

THE DEVELOPMENT AND INITIAL TESTING OF A
MODEL OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP IN
HIGH SCHOOLS:
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

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ABSTRACT

Leadership is a construct that has many facets, attributes, and nuances. In the gestalt of school leadership roles, the student leadership component is part of the overall leadership culture. The significance of the role student leaders play on a high school campus, and their consequent impact on the effectiveness of the school as an organization, was the focus of this study. The purpose of this study was to explore how, through the eyes of high school principals, student leaders impact organizational behavior and effectiveness both favorably and unfavorably.

This study addressed the following research questions: How do high school principals view student leaders in the context of the campus leadership culture? How do high school principals develop/engage/enlist the student leadership component on high school campuses to affect improved campus effectiveness? In what ways do student leaders have an impact on school culture and organizational effectiveness?

A conceptual model was developed for the purposes of the study. The Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model was developed to provide a conceptual framework through which to view the impact of student leaders on the effectiveness of the campus as an organization.

Using grounded theory, this study first examined, by use of self-reporting surveys, the level of commitment to the development and enlistment of student leaders on public high school campus in Texas by 105 campus principals. Follow-up qualitative interviews were conducted with 14 principals whose survey responses or whose campus

performance as determined by elements of the Academic Excellence Indicator System proved well outside the norm.

The study provides a first step in the development of the Student Leadership Culture Model as a useful tool for study of the impact of student leaders on the effectiveness of high school campuses as organizations. Other conclusions of the study indicate that principal tenure and the type of schedule used have an impact on the development of student leaders. Also, the recursive interplay of campus context, culture, and performance was identified as an important factor in the development of student leaders. Finally, the theme of student voice emerged as an important indicator in the level of commitment principals and campuses exhibit toward student leadership.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a construct that has many facets, attributes, and nuances. Student leaders on high school campuses represent an interesting subgroup of the general population. The purpose of this study is to explore the sociological impact of student leaders on high school campuses in the context of the broader leadership culture. Hunt and Peterson (1997) question, “Is leadership a global idea?...Given that leadership, or closely related concepts, seem to be global, does leadership need to be considered internationally or could it simply be looked at emically within each culture?.....Should leadership be studied scientifically?” (p. 350-351). I believe the answer to the last question is “yes”. This study is designed to affect a better understanding of the emic nature of student leadership in the larger organizational leadership culture of high schools.

As a high school principal struggling to facilitate and respond to change, I continually search for pieces of the puzzle that will assist me in the effort to create a world class high school. This study is designed to help find and explain the piece of the puzzle that is student leadership. Fullan (2001) argues for multiple layers of leadership (although he does not specifically mention students). He states:

What is needed for sustainable performance then is leadership at many levels of the organization. Pervasive leadership has a greater likelihood of occurring if

leaders work on mastering the five core capacities: moral purpose, understanding of the change process, building relationships, knowledge building, and coherence making. (p. 137)

Pascale, Millemann, and Gioja (2000) note that self-organization and emergence enable an organization to tap into its own latent potential in order to transform itself (p. 117).

This study will explore whether the leadership talent of students represents some of that “latent potential” which facilitates the mastering of Fullan’s five core capacities and which affects the organizational transformation of which Pascale et al., speak.

Recently, more school reform proponents espouse listening to students as an important component in forming and reforming schools (Glickman, 1998; McKibben, 2004; Noguera, 2004). Glickman states, “It would appear to be just common sense for educators to listen to their students, but the risks of doing so are often perceived as high” (p. 151). Glickman goes on to note that healthy organizations are not in the business of self-preservation, but of self-correction, and that listening to the students is a critical component of that mission for schools. McKibben (2004) asserts, “When students become leaders in a democratic learning community, the school benefits from their perspective and their idealism.” Whitaker, Whitaker, and Lumpa (2000) insist that the inclusion of students in substantive decision-making is imperative.

Deal and Peterson (1999) speak to the need for school leaders to ask critical questions about the current realities and visions of a school. The questions they suggest include questions that are relevant to this study: What subcultures exist inside and outside the school? Who are the recognized (and unrecognized) heroes and villains of the

school (p. 86)? This study will explore the subculture of student leaders on high school campuses and how those heroes (or villains) impact the success of the high school as an effective organization.

While elements relevant to leadership have been observed and recorded, often through myth and legend, since Babylonian times, the formal and empirical study of leadership began during the early 1900s (Bass, 1990). Early approaches to the study of leadership attempted to identify and describe the personal attributes of leaders (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Bass, 1990). During the mid-1900s, the focus of leadership studies took on the elements of situational and contingency models of leadership styles, which tended to be predictive of group outcomes (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001). During the late 1900s, the focus of leadership studies again shifted, this time toward the concepts of transactional versus transformational leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Creighton, 2005).

From the literature review in Chapter III several conclusions flowed that support the pursuit of this study. In brief, those conclusions are as follows. First, there is a shortage of relevant empirical studies focused on how student leadership impacts campus performance or the school as an organization. Consequently, a non-trivial study on student leadership can help fill a void in the literature that currently exists. Second, there is a need in the literature for a clearly articulated, agreed upon conceptual definition of student leadership and for a well-defined construct for student leadership. The need for a coherent conceptual model by which to study the construct also became apparent. Third, the need to examine the purposeful enlistment of student leaders on high school

campuses in relation to their role in school improvement efforts became evident. Finally, while there is a need for a study of this nature, it is understood that numerous confounding and mediating variables will likely pose significant problems in teasing out the impact of the Student Leadership Culture (SLC) on school effectiveness. However, the process holds the prospect of illuminating some very interesting relationships between the SLC and the other subcultures on a high school campus.

