root	.00	1.01	10	37805	.42	.00	10.14	.55
<b>Gender* Generational Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.00	.50	10	37805	.88	.00	5.05	.27
Wilks' Lambda	1.00	.50	10	37805	.88	.00	5.05	.27
Hotelling's Trace	.00	.50	10	37805	.88	.00	5.05	.27
Roy's Largest Root	.00	.50	10	37805	.88	.00	5.05	.27

**Table 11. Continued**

<b>Effect</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Hyp. df</b>	<b>Error df</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Partial Eta Squared</b>	<b>Noncent. Parameter</b>	<b>Obs. Power</b>
<b>Transfer Status*</b>								
<b>Generational Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace								
Wilks' Lambda								
Hotelling's Trace								
Roy's Largest	.00	1.56	10	37805	.11	.00	15.67	.78
Root	1.00	1.56	10	37805	.11	.00	15.67	.78
	.00	1.56	10	37805	.11	.00	15.67	.78
	.00	1.56	10	37805	.11	.00	15.67	.78
<b>Gender*Transfer Status*</b>								
<b>Generational Status</b>								
Pillai's Trace	.00	1.12	10	37805	.34	.00	11.23	.60
Wilks' Lambda	1.00	1.12	10	37805	.34	.00	11.23	.60
Hotelling's Trace	.00	1.12	10	37805	.34	.00	11.23	.60
Roy's Largest	.00	1.12	10	37805	.34	.00	11.23	.60
Root	.00	1.12	10	37805	.34	.00	11.23	.60

Because the highest order interaction among generational status, gender and transfer status revealed no significant differences, the next piece of analysis to determine significant differences between variables is to look at the interaction between any two of the three independent variables.

### **Two Way Interaction Analysis**

Analysis of the relationship between each combination of two independent variables (gender, transfer status and generational status) revealed no significant

interactions (Table 11). There was no significant interaction and/or difference between the independent variables of gender and generational status. This answer means that gender and generational status do not appear to be interdependent on the 10 individual items of the change scale. It can be determined that an individual's response to these 10 items is not impacted by their status as both a male/female and first generation/non-first generation student.

There was no significant interaction and/or difference between the independent variables of generational status and transfer status. This answer means that generational status and transfer status do not appear to be interdependent on the 10 individual items of the change scale. It can be determined that an individual's response to these 10 items is not impacted by their status as both a first generation/non-first generation student and a transfer/non-transfer student.

There was no significant interaction and/or difference between the independent variables of gender and transfer status. This means that gender and transfer status do not appear to be interdependent on the 10 individual items of the change scale. It can be determined that an individual's response to these 10 items is not impacted by their status as both a male/female and transfer/non-transfer student.

Since there is no significant interaction between or among the independent variables with respect to the 10 individual items of the change scale, this means that a student's status on one of the independent variables did not interact with their status in the other independent variables in influencing their responses to the change scale. If there had been a significant interaction between/among the independent variables, it could be said

that a relationship exists between the independent variables and the researcher would have probed further to determine the nature of the relationships and their influence on responses to the change scale. Because this relationship did not exist, no further attention with respect to the interaction of the three independent variables was conducted.

Summarily for research question two, no three way or two way interactions between/among the three independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status were found suggesting that responses to the 10 items of the SRLS Change Scale were not a function of the interaction of these three independent variables.

### **Methodology for Research Questions Three, Four and Five**

Research questions three, four and five will all be answered using the statistical procedures of the 3X10 MANOVA. Research question three asked, “Is there a significant difference between first generation and non first generation students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” Research question four asked, “Is there a significant difference between male and female students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” and research question five asked, “Is there a significant difference between transfer and non-transfer students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?”

While the 3X10 MANOVA test statistic provided a clear statistical answer to research questions three, four and five, additional insight was desired to understand the nature of the significant differences between the two sub-variant values of each independent variable. The partial eta squared value was calculated to provide insight to the strength of association as an indicator of the predictive power of the independent variable in responding to each item of the change scale.

### **Research Question Three**

To answer research question three, “Is there a significant difference between first generation and non first generation college students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership”, the 3X10 MANOVA was utilized (Table 11). The common choice for determining significance in situations such as this might be the independent t test. However, with multiple independent variables and the need for multiple t tests, the chance of error would have increased significantly. Therefore, the t test option was not chosen for this analysis.



Examining the Tests of Between –Subjects Effects, a follow up test to the MANOVA that was conducted, reveals a statistically significant difference between first generation and non first generation college students on four of the change scale items. SRLS items 26 “Change makes me uncomfortable”, 39 “I work well in changing environments”, 43 “I am open to new ideas”, and 45 “I look for new ways to do things” all had significant measures when comparing the dichotomous first generation and non first generation variable. When examining this output on SPSS, it is important to focus on three measures; significance, partial eta squared and the observed power. Ideally all three measures will reveal a strong statistical response for the observed variable. Obviously, the significance measure must be  $p < .05$  to be determined a significant difference. The partial eta square measure is a measure of strength of association/practical significance. This can be evaluated by effect size. The partial eta squared measure (effect size) reflects the strength of association between the main effect and the dependent variable and can be used to interpret the predictive power of the main effect on the dependent variable. The observed power has a cut off of .8 in order for it to be deemed as important. The generational status variable measures can be found in Table 12.

**Table 12. Significant Differences between First Generation and Non First Generation College Students**

<b>Dep Var</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Partial Eta squared</b>	<b>Observed Power</b>
SRLS 8 Trans. makes me unconf.	.85	1.00	.32	.00	.17
SRLS 12 Comf. initiating new ways of looking at things	.12	.23	.63	.00	.08
SRLS 17 Change brings new life to an org.	.17	.42	.52	.00	.10
SRLS 20 Energy in doing something a new way	.96	2.20	.14	.00	.32
SRLS 26 Change makes me unconf.	3.64	4.10	.04*	.00	.53
SRLS 36 New ways of doing things frustrate me	6.698E-02	.10	.75	.00	.06
SRLS 39 Work well in changing env.	4.79	7.60	.01*	.00	.79
SRLS 43 Open to new ideas	3.54	9.69	.00*	.00	.88
SRLS 45 Look for new ways to do things	7.17	12.35	.00*	.00	.94
SRLS 50 Can identify dif. btwn pos. and neg. change	5.436E-02	.08	.77	.00	.06

\*significant at the .05 level

Immediately, one can see that there is no measure of effect for any of the 10 items of the change sub-scale for the independent variable of generational status. This is

problematic for any effort to predict a student's responses based on their membership in this group.

It is useful to further discuss a few of the specific items within the change scale for this particular independent variable. For SRLS 26, "Change makes me uncomfortable", although there is a statistically significant difference between first generation and non first generation students, there is no strength of association/practical significance to this measure because the partial eta squared value is .00 and the power level is below the .80 cut off. This means that we cannot be confident that we achieved sufficient power to detect that the generational effect might have existed. In SRLS 39, "I work well in changing environments", the same situation applies with no measure of strength of association/practical significance and a power level that falls below .80. SRLS 43, "I am open to new ideas" and 45, "I look for new ways to do things" reveal different patterns. In these two items, the power level is above the .80 cut off with levels of .88 and .94 respectively. Therefore, it was determined that first generation students scored significantly higher on these 4 items than their non first generation counterparts and items 43 and 45 bear more weight in the significant overall score where first generation college students scored significantly higher than their non first generation college student counterparts. Therefore, it was determined that first generation college students may be more active participants in seeking out change initiatives and are generally more open to new ideas. It can also be said that first generation students may be more open to new ideas that they discover themselves or they may be more open to new ideas that are proposed to them by someone else. In summary, research question three reveals a statistically

significant difference between first generation and non first generation college students and these differences center around openness to change and a desire to seek out new ways of doing things. However, due to the low partial eta squared values, (the strength of association between generational status and each dependent variable) generational status does not account for enough of the variance (partial eta squared  $<.001$  for every dependent variable) and thus cannot be used to predict the effect on the dependent variable.