As this study will attempt to discern the impact, either favorable or unfavorable, of the SLC on the larger organization, it is important to note that the independent variables are the components of the SLC and the dependent variables are the elements of school organizational effectiveness.

Statement of the Problem

In the gestalt of school leadership roles, the student leadership component is part of that leadership culture. A number of questions help define the problem at hand. What is student leadership? How is student leadership developed and nurtured? What impact do student leaders have on the organizational behavior and effectiveness of high schools? Can student leaders be enlisted to achieve higher campus performance? The significance of the role that student leaders play on a high school campus is the driver of this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore how, through the eyes of high school principals, student leaders impact school organizational effectiveness.

Research Questions

Fuller (2003) states:

Our questions generate our individuality. Through our response to them, we define ourselves, we become someone in particular. Long before we're even aware of them, they shape our every move. A question generates a quest and a quest crystallizes our identity, transforming us into someone who, regardless of how others see us, we experience as a somebody. (p. 42)

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. How do high school principals view student leaders in the context of the campus leadership culture?
2. How do high school principals develop/engage/enlist the student leadership component on high school campuses to affect improved campus effectiveness?
3. In what ways do student leaders have an impact on school culture and organizational effectiveness?

Conceptual Framework

As will be seen in the literature review in Chapter III, no conceptual model of the Student Leadership Culture (SLC) could be found. Consequently, the researcher embarked upon the development of a meaningful model that would satisfactorily serve as a vehicle for studying the construct. The literature reviewed covered a broad range of genre related somehow to the construct of leadership. This relation to the leadership construct was in some cases quite overt (i.e. literature specifically designed to speak to

leadership); in other cases the reference to the leadership construct was inferred. As the literature was examined, the researcher constantly sought common themes expressed in the text. As those themes emerged, the researcher began to organize them into a coherent collection of constructs in order to examine further as credible dimensions (later termed Process Dimensions) of leadership. From those elements a workable model began to take form. The development of that model is explained in Chapter II.

As the literature and theme development was going on, the researcher was also in the process of formulating a definition of student leadership that would serve well for the purposes of this study, and beyond. In order to construct a useful a priori conceptual SLC model an agreed upon definition of student leadership was needed. To begin the process of developing a usable SLC model, 20 principals from a broad range of public high schools in Texas were asked via e-mail communications to provide a working definition of student leadership. These principals were chosen with attention to two criteria: size of campus and geographic location. Four principals from each of the five different sizes of high schools as categorized by the University Interscholastic League (UIL) of Texas, the state's governing organization for interscholastic competitions of all types, were solicited. As the UIL divides the high schools in the state into five conferences based on enrollment, these conferences served as a useful tool by which to select different sizes of high schools. Additionally, as four schools were chosen from each of the UIL conferences, effort was made on the part of the researcher to select schools from the disparate geographical areas of the state.

Once the 20 principals provided their respective definitions of student leadership, the responses were synthesized by the researcher into the definition shown here: Student leadership is the application and modeling of interpersonal skills, intellect, and charisma by students in assuming the civic responsibility to influence others in affecting positive community and organizational outcomes.

The reader should note that the word “positive” in the definition above refers to hygiene effects such as civility, healthiness, orderliness, high academic achievement, etc. It should be noted that the definition does not infer any inherent compliance with the wishes of adults or policy.

Assumptions

The following assumptions are made in this study:

1. Interviewees responded honestly to the interview questions.
2. All campuses in the study sample have purposefully developed plans for improved performance, as required by state law.
3. The leadership culture of the schools in the study includes multiple layers and subcultures, whether formally acknowledged or not.
4. The adult leaders of all high schools aspire to higher levels of academic performance for their students.
5. All high schools aspire to safe, orderly, and nurturing environments.

6. The responses of the high school principals provided relatively reliable assessments of the level of commitment the school exhibits toward the development of student leaders.
7. The student leadership culture of any particular school is a complex interplay of a number of attributes and settings for the development and practice of those attributions.
8. The views regarding effective and affirmative student leadership behavior will often vary between the adult leaders and the student leaders on a campus. In other words, student leaders will likely have different objectives than do the adult leaders of the campus.

Definition of Terms

AEIS Report - The Academic Excellence Indicator System Report is provided by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) for each campus in the state. As a collection of quality data from each campus and district, the report provides student performance, student demographic, attendance, and staffing data.

Interconnectedness – The premise that all things and entities in the universe are connected in some way, or by some unseen “connective tissue,” by which they impact one another in ways not yet fully understood.

Leadership – The ability to cause others to act in ways or at a pace they might not otherwise act.

Organizational effectiveness – The array of dependent variables selected for this study to indicate the level of effectiveness of the school as an organization that accomplishes its fundamental mission(s).

Organizational leadership culture – The organizational constructs (both formal and informal) by which the norms and belief systems of the organization are formed, disseminated, and transmitted.

PEIMS – The Public Education Information Management System is the data collection warehouse for all monitored data relevant to individual school districts in the state.

Student leadership – The application and modeling of interpersonal skills, intellect, and charisma by students in assuming the civic responsibility to influence others in affecting positive community and organizational outcomes.

Systems – The processes of engagement between individuals, groups, organizations, cultures, or other systems.

TAKS – Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills; the state high-stakes assessments used to measure student achievement for the K-12 spectrum of formal education in Texas.