#### **Research Question Four**

Research question four, “Is there a significant difference between male and female students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” was answered using the same techniques as in research question three. Using MANOVA and the Test of Between-Subject Effects, several items within the SRLS Change Scale appear to have statistically significant findings for the gender independent variable. Specifically, SRLS items 8, 17, 20, 26, 39, 43 and 45 are significantly different for male and female respondents (Table 13).

**Table 13. Significant Differences between Male and Female Students**

<b>Dep Var</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Partial Eta squared</b>	<b>Observed Power</b>
SRLS 8 Trans. makes me unconf.	6.79	7.94	.01*	.00	.81
SRLS 12 Comf. initiating new ways of looking at things	1.54	2.91	.09	.00	.40
SRLS 17 Change brings new life to an org.	8.33	21.29	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 20 Energy in doing something a new way	28.74	63.36	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 26 Change makes me unconf.	25.42	28.65	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 36 New ways of doing things frustrate me	4.71	7.07	.01*	.00	.76
SRLS 39 Work well in changing env.	12.06	19.15	.00*	.00	.99
SRLS 43 Open to new ideas	19.93	54.60	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 45 Look for new ways to do things	11.75	20.25	.00*	.00	.99
SRLS 50 Can identify dif. btwn pos. and neg. change	5.914E-02	.08	.76	.00	.06

\*significant at the .05 level

SRLS 8, “Transition makes me uncomfortable” has a significance level of .01, a partial eta squared value of .00 and a power level of .81. This combination of measures indicates that the higher scores of men over women on the aggregate change scale are important for consideration and may have implications for the practice of student leadership development practitioners. In student leadership development programs, men may need additional assistance in becoming comfortable with transition. They perhaps should be given additional experience in this area in order to practice their skills and abilities with transition. There are six other items where a similar combination of measures can be found; SRLS 17, “Change brings new life to an organization”, SRLS 20, “There is energy in doing something a new way”, SRLS 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable”, SRLS 39, “I work well in changing environments”, SRLS 43, “I am open to new ideas” and SRLS 45, “I look for new ways of doing things”. All of these items identify areas in which male students demonstrate a greater propensity (self-reported) for change. Student Affairs practitioners can utilize this information to design experiences in which male students will be able to use their strength in working with specific aspects of change. For example, if a group project contains a requirement for brainstorming a series of solutions to a possible problem, male members of the group could be encouraged to step into a leadership role in fulfilling this portion of the group’s requirements. SRLS 36, “New ways of doing things frustrate me” is the only item with a statistically significant difference between men and women with a power level below .80. Therefore, this item is not contributing as much to the overall difference in scores between men and women on

the change scale. While the statistically significant difference between male and female students should not be discounted, because the power level is lower than .80, the difference does not bear the same practical significance for work with students.

In summary, there is a significant difference between male and female respondents on 8 of the 10 individual items of the Change scale and this difference is clearly identified in the Test of Between-Subject Effects. In the items where male students scored significantly higher with a high observed power value, there is a theme of being more open to change, looking for change and seeing change as a positive thing within organizations. Interestingly, while males indicated a higher desire for change, they also indicated a greater discomfort with change. This is an area that deserves further exploration as there appears to be a disconnect between the desire and openness for change and the measure of discomfort with change for male students. While statistically significant differences exist, due to the low partial eta squared values, (the strength of association between gender and each dependent variable) gender does not account for enough of the variance (partial eta squared  $<.001$  for every dependent variable) and thus cannot be used to predict the effect on the dependent variable.

### **Research Question Five**

To answer research question five, the researcher employed the same technique as that which was used to answer research questions three and four. Research question five states, “Is there a significant difference between transfer and non-transfer students on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership?” The Test of Between-Subject Effects was run as part of the MANOVA revealed that in all 10 items, transfer students scored significantly higher than their non-transfer student counterparts. See Table 14 for a summary of data relating to this question. Also, in every case, the observed power score was above the .80 cut off, which leads the researcher to have great confidence in the ability of these scores to reject the null hypothesis that transfer students and non transfer students would score the same on the dependent variables. However, due to the low partial eta squared values, (the strength of association between transfer status and each dependent variable) transfer status does not account for enough of the variance (partial eta squared  $<.001$  for every dependent variable) and thus cannot be used to predict the effect on the dependent variable.



**Table 14. Significant Differences between Transfer and Non Transfer Students**

<b>Dep Var</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Partial Eta squared</b>	<b>Observed Power</b>
SRLS 8 Trans. makes me unconf.	11.04	12.92	.001*	.00	.95
SRLS 12 Comf. initiating new ways of looking at things	34.74	65.71	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 17 Change brings new life to an org.	5.84	14.91	.001*	.00	.97
SRLS 20 Energy in doing something a new way	26.79	60.93	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 26 Change makes me unconf.	25.34	28.56	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 36 New ways of doing things frustrate me	50.98	76.47	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 39 Work well in changing env.	56.80	90.18	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 43 Open to new ideas	14.60	40.00	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 45 Look for new ways to do things	67.60	116.52	.001*	.00	1.00
SRLS 50 Can identify dif. btwn pos. and neg. change	20.81	31.96	.001*	.00	1.00

\*significant at the .05 level

### **Cross Independent Variable Analysis**

It is useful to consider the impact of each change scale item with regard to all three independent variables on each change scale item. In particular, if patterns exist in which individual items have a higher score for a particular set of variables, it may give student leadership practitioners more insight into what principles should be included in their leadership curriculum with regard to change. For example, if an item is statistically significant and has a high observed power for all three independent variables, practitioners may want to pay special attention to this item as there is more confidence in the item being significant and rejecting the null hypothesis that the measured populations are the same. Items that fall into this category might be included in even a general leadership curriculum to draw out the strengths of those students who represent first generation, transfer and male student participants. Table 15 summarizes the strength of findings with regard to the 10 individual items of the change scale for the three independent variables. The highlighted portions demonstrate items where there was a statistically significant finding and a high observed power. Caution should be exercised, however, because none of the SRLS change scale items for the three independent variables had even a small partial eta squared measurement.

**Table 15. Summary of Significance, Partial Eta Squared and Power for 10 Individual Items across 3 Independent Variables**

Dep Var	Generational Status			Gender			Transfer		
	P	PES	Power	p	PES	Power	P	PES	Power
SRLS 8 Trans. Makes me unconf.	.32	.00	.17	.01*	.00	.81	.00*	.00	.95
SRLS 12 Conf. initiating new ways of looking at things	.63	.00	.08	.09	.00	.40	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 17 Change brings new life to an org.	.52	.00	.10	.00*	.00	1.00	.00*	.00	.97
SRLS 20 Energy in doing something a new way	.14	.00	.32	.00*	.00	1.00	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 26 Change makes me unconf.	.04	.00	.53	.00*	.00	1.00	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 36 New ways of doing things frustrate me	.75	.00	.06	.00*	.00	.76	.00*	.00	1.00

**Table 15. Continued**

Dep Var	Generational Status			Gender			Transfer		
	P	PES	Power	p	PES	Power	P	PES	Power
SRLS 39 Work well in changing env.	.01*	.00	.79	.00*	.00	.99	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 43 Open to new ideas	.00*	.00	.88	.00*	.00	1.00	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 45 Look for new ways to do things	.00*	.00	.94	.00*	.00	1.00	.00*	.00	1.00
SRLS 50 Can identify dif. btwn pos. and neg. change	.77	.00	.06	.00*	.00	.06	.00*	.00	1.00

\*significant at the .05 level

From an analysis of the themes seen in Table 15, it can be said that SRLS items 43, “I am open to new ideas” and 45, “I look for new ways to do things” reflect the strongest significant differences between subjects (FGCS/non-FGCS, male/female, and transfer/non-transfer students). Although the MANOVA showed that in many instances the means were significantly different, the effect size as measured by the partial eta squared values showed no effect (partial eta squared <.005 in all cases) which means that generational

status, gender and transfer status independently account for less than 1% of the overall variance influencing the effect.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary of Findings

While several statistical findings were noted in Chapter IV, this chapter will focus on the researcher's primary findings, conclusions, and recommendations made for the student leadership development field and higher education as well as recommendations for further study and research.