TEA – The Texas Education Agency is the department of education for the state of Texas. The TEA provides numerous services to the legislature, the executive branch of state government, and to school districts. Collecting and organizing school data and disseminating that data in the form of the AEIS Report is a primary function of the organization.

UIL – The University Interscholastic League is the governing organization for interscholastic competitions in academics, music, and athletics for public high schools in Texas.

Delimitations

Participants in this study were limited to public high schools in Texas. Only principals charged with leading the campuses were surveyed and interviewed.

Limitations

In light of the delimitations of the study, a number of limitations to the generalizability of the findings should be noted. They include:

1. Findings are representative of the opinions, with associated biases, of the respondents. Since all are from public high schools in Texas, the findings may not transfer to schools of different grade levels or schools in other regions.
2. As this is an exploratory study, findings must be considered in light of the absence of a significant amount of corroborating research.
3. In light of the absence of a large body of research on the topic of student leadership, it is quite possible that respondents were forming opinions about the subject as they responded to the researcher. Consequently, the common phenomena of man-on-the-street type responses may have introduced responses that had not been thoroughly considered or formulated.

4. Any study of organizational effectiveness is fraught with multiple confounding and mediating variables. The multitude of variables that affect the performance of schools makes it remarkably difficult to isolate one (or a few) as the fundamental drivers of the dependent variables (in this case the AEIS indicators of school organizational effectiveness).
5. As with any study that relies primarily on the articulation of beliefs and opinions, the issue of espoused theories versus theories in practice must be considered. In fact, what some of the respondents espoused as their beliefs about student leadership may not, in actuality, be the theories they have put into practice “on the ground” on their respective campuses.
6. As the sample was chosen only by agreement of the superintendents and principals of the respective high school campuses, the generalizability to a larger population is significantly compromised.
7. While size, geography, and demographics were purposefully varied, the variances in the types of campuses studied introduce more of those confounding and mediating variables that are the bane of organizational behavior research.
8. As per the fluidity and attrition rate of high school principals, the tenure of a principal on a campus has great bearing on the disposition toward student leaders, the focus of the campus, and, in fact, the campus performance. In some instances, the principals interviewed had tenure on the campus of two years or less. The impact and influence of principals with short tenure has some likely relevance for

this study; indeed, it may even be a study of its own. While it was not specifically included as an element of focus in this study, the contextual impact thereof was in the mind of the researcher as a possible mediating factor.

9. The data collected for the study was from the campus principal of the respective campuses. His/her opinions and views may not be representative of the other adults and students on the campus.
10. The findings of the study must be considered only to be representative of the perceptions of the respondents at a particular point in time. As principals mature in age and skill, it is assumed their proficiencies and world views change, as well. Also, the contexts of their respective campuses at any given point in time largely dictate the amount of energy the principal can dedicate to constructs such as the development of student leaders.
11. Any study is impacted by the biases of the researcher. This researcher can claim no special inoculation against imposing personal bias on the study, despite use of sound research practices to limit said bias toxins.

Significance of the Study

Leadership is a concept that has been written about, observed, promoted, and prescribed for years. The construct is thoroughly embedded in the field of organizational behavior. Virtually all organizations attend to the importance of quality leadership either by structural arrangements or by highly developed processes for leadership development. Over time, more and more organizations have come to understand the psychological need

for stakeholders to have a voice in determining the missions, and the execution of those missions, in the organization. The prospect that students do (or can) have a prominent and positive role in the leadership culture of schools is one that has rarely been explored to date, but has recently received some attention. Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) note:

Finally, even the most sophisticated quantitative designs used in current leadership effects research (including the one used in this study) treat leadership as an exogenous variable influencing students, sometimes directly, but mostly indirectly, through school conditions, moderated by student background characteristics. The goal of such research usually is to validate a specific form of leadership by demonstrating significant results on the school organization and on students. The logic of such designs assumes that influence flows in one direction – from the leader to the student, however tortuous the path might be. But the present study hints at a far more complex set of interactions between leadership, school conditions, and family educational culture in the production of student outcomes. These interactions are consistent with the claims of some qualitative leadership research: they reflect, as well, a relational conception of leadership based on mutual influence rather than only a conception of leadership as a role or set of functions carried out by an individual. (p. 471)

This study is important in that it provides some preliminary data on how and to what degree organizations (like schools) with large numbers of stakeholders (like students) who are typically underrepresented in the leadership culture incorporate that

particular subset of stakeholders. This study will contribute to our understanding of the development and enlistment of student leaders in relation to the organizational effectiveness of high schools.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I provides an overview of the problem to be studied. Included in this chapter is the purpose of the study, the research questions, a brief summary of the conceptual framework, a discussion of assumptions, a listing of definitions, delimitations and limitations of the study, and a brief discussion of the significance of the study.

Chapter II outlines the development of the SLC conceptual model of student leadership, by which the construct may be studied.

Chapter III provides a review of the literature that is considered relevant to the study.

Chapter IV provides a summary of the methodology. The chapter also provides rationale guiding the design. It also describes the data sources, data collection methods, and the procedures used in data analysis.

Chapter V presents the findings of the study.

Chapter VI discusses the findings, provides a summary of the study, and provides recommendations that spring from the study.

CHAPTER II

MODEL DEVELOPMENT

In order to effectively study the impact (or lack thereof) of student leaders on the effectiveness of a school, a theoretical model outlining the influencers, attenuating factors (independent variables), and outputs (dependent variables) of schools as organizations was needed. Learning from the Organizational/Supervisory (O/S) Model of Instructional Supervision developed by Claudet (1999), a conceptual model was formulated by which the impact of student leadership on School Organizational Effectiveness (SOE) might be measured. The Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model (see Figure 1 below) was developed to that end.

The emergent model, the Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model, consists of three primary components. The Influencers of SLC component describes the human and non-human elements that have an impact on how student leaders think and behave. The SLC Tapestry element of the model represents the dynamic array of independent variables that make up the complex interplay of contexts/settings in which student leadership emerges and is developed (the Structural Dimensions) with the behavioral attributions that are enacted within those contexts (the Process Dimensions). In effect, the Structural Dimensions can be thought of as the stages or platforms on which the student leaders hone their leadership skills and proficiencies, i.e. the Process Dimensions.

Finally, the outputs are described as School/Organizational Effectiveness. These are the dependent variables of school effectiveness that are impacted to some extent by the SLC on a campus.

There are numerous contextual and human inputs that directly impact the student leadership culture on a high school campus. These are named Influencers in the SLC model depiction. Contextual or environmental factors that influence the dimensions of SLC are the ideas that students encounter and embrace, movies, television, music/music videos, digital devices (such as computers, personal digital assistants, MP3 players, cell phones, and the like), digital socializing (in virtual environments), literature the student leaders have read, the culture in which they live and other culture(s) which impact them, and their life experiences. These elements impact the psyche, values, and social proclivities of students in isolation as well as in combination(s) with one another.

In addition to the contextual influences, the behavior and thinking of the SLC is also impacted by interactions with other humans. The human subgroups identified include students, teachers, administrators, counselors, club sponsors, coaches, directors, and school support staff, as well as parents and community members. Important to remember is that within and between each of the human subgroups are additional subgroups that coalesce around common beliefs, interests, and/or causes. Some of those beliefs and causes are well aligned with the central purpose(s) and mission(s) of the school, while others may have agendas and objectives that are not so aligned (in fact, some may even be directly contradictory to stated school objectives). Within each group and subgroup leaders emerge, either by formal or informal processes. As well, the

collective interplay between the environmental elements with each other and with the human subgroups creates additional layers of complexity in the influencing factors. In some way these contextual and human elements, working both independently and interactively, influence the world views, the thinking, and the behaviors of student leaders.

The presupposition of the SLC model is that the student leadership culture of any particular school is a complex interplay of a number of attributes (i.e., the Process Dimensions) and settings for the development and practice of those attributions (i.e., the Structural Dimensions). A worthy metaphor for the SLC model is that of a tapestry. The horizontal fibers of the tapestry consist of a set of attributions which will be called Process Dimensions of SLC. From a review of relevant leadership and student leadership literature, 14 critical attributes of leadership (the Process Dimensions) emerged as being particularly relevant to the general construct of leadership, and more specifically to the construct of student leadership. All 14 are shown below. The contextual definitions of the attributions were synthesized from the literature of respected thinkers, writers, and/or researchers, who are noted with each definition below.

The 14 attributes, as well as the emergent definitions, were then provided to a panel of expert judges that included the following: three principals of large high schools, one statewide director of Student Councils, one statewide director of student activities, and one member of the National Association of Secondary School Principals Standing Committee on Student Activities. The panel was chosen by the researcher as known colleagues with extensive experience in the development of student leaders. The

researcher was cognizant of the fact that, since the expert panel were known colleagues through professional interactions, their world view and perspective were likely similar to those of the researcher. This possibility could serve as a researcher bias enhancer, and its impact on the study was and should be thoughtfully considered. The expert panel was given the 14 attributes and asked to disqualify any elements considered irrelevant to the construct of student leadership and to prioritize the remaining attributes in order of critical importance (as per their respective conceptions of the optimum student leadership model).

The resulting order of the attributes (shown in the SLC Model above and defined below) is the prioritization that emerged from the feedback of the five experts. None of the attributes were disqualified by the panel. Important to remember is the fact that this study is not premised on the kinds and number of leadership attributes. The feedback and ranking of the attributes serve only as a convention of verification and validation by informed individuals with experience in the domains of student leadership and schools as organizations in pursuit of higher performance. With that in mind, the contextual definitions of the attributes (in the order of prioritization) will now be detailed below.

1. Responsibility is the ability to consistently make decisions and take actions (both individually and collectively) that are morally and ethically grounded in commonly accepted beliefs about citizenship, and the willingness to be accountable for those decisions (Marshall, 2001; Toso, 2000).

2. Collaborative Proficiency is the ability to interact effectively with other individuals and groups (both horizontally and vertically) so as to function as team members working toward common, acceptable goals (Melamed & Reiman, 2000; Schnorr, Black, & Davern, 2000).
3. Decision Making Capability is the ability to accept authority and to make reasoned and sound decisions from an organizational perspective (Owens, 1998; van Linden & Fertman, 1998).
4. Respect for Diversity is the acknowledgment and acceptance of, and appreciation for, diverse social, cultural, religious, and intellectual views (Barth, 1990; Strong, 2001).
5. Communicative Rapport is the ability to foster and perpetuate productive levels of organizational communication both horizontally and vertically (Block, 1993; Wasley, 1994; Whitaker, 2003).
6. Service Orientation is the level of commitment to serving others from the leadership perspective, as opposed to pursuing means and ends that are motivated by purely selfish intentions (Block, 1993; Block, 2002; Greenleaf, 1996).
7. Self Awareness is the degree to which one is aware of his/her own interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and tendencies (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
8. Self Regulation is the ability to suspend one's emotions and reactions in order to make reasoned judgments about appropriate actions and reactions (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).