Due to the size and complexity of the sample involved within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, significant findings have been made by other researchers on many items not covered in this study (Dugan, J. & Komives, S, personal communication, March 2007). The discussion of conclusions and recommendations is limited to the change value and the three specific populations that were the focus of the current research; gender, transfer status and generational status.

As stated in Chapter I, most leadership programs in higher education are currently designed as "one size fits all" (Dugan, 2006a). The efficacy of leadership programs may become questioned if critical evaluation and appropriate changes are not made to the curriculum of leadership programs (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2001).

Greater emphasis must also be placed on connecting research, theory and practice within these programs (Dugan, 2006b). Leadership educators must assess the needs of unique student populations and take these needs into consideration in the design and redesign of leadership programs (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2001).

By analyzing the generation status, transfer status and gender of participants in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (with particular emphasis on the change sub-scale of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale), specific recommendations may be possible regarding curricular and co-curricular experiences that may increase the leadership capacity of students who participate in these programs.

### **Specific Findings**

- 1) The 10 individual items of the change subscale correlate highly to each other and therefore the researcher has confidence in the classification of this group of items as a subscale for the change value.

The 10X10 correlation matrix that was run on the 10 individual items of the change subscale revealed extensive correlations between/among the items. The strongest correlation was found between items 8, “Transition makes me uncomfortable” and 26, “Change makes me uncomfortable” of the SRLS. This is a predictable correlation as students may not have differentiated greatly between transition and change. Perhaps a greater distinction could be made if further explanation were provided to students as to what the difference is in these terms.

- 2) Women scored statistically significantly higher on all of the SRLS scales except for change, where men scored statistically significantly higher.

While the current study deals exclusively with the change value and SRLS sub-scale, it is interesting to note that women scored statistically significantly higher on the

other 7 scales (consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship) aside from the change scale. This means that in every other dimension of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (which measures the values of the Social Change Model of Leadership) women perceived themselves to have a greater capacity than their male counterparts. This is particularly interesting given that the change value represents the central value and is interrelated with all of the other values. In the MSL, a leadership self-efficacy scale was also included. In this scale, female students' leadership self-efficacy was statistically significantly lower than that of male student respondents. "It is possible that female students are more humble in their self-evaluation and less likely to inflate their experiences whereas men may be exhibiting overconfidence in their self-evaluation." (Calizo, Cilente, & Komives, 2007, p. 7)

This finding is inconsistent with a previous study that measured differences in leadership due to the variable of gender. In the study conducted by Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and vanEgen in 2003, women showed attributes that appeared to demonstrate a greater capacity for change, specifically a willingness to consider new perspectives. This willingness to consider new perspectives is slightly different from the SCM definition of change, but it does demonstrate that at least there is an initial willingness by women to consider new perspectives which could be said to be an initial step in the change process.

- 3) There are no significant interactions among the three independent variables of gender, transfer status and generational status on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale



within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership.

This finding is based on the MANOVA test statistic that demonstrated no three way interaction among the three independent variables. This means that there is no significant interaction among the independent variables and their effect on the dependent variables. Based on the measures of the MSL, these groups demonstrate distinct differences with regard to perceptions of change as specifically measured in the SRLS change sub scale. Enough distinctness exists within each group to determine that special regard should be given to each group when designing student leadership development curriculum. It is not suggested that entirely new curriculums be designed just for these three groups, but that when curriculum is designed or updated, that the unique needs of these groups be taken into account. For example, as previously noted, male students demonstrate a greater propensity for identifying new ways of doing things. They could be specifically tasked with creative processes in problem solving in order to help them practice their skills in this area.

- 4) There is no significant interaction between any combination of two of the independent variables on the 10 individual items of the Change Scale within the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale as measured in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership.

Similar to the finding regarding interactions between/among the all three independent variables, this finding is based on the outcome of the MANOVA test statistic.

- 5) FGCS, transfer students and male students scored statistically significantly higher than non-first generation, non-transfer and female students respectively on items 43 “I am open to new ideas” and 45, “I look for new ways to do something”. These two statements may be a guide for practitioners in the design of leadership curriculum as the openness and curiosity can be incorporated into specific programs and leadership tasks/assignments.

This finding was made by looking across the answers to research questions 3, 4, and 5. Each of these questions looked at the differences in the two levels of each independent variable, for example the difference between males and females. Across all three of the independent variables there were two questions in common where FGCS, transfer students and males scored significantly higher. In practice, these students are demonstrating that they are seeking out new ways of doing things by attending college and being the first within their family to do so. However, based on the narratives of FGCS who were interviewed in qualitative studies of the past, this seeking out of new ways of doing things is a reluctant position for these students (London, 1989). They are often torn between the allegiance to their family of origin and the future that is before them if they pursue higher education.

- 6) Students in these three groups report being uncomfortable with change, yet they also report having skills in being able to work in changing environments.

This finding may be related to the students’ understanding that skills and comfort are not necessarily always equal. For example, someone may have strong skills in public speaking, but it may not be something that they feel comfortable doing. This

finding is consistent with the literature as it appears to indicate that students will begin to gain more confidence in their abilities in all dimensions of leadership, including change, when they have the opportunity to practice these skills (Parks, 2005).

- 7) The effect sizes (partial eta squared values) for all relationships between independent variables were extremely small -  $<.005$ .

Although the MANOVA showed that in many instances, the means were significantly different, the effect size as measured by the partial eta squared values showed no effect. Gender, generational status and transfer status each independently accounted for less than one half of one percent of the overall variance influencing the effect (responses to the change items on the SRLS). Therefore, these variables did not account for enough of the variation contributing to the effect to enable student affairs practitioners to use them as predictors for use in designing student leadership development curriculum. Variables other than gender, transfer status and generational status apparently exert more influence on how these students respond to the change items on the SRLS and how they react/respond to change.

## **Conclusions and Discussion**

Conclusions can be made by integrating the content of the literature that is available on student leadership development, change and the three distinct student groups analyzed in this study that are discussed in the current research. After each conclusion a brief discussion will be included to support how this conclusion was made and to what extent the conclusion may have implications for the study and practice of student leadership

development. Following the conclusion and discussions, specific recommendations will be made for practitioners who work with both curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in higher education.

- 1) It can be concluded that male students, transfer students and first generation students are all more comfortable with change as a general phenomenon compared with their female, non-transfer and second generation peers, respectively.

This conclusion is based on the data analysis that reflects a statistically significant difference between the measures of each independent variable. As previously mentioned, each of these student groups was smaller in number compared to their counterparts within the sample measured in the MSL. Given this smaller number and the demographic data available that demonstrates the frequency of this phenomenon, leadership practitioners may want to examine the unique experiences, needs and desires of smaller populations in general.

This conclusion is consistent with past literature that indicates a need for new kinds of leadership programs that are customized to the unique needs of the participants (Conger & Benjamin, 1999). These programs may have the potential to multiply the impact of involvement if a student's particular needs are accounted for within the program. Just as a classroom that is designed with unique learning styles in mind is more effective, specifically designed leadership programs may carry the same result.

- 2) The past experience of transfer students and first generation students has contributed to their capacity to manage change.

Although data from the current study is limited in some ways because of the multiple choice nature of the instrument, this conclusion is safe given what the literature says about the experiences of students who are the first in their family to attend college and experiences of students who start at one institution and eventually transfer to another institution (Blum, 2007; Zwerling et al., 1992; Laanan, 2001). Both groups of students have been faced with specific situations relating to change – changing from the traditional route of family members who have not gone to college in the past and for transfer students, changing from one institutional environment to another. Change has been a part of their past experiences and it is safe to say that this is contributing to their capacity to manage change. They have experienced first hand that leadership is not static, that it requires a process and an ability to assess a situation and apply the appropriate strategy to meet the needs of that particular situation (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Murphy, 1941).