9. Goal Orientation is the ability to envision greater performance and to develop a plan for achieving that higher performance (Bielaczyk & Collins, 1999; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).
10. Relationship Management Prowess is the ability to use interpersonal skills to develop, maintain, and nurture relationships with others in a useful way to affect the outcomes desired (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
11. Conflict Resolution is the ability to sense, acknowledge, and understand the catalysts of conflict, and to work individually and collaboratively to constructively manage, or eliminate, the conflict(s) in productive ways (Close & Lechman, 1997; Melamed & Reiman, 2000).
12. Others Awareness is the ability to read and assess the emotional, intellectual, political, and spiritual disposition of others (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
13. Learning Focus is the commitment to optimum academic and intellectual achievement for all students on the campus (Cohen, 2001; DuFour, 1999; Schlechty, 2001; Whitaker, 2003).
14. Global View is the ability to assess and realistically appropriate one's place in the larger realms of community, state, nation, and planet, and to act accordingly (Costa & Kallick, 2000a; Flanary & Terehoff, 2000; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Snyder, 2000).

Returning now to the tapestry metaphor, only the horizontal “threads” of the Process Dimensions of SLC have thus far been addressed. The vertical fabric which will

be called the Structural Dimensions of SLC will now be examined. These elements are the settings, environments, and occasions in which student leaders learn, develop, and operationalize their skills as leaders and their collective impact as a leadership subculture on the school campus. The Structural Dimensions of SLC include classroom settings, clubs, assemblies, competitions and games, activities, performances, student government, Parent-Teacher-Student Associations (PTSA), counseling sessions, orientation sessions, informal gatherings, committees and task forces, field trips and outings, community service, practices and rehearsals, and pep rallies. Each of these social events and settings, whether in small groups or large, provide a venue in which the SLC does its work of influence and impact on the other stakeholders of the campus (for good or for bad). Worth noting is that similar kinds of structural contexts exist outside the school setting and provide student leaders the opportunity to enact their leadership attributes in those realms; those non-school settings are acknowledged but disregarded in this study as they are considered peripheral to school/organizational effectiveness.

Key indicators of school culture center around the intensity of the focus on learning as a campus, the degree of student-centeredness, and the general level of attention to nurturing and needs-meeting for all inhabitants of the school (Cohen, 2001; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 2005; Whitaker, 2003). Also incorporated in the culture of the school is the degree of collaboration exemplified in decision-making, in instructional planning, and in data analysis with regard to the campus (DuFour & Eaker,

1998; Whitaker, 2003). As well, the practices the school uses to conduct day-to-day business are clear indicators of the culture of the school (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Schlecty, 2001; Whitaker, 2003).

Consequently, the culminating piece in the SLC model are the outcome components (the dependent variables), called School/Organizational Effectiveness. How to measure the impact of the student leadership culture, as tricky as that business is, is critical to this study. The presumption is that all schools will aspire to the highest academic levels of student achievement possible.

Consequently, 12 indicators from the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) used by the state of Texas to assess school performance were drawn upon to discern the general performance of the campuses. Indicators of organizational effectiveness in this regard will be measured by the percentage of students on the campus who meet the standards on the state-mandated exams, called the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). Another indicator used will be the percentage of students reaching Commended performance on the TAKS tests. As well, attendance rates serve as an indicator of a school's effectiveness. Another indicator of school organizational effectiveness that will be used is completion rates (not including students who receive General Equivalency Diplomas – GEDs); this is a relatively dependable measure of the holding power of the school. The percentage of students enrolled in advanced courses will also be considered. Another critical measure of organizational effectiveness with

regard to student achievement that will be used is the percentage of students who pursue and complete requirements for the Recommended High School or Distinguished Academic Diplomas.

Other indications of high levels of learning focus will be discerned by examining the percentage of students taking Advanced Placement (AP) and/or International Baccalaureate (IB) exams, as well as percentage of students taking the ACT or SAT college entrance exams. Furthermore, the mean scores of students taking the ACT and SAT exams will be considered. Finally, readiness for college in the areas of English and math will be dependent variables used to discern the organizational effectiveness of the schools.

The graphic representation of the SLC Model can be viewed in Figure 2.1.

Example Scenarios

Taking into consideration the SLC model as described above, some conceivable outcomes in the form of hypothetical scenarios should be considered. Based on the independent variables (SLC Tapestry) and the dependent variables (the School/Organizational Effectiveness indicators) in the SLC model there are hundreds of possible outcomes that could emerge, different *flavors* of schools. Four possible examples of demographically similar high schools are discussed below.