- 3) While the SRLS provides a good baseline measurement of a student's capacity for change and measures of other leadership values, better measures may be available if a student were to receive feedback and coaching based on their performance in a leadership task or situation (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Student leadership development practitioners should be careful not to place too high an emphasis on the self-reported tool of the SRLS as a student may not be representing an accurate view of his or her abilities. Perhaps coupling the SRLS measure with mentoring, coaching and direct feedback is the best solution to giving the student the most valuable information to aid in their development.

- 4) Students should not only have the capacity to manage change, they should become stronger in their skills and abilities in creating change and being an effective agent of change.

As noted by Drucker (2002), being an agent of change will be necessary for effective leadership in the future. One item of the SRLS change scale was directly related to initiating change and this item could be further explored with focus groups or qualitative interviews to discern what makes a student comfortable with initiating change and whether or not their membership in one of the independent variable groups has an impact on that level of comfort.

- 5) Given the insignificant effect size of the independent variables studies on the items of the change scale (partial eta squared  $<.005$ ), the independent variables and their two levels cannot be used to suggest specific student leadership development curriculum for these various groups. Rather, other variables which have a greater impact on these students capacity to adapt to change must be identified and analyzed for appropriate improvements in student leadership development curriculum/experiences.

### **Further Discussion**

While the MSL has proven to be a comprehensive study with results that will impact leadership development in higher education for years to come, the nature of the instrument must still be considered when applying results to various situations. Self-reporting instruments by their very nature can be suspect in the eyes of some scholars and researchers. While widely accepted in some fields, it may be advantageous to include

other methods of measuring student leadership capacity and performance in future studies of the SCM. The self-report nature of the MSL is a critical consideration as students who are less self-aware may not have presented their abilities accurately. For example, students may be overconfident in their ability to initiate change and a high score in this area may lead them to create change without having the requisite skills to manage the change process. This could have significant implications on the curriculum choices for leadership practitioners and scholars as they may need to address issues of self awareness before moving into higher order values such as change.

In today's rapidly changing world, "knowing yourself" must also embrace "knowing your social identity." Social identity refers to the individual's knowledge that one belongs to certain social groups and the implications of membership in those social groups. Social groups include socially defined categories such as gender, age, ethnicity, race, religion, nationality, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status. (Ruderman & Munasamy, 2007, p. 1)

The National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs has said that a self-scoring version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale will be available in the near future (Dugan, J. & Komives, S, personal communication, March 2007). Perhaps leadership educators could combine the results of this version of the instrument with examples of direct observation of the student's leadership behavior in order to increase self-awareness and utilization of the SCM.

### **Recommendations for Practice**

- 1) Leadership curriculum in both academic and co-curricular programs should include the study of change processes and should allow for practical experience with change initiatives. Perhaps a portfolio option can be included. Students could be encouraged to incorporate reflections on past changes and achievements with change initiatives in the college setting. These students should be helped to understand how their past experiences with change are meaningful and can help them to be more effective leaders.
- 2) All institutions of higher education should incorporate leadership competencies into their formal academic curriculum or into a co-curricular program. Students will be more prepared for life after college if they have been exposed to the critical competencies of leadership – specifically the competencies of leading and managing change.

Hundreds of institutions are embracing the call to intentionally develop leaders who will impact the world in positive ways. However, there are still many institutions that appear to be far behind in their development of experiences that will develop the leadership potential of students enrolled at their institutions (Carry, 2003). Many of these institutions have an expressed commitment to the development of student leaders, but the programs and opportunities are lacking or missing all together (Boatman, 1999). Depending on the size and type of institution, leadership programs can be stand alone opportunities for learning or can be integrated into another discipline such as management or business. Regardless of the context, leadership competencies,



specifically competencies surrounding self-awareness and change, should be incorporated into the college experience through either curricular or co-curricular means. These competencies may be best incorporated through experiential activities that allow the students the opportunity to practice, reflect on their practice and receive critical feedback and encouragement from those who observe their leadership. This feedback may come from either peers who are participating in the activity or from leadership educators who are observing the activity.

- 3) To achieve higher levels of practical experience, intentional recruitment initiatives for involvement in student clubs and organizations may be necessary for all three populations (first generation college students, transfer students and male students).

Data show that in college young women outperform young men by many measures. College women are earning better grades, holding more leadership posts and spending more time studying. They are also earning more honors and awards. College women report being more involved than young men in student clubs and volunteer work (Wilson, 2007). Male enrollment has been declining as prospective students have found employment through technical preparation outside of the college or university setting (Sutphen, 2007). FGCS often do not become involved in student organizations or leadership positions because of the conflicts with their time. They often are not living on campus and/or they are working additional ours because of their financial constraints (Billson & Terry, 1982). Transfer students often fail to get involved in clubs and organizations because they feel like outsiders when they enter the institution and their peers have already developed a network of friends and connections. They

have trouble breaking in to existing groups and organizations because of their “newness” (Laanan, 2001). As is consistent with the literature, involvement in clubs and organizations will help to create a “staying environment” for these students where they develop a greater sense of connection to the institution and are more likely to complete their education (Roberts, 1981).

- 4) Leadership practitioners must place greater emphasis on recruiting males, transfers and FGCS into leadership programs and experiences as well as into simpler involvement experiences like clubs and organizations. Through these experiences, all of these students will have more opportunities to practice their skills at managing change and maintaining core functions of a group at the same time.
- 5) Higher education student leadership development practitioners should intentionally market leadership opportunities to men, transfer students and first generation college students.

Past research and literature demonstrates that these groups of students may not naturally seek out leadership training and development experiences on the college campus (Astin, 1996). If and when the content of leadership programs changes to be more appropriate for diverse populations and minority groups on campus (such as FGCS and transfer students), the marketing messages will become more effective and hopefully student participation will increase. Student leadership development educators will need to keep potential conflicts for these students in mind when they design the programs and the marketing messages about the programs.

- 6) Student leadership development practitioners should utilize the results of the MSL to identify how higher education programs may be changed to best meet the needs of students and therefore best meet the demands for leadership in our society.

Further study of the findings of the entire MSL will be helpful to leadership educators. Future versions of the MSL and the results from these studies will also help higher education professionals to remain current and relevant. In addition to the variables of interest in this study, it is also interesting to note that students reported significant gains in the eight social change outcomes through participation in short-term leadership experiences. Short-term leadership experiences had a statistically significantly higher impact than medium-term and long-term leadership experiences (MSL Guidebook, 2007). This is a fairly straightforward finding that should instruct leadership educators in the utility of short-term experiences. Perhaps more emphasis should be placed on short-term experiences that can be more easily manipulated and altered to meet the needs of specific populations of students.

- 7) Student leadership development practitioners are encouraged to utilize the SCM of Leadership Development because it promotes a distributed model of leadership that is non-hierarchical and consistent with the current culture of Higher Education (Temperley, 2005).

While it has been noted that some institutions have adopted a more relational view of leadership, some institutions remain committed to hierarchical or command and control views of leadership (Komives, Casper, Longerbeam, Mainella & Osteen, 2005). The experiences that accompany these theories, models and philosophies of leadership

are perhaps inadequate to prepare students for the changes that are occurring in society. While the SCM does not need to be the exclusive leadership model practiced on a campus, the competencies found in the SCM are of considerable value in terms of preparing students for the future. Relational models of leadership are being practiced more and more in our society and while women are more comfortable naturally with this approach to leadership, it would be a tragedy not to bring our male students into a greater understanding of the current leadership practices that are predominant. “The MSL data also supports women’s competence with the Social Change Model of Leadership development and challenges leadership educators to better integrate men into relational ways of viewing leadership.” (Calizo, Cilente, & Komives, 2007, p. 9)

- 8) Identify male, first generation and transfer students with strong skills in dealing with change and invite these students to participate in or help lead skill-building activities on the topic of change. The programs that include these skill-building activities can be offered for other student organizations or within leadership programs.

This recommendation would involve a considerable amount of risk on the part of the leadership educator as they would most likely be turning over a portion of the curriculum into the hands of a student or a few students. The risk may be very rewarding, however, if students are able to practically apply their skills and receive critical feedback and evaluation regarding the application of these skills. The students who are leading these change related activities would benefit from the hands-on experiences and other students would also benefit because of an increased exposure to the knowledge and perspective of their peers.

9) Leadership educators should apply the five skills of adaptive leadership within their curricula. These five skills integrate well with the SCM and will build on students' current understanding of change.

Adaptive leadership is a set of strategies that focuses on helping organizations and people to accomplish significant, deep and lasting change. In this process of change, people can thrive in even the most complex and challenging of circumstances. Adaptive leadership places significant emphasis on experience and the five step process advocated by Heifetz and Parks (2005) infuses room for deep analysis, reflection and skill in managing both change and also the reaction from others to that change. The five steps involved in adaptive leadership include (1) the leader must be able to analyze the situation and clarify that there is a sense of worthy purpose in the situation, (2) the leader must step in and intervene so that the group can make progress, (3) the leader must communicate, i.e. if this essential step is missed, the whole process will break down as the mutual process of leadership will not be possible, (4) after communicating, the leader should pause, reflect on the situation and set an appropriate pace for continuing to lead and help the group move forward toward progress, and (5) the leader should hold steady and take any heat that may result from the intervention and deployment of leadership. (Parks, 2005)

10) Leadership programs are best designed using multiple models and theories in order to promote the most significant growth within the student participants.

While the SCM is an appropriate model of higher education student leadership development programs, depending on the nature of the institution in which it is being

applied, the SCM may not be adequate as a stand alone leadership philosophy.

Leadership educators should evaluate their institutional culture and choose leadership models that are consistent with this culture. They should also evaluate where their student population has leadership strengths and weaknesses and should design leadership curriculum to capitalize on the areas of strength and address the areas of weakness. If this is done well, the leadership outcomes and performance of students should increase over time. It would be best if educators could measure this increase to demonstrate the efficacy of their leadership programs and services.

- 11) Because students at two-year institutions may have had little exposure to leadership development opportunities, specifically designed leadership programs for transfer students are appropriate and necessary.

Recognizing the constraints found within the community college experience (i.e. commuter nature of the campus and that students are often managing school, work and family commitments simultaneously) student leadership development practitioners should develop means of getting transfer students immediately integrated into the leadership experiences on campus. This integration process will help the transfer students be able to develop a sense of connection to the institution. These programs should focus initially on basic leadership competencies and not make assumptions about what upperclass students are aware of or have been exposed to in the past. These specifically designed programs for transfer students may also need to place greater emphasis on multicultural leadership and the way in which leadership philosophies can be shaped by culture and ethnicity. The reason for this focus is that many two-year

institutions have become pipeline or feeder programs for African American or Chicano students. “Transfer from a community college to a four-year institution is crucial to increasing educational achievement among Chicanos, because two-year institutions are the educational contexts in which Chicanos and other Hispanic undergraduates are concentrated.” (Aguirre & Ruben, 1993, p. 39)

- 12) Practitioners must familiarize themselves with studies on the outcomes of student leadership development programs so that they can close the gap between practice and research. Practitioners should also be committed to assessing their student leadership development programs to determine if students are making advances in the intended areas of development.

Some of the concern regarding student leadership development in higher education is that many practitioners may not be accessing the findings of such research to inform the development of their programs. “In most cases, however, a gap exists between research on college student leadership and the models used in practice.” (Dugan, 2006b, p. 335) Until practitioners become committed to the integration of research, theory, practice and the assessment and ongoing improvement of programs, student participants will experience a less effective leadership experience.

- 13) Because each of the three groups studied here are at risk for attrition, higher education professionals should utilize the SCM of leadership development with its emphasis on both individual and collaborative change. This may assist with retention and stronger identification with the college or university in which the student is enrolled.

The SCM includes an emphasis on individual, group and community values. As student participants are exposed to the values associated with working in groups and being a part of a community, they will grow to have a greater sense of appreciation for the environment in which they are practicing their leadership skills and living out their leadership values. The chance to practice values such as collaboration and common purpose will allow the student to integrate with other individuals and groups on campus. The resulting connections help a student to develop a sense of place and identification which will lead them to greater satisfaction with their educational experience.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

- 1) In addition to the three groups of gender, generational and transfer status other demographic variables may be worth examining in greater detail such as ethnic minorities, students from minority socioeconomic groups on a campus and students from specific religious backgrounds. A more complete understanding of these groups should guide those who develop and implement leadership curriculum and experiences to determine how much emphasis should be placed on the central value of change. With appropriate study, analysis and understanding of these groups, leadership practitioners should be able to intentionally design experiences that will capitalize on the unique perspective of each group. For example, leadership practitioners might find value in knowing if ethnic minorities have the same greater capacity for change and might design a specific curricular track for these students to draw on their comfort with



change. On another campus, the leadership practitioner may want to study athletes to determine their understanding of and capacity for change. Developing greater leadership capacity in student athletes can be beneficial at both the individual and institutional level as these students so often represent themselves and the school in very public venues.

- 2) A more in-depth and specific study of first generation college students and their capacity for change is necessary. This deeper study should examine the complexity of their experience as they define their relationships to home and their relationship to their educational institution. FGCS often may be lumped in with other populations of students who are “at risk”. The challenge with this lumping together is found in that there can be so many factors that contribute to a student being labeled as high risk and more specific categories are not often established so that the unique nuances of each category or group of student can be studied and met. “University personnel should not make generalizations for academically high-risk students as a single group; instead they should be aware that first-generation and low-income students may present unique needs and risks” (Ting, 1998, p. 19). These unique needs may sometimes be difficult to identify because FGCS lack a communal identity due to their unique and diverse backgrounds (Orbe, 2004). They often overlap with other rubrics of students such as non-traditional, under-prepared or low-income students.
- 3) Ting (1998) reported that both cognitive and psychosocial variables are critical to predicting the success (specifically academic achievement) of FGCS. Some of these psychosocial variables include things such as high school rank and leadership

experiences. These should be considerations in the design and development of student leadership development curriculum for FGCS and deserve further study.

- 4) In addition to using a self-report measure for change (the SRLS), it would be helpful to conduct a mixed method study where students can reflect on their own perceptions and experiences, but also hear feedback about their behavior and leadership performance from peers and professional staff members.
- 5) Further research is appropriate to follow up on students' reported comfort with change. Are students reporting a lack of comfort with change because they would prefer to be in a more stable environment or because they feel inadequate to deal with the changes that are happening around them? Are students equally challenged by changes that they initiate as by the changes that are forced upon them by life experiences? This question would be extremely interesting to ask of transfer students and first generation college students. The transfer students, at least at the surface level, are choosing to initiate a change in their lives because of switching institutions. The first generation college students may feel as though there is no choice in whether or not they get to experience change because of the pressure and expectations of family members or because of socioeconomic pressure to go beyond where their family has been in the past.
- 6) More study is needed to discern why male students self-report higher scores on the 10 individual items of the change scale. This further research should include a qualitative component that seeks to understand why male students report being more comfortable with change overall. This follow up study might also address why male students scored lower on the seven other values of the social change model.