In Scenario 1 imagine a high school in which the principal is very committed to the development of student leaders. She has put in place systems for the early identification of student leaders and has purposefully designed curriculum and programs

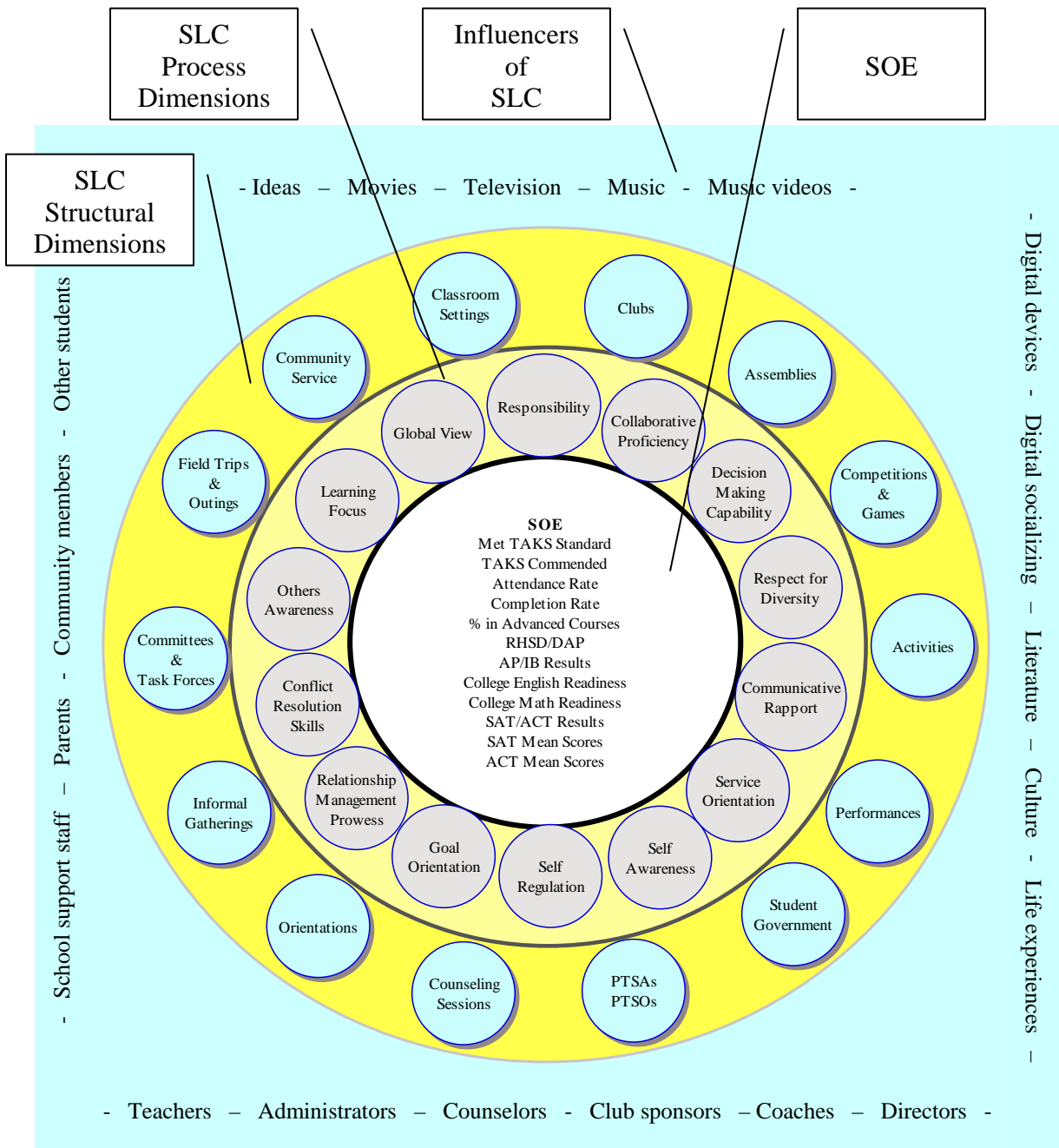


Figure 2.1. Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model

that are intended to educate the SLC regarding the Process Dimensions.

As well, the principal and staff in deliberate ways try to manipulate the Structural Dimensions (stack the deck, so to speak) to provide optimum opportunities for student leaders to operationalize the Process Dimensions. Every effort is made to incorporate the SLC in decision-making processes on the campus and to provide platforms for the SLC to exercise its “muscle” as a significant subculture on the campus. As well, the principal goes to great lengths to co-opt the SLC into pursuit of higher campus performance from a school/organizational effectiveness perspective. When data (dependent variables of School/Organizational Effectiveness) are observed however, we find low completion rates, generally low numbers of students taking ACT and SAT exams, or only middling numbers of students in pursuit of higher level diplomas.

The Scenario 2 high school is one that is somewhat different. In this high school, the principal pays scant attention to the SLC. He barely acknowledges that there is a student leadership culture on his campus. There are no systems in place, or activities designed, to develop and nurture the SLC. To be certain, the Structural Dimensions are in place on campus and the Process Dimensions interact with them in the “tapestry model” regardless. The interplay of the two seems to be random, with high levels of variation in the resulting quality of SLC input and actualization. Upon examination of the School/Organizational Effectiveness variables, we find the campus to be low performing. Low performance on all standardized assessments, and low completion rates abound. Very few students pursue higher level diploma offerings.

Distinctly different is the high school in Scenario 3; in this high school, the principal and his complete staff exhibit a high commitment to the development and nurturing of the SLC. From the beginning of the 9th grade year students are plowed through a very tight curriculum (during advisory periods that meet daily) that effectively builds within them deep understandings underlying the 14 Process Dimensions. As well, systematic coaching of students by the staff in all of the Structural Dimensions serves to ensure that the SLC understands the role of leadership fully, has multiple and repeated opportunities to practice that leadership, and has a clear vision of the campus's culture that makes the SLC an integral player in the success of the campus. The data for this high school looks good on all counts. Completion rates are very high; as well, all standardized testing data points bode well for the campus. Not surprisingly, high percentages of students pursue and attain high end diploma offerings.