- 7) Because the gender issue becomes increasingly complex when you begin to factor in other variables like ethnic background and socioeconomic status, further study is necessary on Chicano and African American males to discern if specific kinds of leadership programming are necessary to meet the unique needs presented by these populations. Sutton and Terrell (1997) reported that African American students may refrain from participating in leadership programs and opportunities because they feel isolated both socially and culturally. Being invited to participate in a program that is designed with them in mind, these students may feel more inclined to join in and benefit from the experience.
- 8) Filkins & Doyle (2002) found that first generation college students tended to benefit more from interactive learning experiences and activities that engaged them in collaborative learning processes. Given these findings, additional research may be appropriate to determine if this is the case in leadership activities as well. Student leadership development practitioners should evaluate the learning processes of all students participating in their programs, with special emphasis on the learning preferences and styles of those who are the first to attend college within their family.
- 9) Given the small amount of variation/strength of association (partial eta squared  $<.05$  in most cases) that accounted for the interaction between/among the independent variables more research is needed to determine what variables are influencing college students responses to change.

## **Summation**

In closing, several findings, conclusions, items of discussion and recommendations have been made based on the findings of this research. There are several specific recommendations for student leadership development practitioners that involve changes to curriculum and incorporating more opportunities for students who are stronger in the ability to manage change to practice this strength and teach others how to develop additional strength in this area. Additional recommendations were made that direct leadership professionals to couple self-reported measures of adeptness to change with coaching and direct feedback on performance on change related tasks. This multi-prong approach will give students a greater sense for their abilities and how their abilities are being evaluated and perceived by others. Finally, student leadership development practitioners cannot ignore the unique background and attributes of special populations that are now attending college in higher rates than ever. If not addressed soon, these populations may be left behind in our student leadership development programs because the unique background and experiences that they bring will not be valued and therefore, they will most likely not participate in the program at all.

While this summation brings this project to a close, limitless opportunities for further research and recommendations exist based on the vastness of the MSL project. The emphasis of this study was on three particular groups of interest – student groups that appear to be gaining significance in our society and in higher education. It is hoped that these findings will contribute to the development of stronger leaders who are able to navigate the fast pace of change and development in our society. It is also hoped that this

research will be a valuable tool for student leadership development practitioners who desire to apply research and theory to the development and improvement of student leadership programs and experiences.

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**APPENDIX A**

The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) found within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)

SRLS 8, MSL 18.8 Transition makes me uncomfortable

SRLS 12, MSL 18.12 I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things

SRLS17, MSL 18.17 Change brings new life to an organization

SRLS 20, MSL 18.20 There is energy in doing something a new way

SRLS 26, MSL 18.26 Change makes me uncomfortable

SRLS 36, MSL 18.36 New ways of doing things frustrate me

SRLS 39, MSL 18.39 I work well in changing environments

SRLS 43, MSL 18.43 I am open to new ideas

SRLS 45, MSL 18.45 I look for new ways to do something

SRLS 50, MSL 18.50 I can identify the difference between positive and negative change

## APPENDIX B

### NOTE:

This is a paper and pencil version of what will be presented as an on-line web survey. Skip patterns will automatically take the respondent to the appropriate section. Shaded sections/ items will be used in split samples and will not be asked of all participants.

### COLLEGE INFORMATION

1. Did you begin college at your current institution or elsewhere? (Choose One)

- Started here
- Started elsewhere

2. Thinking about this academic term, how would you characterize your enrollment? (Choose One)

- Full-Time
- Less than Full-Time

3. What is your current class level? (Choose One)

- First year/freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Graduate student
- Other

4. Are you currently working OFF CAMPUS?

(Circle one) YES NO

**If NO skip to #5**

4a. Approximately how many hours do you work off campus in a typical 7 day week?

**4b. In your primary off campus position, how frequently do you:** (Circle one for each item)

**1 = Never**                      **3 = Often**  
**2 = Sometimes**              **4 = Very Often**

Perform repetitive tasks ..... 1 2 3 4

Consider options before making decisions ..... 1 2 3 4

Perform structured tasks ..... 1 2 3 4

Have the authority to change the way some things are done ..... 1 2 3 4

Coordinate the work of others ..... 1 2 3 4

Work with others on a team..... 1 2 3 4

**5. Are you currently working ON CAMPUS?**

(Circle one)

YES NO

**if NO skip to #6**

5a. Approximately how many hours do you work on campus in a typical 7 day week?

**5b. In your primary position, how frequently do you:**

(Circle one for each item)

**1 = Never**

**3 = Often**

**2 = Sometimes**

**4 = Very Often**

Perform repetitive tasks ..... 1 2 3 4

Consider options before making decisions ..... 1 2 3 4

Perform structured tasks ..... 1 2 3 4

Have the authority to change the way some  
things are done ..... 1 2 3 4

Coordinate the work of others ..... 1 2 3 4

Work with others on a team..... 1 2 3 4

**6. In an average academic term, do you engage in any community service?**

YES NO

**if NO skip to #7**

In an average academic term, approximately how many hours do you engage in community service? (circle one for each category).

As part of a class

0 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25 26-30

With a student organization

0 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25 26-30

As part of a work study experience

0 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25 26-30

On your own

0 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25 26-30

**7. Check all the following activities you engaged in during your college experience.**

- Studied abroad
- Experienced a practicum, internship, field experience, co-op experience, or clinical experience



- Participated in a learning community or some other formal program where groups of students take two or more classes together.
- Enrolled in a culminating senior experience (capstone course, thesis etc.)
- None of the above

## YOUR PERCEPTIONS BEFORE ENROLLING IN COLLEGE

**8. Looking back to *before you started college*, how confident were you that you would be successful at the following:** (Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Not at all confident      3 = Confident**  
**2 = Somewhat confident      4 = Very confident**

Handling the challenge of college-level work ..	1	2	3	4
Feeling as though you belong on campus .....	1	2	3	4
Analyzing new ideas and concepts .....	1	2	3	4
Applying something learned in class to the “real world” .....	1	2	3	4
Enjoying the challenge of learning new material.....	1	2	3	4
Appreciating new and different ideas, beliefs...	1	2	3	4
Leading others .....	1	2	3	4
Organizing a group’s tasks to accomplish a goal .....	1	2	3	4
Taking initiative to improve something .....	1	2	3	4
Working with a team on a group project.....	1	2	3	4

**9. Looking back to *before you started college*, how often did you engage in the following activities:** (Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Never      3 = Often**  
**2 = Sometimes      4 = Very Often**

Performing volunteer work .....	1	2	3	4
Participating in student clubs/ groups .....	1	2	3	4
Participating in varsity sports .....	1	2	3	4
Took leadership positions in student clubs, groups or sports.....	1	2	3	4
Participating in community organizations (e.g. church youth group, scouts) .....	1	2	3	4
Taking leadership positions in community organizations .....	1	2	3	4

- Participating in activism in any form  
(e.g. petitions, rally, protest)..... 1 2 3 4
- Getting to know people from backgrounds  
different than your own..... 1 2 3 4
- Learning about cultures different from your  
own ..... 1 2 3 4
- Participating in training or education that  
developed your leadership skills ..... 1 2 3 4

**10. Looking back to before you started college, please indicate your agreement with the following items by choosing the number that most closely represented your opinion about that statement AT THAT TIME:**

(Circle one response for each.)