Finally, yet a different look emerges for the high school in Scenario 4. The principal is generally ambivalent with regard to the SLC. She sees it as irrelevant to her mission as the campus instructional leader. She believes that the School/Organizational Effectiveness data is the product of work done by the adults on the campus, not the students (and certainly not the SLC, if there is such a thing). The Process and Structural Dimensions interact loosely and in haphazard fashion. Some student leaders flourish under the tutelage of individualized staff members (a coach here, a counselor there). Most SLC Process Dimension components are understood by the SLC in only intuitive and de facto ways. There is little systemic and purposeful direction or reinforcement for high quality SLC engagement. When the School/Organizational Effectiveness data is

observed, the principal appears to know what she is talking about. The campus has high holding power, exceptionally high performance on standardized assessments abounds, and large numbers of students pursue the Recommended or Distinguished Academic Program diplomas.

The four scenarios detailed above are only four of hundreds of possible campus descriptions that may emerge. From just those four scenarios, it is apparent that making connections between campus performance and the SLC will be a messy and challenging undertaking. At the very least, finding a connection between campus effectiveness and SLC will be a difficult and painstaking process. However, teasing out possible connections holds the prospect for very interesting possibilities for this study.

Using the SLC model and the methodologies described in Chapter IV, intensely robust/non-robust SLC models will be identified. The researcher will then review the subsequent data with respect to the contextual nuances and mediating variables and attempt to explain any relationships between the SLC and the School/Organizational Effectiveness (SOE) on the respective campuses. Particularly intriguing schools will then receive additional scrutiny through follow-up interviews to see how/if their posture toward the SLC component has some meaningful impact on the SOE of the school.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

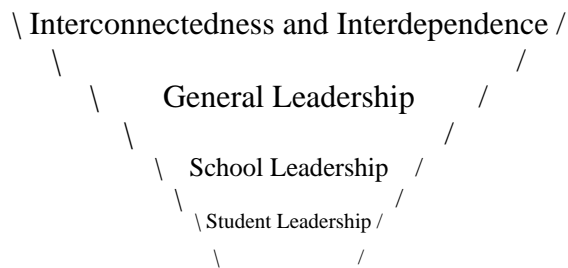
Introduction

A consideration of the issue of student leadership has embedded within it connections to multiple concepts and disciplines. The literature review that follows will build first upon the idea that all entities within the universe are interconnected in ways that we do not fully understand. The importance of this concept to the study is grounded in the belief that the development of students as leaders is implicately tied to the models of leadership that students adopt both in intentional and intuitive ways. From the discussion of interconnectedness and implicate wholeness the literature review will move into more detailed considerations of the phenomena of leadership.

First, a general review of the expansive leadership-related literature will be provided. This literature ranges from purely anecdotal and prescriptive to that which is empirically supported. Further refining the review, a look at literature specific to leadership as it relates to schools and school improvement will follow. Finally, we will take a detailed look at the fairly limited literature base specifically focused on the issue of student leadership and the development of student leaders.

As an overview, then, the reader will progressively move from a broad concept of universal interconnectedness to a general review of leadership to leadership as it relates to school improvement and quality. Finally, the reader will review the specific literature focused on student leadership. This progression from broad to specific is undertaken in

the interest of examining how student leaders and student leadership development play vital roles in the ongoing effort to improve the quality of schools, if they do at all. An inverted-pyramid-style graphic of the narrowing of the focus of the literature review is shown as follows:



Interconnectedness and Interdependence

The idea that every element in the universe is connected in some implicate way has been posited by Bohm (1980). This theoretical physicist devoted his life's work to understanding and explaining his belief that every element of the universe impacts and is impacted by every other element/entity by way of underlying interconnecting forces. He describes this pervasive interconnectedness and interdependence as "implicate wholeness." It is worth noting that a biographical examination of some of the great physicists of history, such as Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, Newton, and Einstein, suggests their intuitive understanding of the underlying principles of interconnectedness. From the multidisciplinary and varied writings and lives of these great scientists (see Hawking, 2002), one can infer their tacit understanding of the elements of interconnectedness and interdependence. Bohm's theory, if correct, suggests to us that our interactions with

other humans have implicit consequences on the thoughts, beliefs, and actions of other humans. This theory is shared by others (Senge et al., 2004). Helgesen (1995) makes a similar argument by use of analogy. She argues that this interconnectedness resembles the web of a spider with its multiple and multi-directional connections. Helgesen makes her assertion from the perspective of the interrelations of organizational membership, but one can adapt her ideas to the implicate wholeness model of Bohm. The ideas of these two thinkers can help explain how the influence of individuals, both direct and indirect, has multi-faceted implications on the actions and thoughts of others. This underlying framework of influence (as unexplainable as it yet remains) has implications for social development, both from a personal and organizational perspective. More directly, the development and activation of leadership, is directly tied to these ideas of interconnectedness and interdependence.

Essentially, the foundational premise is that individuals influence other individuals and groups influence other groups. The means by which influence is affected, and the limits of that influence, cut to the very heart of the concept of leadership. The vehicles of that influence are discussed in some degree by Goodman (1978), as he describes human attempts to explain the universe through multiple media such as symbolism, art, music, and language. Others have referenced the use of language in an attempt to explain the interdisciplinary nature of this interconnectedness and influence (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). A remarkable study by Emoto (1999) uses photography of frozen water crystals to make the assertion that there is, in fact, the interconnectedness and interdependence of which Bohm speaks.