- 1 = Strongly disagree**                      **4 = Agree**  
**2 = Disagree**                                **5 = Strongly Agree**  
**3 = Neutral**

- Hearing differences in opinions enriched my  
thinking ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I had low self esteem ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I worked well in changing environments        1 2 3 4 5
- I enjoyed working with others toward  
common goals ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I held myself accountable for responsibilities  
I agree to ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I worked well when I knew the collective  
values of a group ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- My behaviors reflected my beliefs..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I valued the opportunities that allowed me to  
contribute to my community,                      1 2 3 4 5
- I thought of myself as a leader ONLY if I was  
the head of a group (e.g. chair, president) .. 1 2 3 4 5

**11a. Before you started college, how would you describe the amount of leadership experience you have had (e.g., student clubs, performing groups, service organizations, jobs)?** Please circle the appropriate number

No experience 1 2 3 4 5 Extensive experience

**11b. Before you started college, how often did others give you positive feedback or encourage your leadership ability (e.g., teachers, advisors, mentors)?**

Please circle the appropriate number  
Never 1 2 3 4 5 frequently



Never 1 2 3 4 5 Much of the time

**held a leadership position in a community organization?** (for example, serving as an officer or a club or organization, leader in a youth group, chairperson of a committee)

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Much of the time

## YOUR STUDENT GROUP INVOLVEMENTS

### 14. Which of the following kinds of student groups have you been involved with during college?

(Check all the categories that apply)

- Academic/ Departmental/ Professional (e.g., Pre-Law Society, an academic fraternity, Engineering Club)
- Arts/Theater/Music (e.g., Theater group, Marching Band)
- Campus-wide programming groups (e.g., program board, film series board, a multicultural programming committee)
- Cultural/ International (e.g., Black Student Union, German Club)
- Honor Society (e.g., Omicron Delta Kappa [ODK], Mortar Board, Phi Beta Kappa)
- Living-learning programs (e.g., language house, leadership floors, ecology halls)
- Leadership (e.g., Peer Leadership Program, Emerging Leaders Program)
- Media (e.g., Campus Radio, Student Newspaper)
- Military (e.g., ROTC)
- New Student Transitions (e.g., admissions ambassador, orientation advisor)
- Para professional group (e.g., Resident assistants, peer health educators)
- Political/ Advocacy (e.g., College Democrats, Students Against Sweatshops)
- Religious (e.g., Campus Crusades for Christ, Hillel)
- Service (e.g., Circle K, Alpha Phi Omega [APO])
- Culturally based fraternities and sororities (e.g., National Pan-Hellenic Council (NPHC) groups such as Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity Inc., or Latino Greek Council groups such as Lambda Theta Alpha)
- Social fraternities or sororities (e.g. Panhellenic or Interfraternity Council groups such as Sigma Phi Epsilon or Kappa Kappa Gamma)
- Sports- Intercollegiate or Varsity (e.g., NCAA Hockey, Varsity Soccer)
- Sports- Club (e.g., Club Volleyball)
- Sports- Leisure or Intramural (ex: Intramural flag football, Rock Climbing)
- Special Interest (ex: Comedy Group)
- Student governance group (ex: Student Government Association, Residence Hall Association, Interfraternity Council) **IF CHECKED go to item 14A**

**14A. Were you involved in your campus-wide student government association? (Circle one)**  
**YES NO**

**If No, skip to item 15.**

**Thinking about your student government experience, indicate your level of agreement with the following items:**

(Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Strongly disagree      4 = Agree**  
**2 = Disagree                5 = Strongly agree**  
**3 = Neutral**

I found it hard to represent my constituents' concerns ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I successfully initiated change on behalf of my constituents (e.g., policy, institutional, or social)..... 1 2 3 4 5

My motivation for involvement was about gaining influence ..... 1 2 3 4 5

My motivation for involvement was to receive recognition..... 1 2 3 4 5

My motivation for involvement was to help others ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I have witnessed effective constituency-based efforts for change ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Effective constituency-based efforts for change have influenced my own actions ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I held a constituency-based position prior to this college SGA experience (e.g. high school or other governance group) ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Experience with previous constituency based positions did NOT make me more effective in my college SGA work. .... 1 2 3 4 5

**15. At any time during your college experience, how often have you been in mentoring relationships where another person intentionally assisted your growth or connected you to opportunities for career and personal development?**

Indicate how many times

**Student affairs staff**

**(e.g., a student organization advisor, career counselor, the Dean of Students, or residence hall coordinator): .....**

.....never once several many

**Faculty .....**never once several many

Employers .....never once several many

Community members .....never once several many

Other students .....never once several many

16. During interactions with other students outside of class, how often have you done each of the following in an average school year? (Circle one for each.)

1 = Never                      3 = Often  
2 = Sometimes                4 = Very Often

Talked about different lifestyles/  
customs..... 1    2    3    4

Held discussions with students whose  
personal values were very different  
from your own..... 1    2    3    4

Discussed major social issues such as  
peace, human rights, and justice..... 1    2    3    4

Held discussions with students whose  
religious beliefs were very different  
from your own..... 1    2    3    4

Discussed your views about  
multiculturalism and diversity..... 1    2    3    4

Held discussions with students whose  
political opinions were very different  
from your own..... 1    2    3    4

**DEVELOPING YOUR LEADERSHIP ABILITIES**

17. **Since starting college**, how many times have you participated in the following types of training or education that developed your leadership skills (ex: courses, Resident Assistant training, organization retreats, job training) (Circle one for each.)

**17a- Short-Term Experiences** (ex: individual or one-time workshops, retreats, conferences, lectures, or training)

Never    once    several    many

**17b-Moderate-Term Experiences** (ex: a single course, multiple or ongoing retreats, conferences, institutes, workshops, and/or training.

Never    once    several    many

**If NEVER skip to 17c;**

Did your experience involve any academic courses? YES NO

**If no, skip to 17c**

a. How many leadership courses have you completed?

- b. How many other courses have you taken that contributed to your leadership abilities (e.g. ethics course, personal development courses, management courses)? *Keep in mind you might have taken such a course but it did not contribute to your leadership.*

**17c- Long-Term Experiences** (ex: multi-semester leadership program, leadership certificate program, leadership minor or major, emerging leaders program, living-learning program),  
 Never      once      several      many

**if NEVER skip to 18**

**Which of the following Long-Term Activities did you experience?** (check all that apply)

- Emerging or New Leaders Program
- Peer Leadership Program
- Leadership Certificate Program
- Multi-Semester Leadership Program
- Senior Leadership Capstone Experience
- Residential Living-learning leadership program
- Leadership Minor
- Leadership Major
- Other

## ASSESSING LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

**18. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following items by choosing the number that most closely represents your opinion about that statement.**

(Circle one response for each.)

*For the statements that refer to a group, think of the most effective, functional group of which you have been a part. This might be a formal organization or an informal study group. For consistency, use the same group in all your responses.*

**1 = Strongly disagree**

**2 = Disagree**

**3 = Neutral**

**4 = Agree**

**5 = Strongly Agree**

I am open to others' ideas ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Creativity can come from conflict ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I value differences in others ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I am able to articulate my priorities ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Hearing differences in opinions enriches  
 my thinking ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I have low self esteem..... 1 2 3 4 5

I struggle when group members have



ideas that are different from mine .....	1	2	3	4	5
Transition makes me uncomfortable.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am usually self confident.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am seen as someone who works well with others .....	1	2	3	4	5
Greater harmony can come out of disagreement .....	1	2	3	4	5
I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things.....	1	2	3	4	5
My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am committed to a collective purpose in those groups to which I belong .....	1	2	3	4	5
It is important to develop a common direction in a group in order to get anything done .....	1	2	3	4	5
I respect opinions other than my own .....	1	2	3	4	5
Change brings new life to an organization .....	1	2	3	4	5
The things about which I feel passionate have priority in my life .....	1	2	3	4	5
I contribute to the goals of the group.....	1	2	3	4	5
There is energy in doing something a new way .....	1	2	3	4	5
I am uncomfortable when someone disagrees with me.....	1	2	3	4	5
I know myself pretty well.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to devote the time and energy to things that are important to me .....	1	2	3	4	5
I stick with others through difficult times.....	1	2	3	4	5
When there is a conflict between two people, one will win and the other will lose.....	1	2	3	4	5
Change makes me uncomfortable.....	1	2	3	4	5
It is important to me to act on my beliefs ..	1	2	3	4	5
I am focused on my responsibilities .....	1	2	3	4	5

I can make a difference when I work with others on a task .....	1	2	3	4	5
I actively listen to what others have to say .....	1	2	3	4	5
I think it is important to know other people's priorities.....	1	2	3	4	5
My actions are consistent with my values .....	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I have responsibilities to my community .....	1	2	3	4	5
I could describe my personality .....	1	2	3	4	5
I have helped to shape the mission of the group .....	1	2	3	4	5
New ways of doing things frustrate me .....	1	2	3	4	5
Common values drive an organization .....	1	2	3	4	5
I give time to making a difference for someone else .....	1	2	3	4	5
I work well in changing environments.....	1	2	3	4	5
I work with others to make my communities better places .....	1	2	3	4	5
I can describe how I am similar to other people.....	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy working with others toward common goals .....	1	2	3	4	5
I am open to new ideas .....	1	2	3	4	5
I have the power to make a difference in my community .....	1	2	3	4	5
I look for new ways to do something.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to act for the rights of others.....	1	2	3	4	5
I participate in activities that contribute to the common good.....	1	2	3	4	5
Others would describe me as a cooperative group member.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am comfortable with conflict.....	1	2	3	4	5
I can identify the differences between positive and negative change.....	1	2	3	4	5
I can be counted on to do my part.....	1	2	3	4	5

- Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I follow through on my promises..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public..... 1 2 3 4 5
- Self-reflection is difficult for me ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- Collaboration produces better results..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I know the purpose of the groups to which I belong..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I am comfortable expressing myself ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- My contributions are recognized by others in the groups I belong to ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I work well when I know the collective values of a group ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I share my ideas with others ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- My behaviors reflect my beliefs ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I am genuine ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I am able to trust the people with whom I work ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- I support what the group is trying to accomplish ..... 1 2 3 4 5
- It is easy for me to be truthful..... 1 2 3 4 5

## THINKING MORE ABOUT YOURSELF

### 19. How would you characterize your political views?

(Mark One)

- Far left
- Liberal
- Middle-of-the-road
- Conservative
- Far right

### 20. In thinking about how you have changed during college, to what extent do you feel you have grown in the following areas? (Circle one response for each.)

- |                             |                            |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| <b>1 = Not grown at all</b> | <b>3 = Grown</b>           |
| <b>2 = Grown somewhat</b>   | <b>4 = Grown very much</b> |

Ability to put ideas together and to see relationships between ideas..... 1 2 3 4

Ability to learn on your own, pursue ideas, and find information you need ..... 1 2 3 4

Ability to critically analyze ideas and information..... 1 2 3 4

Learning more about things that are new to you ..... 1 2 3 4

**21. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

(Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Strongly disagree**                      **3 = Agree**  
**2 = Disagree**                                      **4 = Strongly agree**

Since coming to college, I have learned a great deal about other racial/ethnic groups ..... 1 2 3 4

I have gained a greater commitment to my racial/ethnic identity since coming to college... 1 2 3 4

My campus's commitment to diversity fosters more division among racial/ethnic groups than inter-group understanding ..... 1 2 3 4

Since coming to college, I have become aware of the complexities of inter-group understanding ..... 1 2 3 4

**THINKING ABOUT LEADERSHIP**

**22. How confident are you that you can be successful at the following:** (Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Not at all confident**                      **3 = Confident**  
**2 = Somewhat confident**                      **4 = Very confident**

Leading others ..... 1 2 3 4

Organizing a group's tasks to accomplish a goal . 1 2 3 4

Taking initiative to improve something..... 1 2 3 4

Working with a team on a group project..... 1 2 3 4

**23. To what degree do you agree with these items?**

(Circle one response for each.)

**1 = Strongly disagree**  
**2 = Disagree**

**3 = neither agree or disagree**

**4 = Agree**

**5 = Strongly agree**

It is the responsibility of the head of a group  
to make sure the job gets done..... 1 2 3 4 5

A person can lead from anywhere in the  
organization, not just as the head of  
the organization..... 1 2 3 4 5

I spend time mentoring other group  
members ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I think of myself as a leader ONLY if I am  
the head of a group (e.g. chair, president) 1 2 3 4 5

Group members share the responsibility  
for leadership..... 1 2 3 4 5

I am a person who can work effectively  
with others to accomplish our shared  
goals ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I do NOT think of myself as a leader  
when I am just a member of a group ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Leadership is a process all people in the  
group do together ..... 1 2 3 4 5

I feel inter-dependent with others in a  
group. .... 1 2 3 4 5

I know I can be an effective member of  
any group I choose to join ..... 1 2 3 4 5

Teamwork skills are important in all  
organizations ..... 1 2 3 4 5

The head of the group is the leader and  
members of the group are followers..... 1 2 3 4 5

## YOUR COLLEGE CLIMATE

24. Select the number that best represents your experience with your overall college climate

Closed, hostile, intolerant, unfriendly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Open, inclusive, supportive, friendly
---	---------------	---

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

25. What were your average grades in High School?

(Choose One)

- A or A+
- A- or B+

- B
- B- or C+
- C
- C- or D+
- D or lower

26. Did your high school require community service for graduation? (Circle One)  
 ..... YES NO

27. What is your age?

28. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male
- Transgender

29. What is your sexual orientation?

- Heterosexual
- Bisexual
- Gay/Lesbian
- Rather not say

30. Indicate your citizenship and/ or generation status:

(Choose One)

- Your grandparents, parents, and you were born in the U.S.
- Both of your parents AND you were born in the U.S.
- You were born in the U.S., but at least one of your parents was not
- You are a foreign born, naturalized citizen
- You are a foreign born, resident alien/ permanent resident
- You are on a student visa

31. Please indicate your racial or ethnic background. (Mark all that apply)

- White/Caucasian
- African American/Black
- American Indian/Alaska Native
- Asian American/Asian
- Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
- Mexican American/Chicano
- Puerto Rican
- Cuban American
- Other Latino American
- Multiracial or multiethnic
- Race/ethnicity not included above

32. Do you have a mental, emotional, or physical condition that now or in the past affects your functioning in daily activities at work, school, or home?

Yes      No

**if Yes** Please indicate all that apply:

- Deaf/Hard of Hearing
- Blind/Visually Impairment
- Speech/language condition
- Learning Disability
- Physical or musculoskeletal (e.g. multiple sclerosis)
- Attention Deficit Disorder/ Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
- Psychiatric/Psychological condition (e.g. anxiety disorder, major depression)
- Neurological condition (e.g. brain injury, stroke)
- Medical (e.g. diabetes, severe asthma)
- Other

**33. What is your current religious affiliation?**

(Choose One)

- None
- Agnostic
- Atheist
- Buddhist
- Catholic
- Hindu
- Islamic
- Jewish
- Mormon
- Quaker
- Protestant (e.g. Baptist, Methodist, Presbyterian)
- Other
- Other Christian
- Rather not say

**34. What is your best estimate of your grades so far in college? [Assume 4.00 = A] (Choose One)**

- 3.50 – 4.00
- 3.00 – 3.49
- 2.50 – 2.99
- 2.00 – 2.49
- 1.99 or less
- No college GPA

**35. What is the HIGHEST level of formal education obtained by any of your parent(s) or guardian(s)?**

(Choose one)

- Less than high school diploma or GED
- High school diploma or GED
- Some college
- Associates degree
- Bachelors degree
- Masters degree
- Doctorate or professional degree (e.g., JD, MD, PhD)
- Don't know

**36. What is your best estimate of your parent(s) or guardian(s) combined total income from last year? If you are independent from your parents, indicate your income.**

(Choose one)

- Less than \$12,500
- \$12,500 - \$24,999
- \$25,000 – \$39,999
- \$40,000 – \$54,999
- \$55,000 - \$74,999
- \$75,000 - \$99,999
- \$100,000 - \$149,999
- \$150,000 - \$199,999
- \$200,000 and over
- Don't know
- Rather not say

**37. Which of the following best describes where are you currently living while attending college?**

(Choose one)

- Parent/guardian or other relative home
- Other private home, apartment, or room
- College/university residence hall
- Other campus student housing
- Fraternity or sorority house
- Other

#### **INDIVIDUAL CAMPUS ITEMS**

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.



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