The ideas of interconnectedness and interdependence as described by Bohm (1980) certainly transcend our ability to explain them through logical and linear means. In fact, Kosko (1993) criticizes our human efforts to apply linear axioms to our non-linear world. Kosko makes a convincing argument that our world is better viewed in terms of grayness, rather than in absolute black and white attributions (even from a mathematical perspective). Bohm's belief in underlying "forces" that essentially constitute connective tissue between entities of the universe suggests that the foundations of religion, embedded in spirituality, may represent similar attempts to explain this interconnectedness. Wright (2000) describes these as "memes", non-genetic information packets which compete for access to the human brain where they then replicate (cultural "genes", if you will). The idea of universal interconnectedness and interdependence is a fundamental premise of many religions known to man. The spiritual beliefs of many Native Americans are examples (Bowers, 1995; Storm, 1972) and seem to indicate that those beliefs were/are grounded in some intuitive understanding of systems.

With regard to the construct of systems Pascale, Millemann, and Gioja (2000) write:

We are entering another scientific renaissance. The magnets for the inquiry are called *complex adaptive systems*. Also known as "complexity science," this work grapples with the mysteries of life itself, and propelled forward by the confluence of three streams of inquiry: (1) breakthrough discoveries in the life sciences (e.g., biology, medicine, and ecology); (2) insights of the social sciences (e.g., sociology, psychology, and economics); and (3) new

developments in the hard sciences (e.g., physics, mathematics, and information technology). The resulting work has revealed exciting insights into life and has opened up new avenues for management. (pp. 1-2)

These authors go on to note four principles of complexity science: 1) equilibrium is a precursor to death, 2) in the face of threat, or when galvanized by a compelling opportunity, living things move toward the edge of chaos, 3) when chaotic activity begins, the components of living systems self-organize and new forms and repertoires emerge from the turmoil, and 4) living systems cannot be directed along a linear path. Fullan (2005) also speaks to the issue of complexity theory making the case that changing systems requires an increase in the purposeful interaction between and among individuals within and across all levels of an organization and within and across systems (p. 17).

Oshry (1995) also alludes to the interdependence of individuals in organizational systems that ultimately contribute to organizational health or dysfunction. Based on research by his team he notes that, as humans, we seldom see how our worlds and actions impact one another. He refers to our “temporal blindness,” which is our failure to see the history that lies behind every current event in systemic life. He argues that we tend to see the present apart from the context of the past. Oshry also refers to “spatial blindness,” which refers to our inclination to see the parts without the whole. In relation, Senge (1990) suggests the need to see both the forests and the trees simultaneously.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) relates the ideas of implicate wholeness and interdependence as he references the traditional Asian cultural view that a person is nothing until shaped and

refined through interaction with other humans. Bennis and Thomas (2002) reinforce the concept of leaders being shaped and refined by their mentors and the era in which they live.

Wheatley (1999, 2002) also discusses this interconnectedness, mostly from an organizational perspective. She describes the inclination of human systems, like other systems in nature, to self-organize. Wheatley suggests that systems that appear chaotic are actually beautiful, well-organized patterns beyond the disorganized surface evidence. Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, and Snyder (2000), also reference the concept of order within chaos in terms of school as organizations. Perhaps the processes of human interaction (leadership included) would be better understood in the context of the assumption of an orderly and self-organizing universe (Wheatley & Kellner-Rogers, 1996; Wright, 2000).

As can be inferred from the discussion above, the constructs of interconnectedness and interdependence are thoroughly embedded in the workings of organizations. In fact, if organizations are thought of as living systems, it is impossible to disregard the implications of those constructs for organizations such as schools. A good deal of literature in recent years has been focused on the development and improvement of organizations as systems (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Bolman & Deal, 1991; House, 1991; Oshry, 1995; Senge, 1990; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Snyder, 2000; Wheatley, 1999; Wheatley & Kellner-Rogers, 1996).

Discussions of organizations and their improvement virtually always address the communicative structures within the organization. The connections between communicative “living” structures and implicate human interconnectedness in

organizations are not hard to identify. Senge (1990, 1994) asserts that organizations are, in fact, living systems. He contends that organizations can and should actively engage in learning. Senge argues that the disciplines of a learning organization are: 1) systems thinking, 2) personal mastery, 3) mental models, 4) building shared vision, and 5) team learning. Embedded within his arguments for organizational development are obvious elements of interconnectivity. He describes these connections as circles of causality. The foundations of his argument are Bohmesque to the core.

In presenting a theory on the distribution and exercise of power in complex organizations House (1991) describes organizations as living organisms (not machines) that are complex composites of individuals, processes, structures, and products that vary as a function of environment, form, and the personal characteristics of the individual organizational members. The two forms are contrasted with respect to differences in generic dysfunctions, political arenas, political behavior, abuses of power, containment of power abuse, and adjustment to environmental changes. Argyris and Schon (1996) write as well about the need for organizations to think and act as learning organisms instead of static structures of layered machinery. They describe organizations as systems of multiple causality and circularity (interconnectedness and interdependence). Etzioni (1993) alludes to the circularity of influence (leadership?) in the following assertion:

We have a moral commitment to leave for future generations a livable environment, even perhaps a better one than the one we inherited, certainly not one that has been further depleted. The same observations hold true for our responsibility to our moral, social, and political environment. (p. 11)

It is impossible to read the work of these authors without seeing organizations as being webs of human interconnectivity and interdependence that do, in fact, blossom or diminish on the strength of the intentional developmental efforts (learning) of organizational members. Hord (1997) also addresses the need for organizations to be living organisms that are, in fact, communities of learning. Bowers (1995) makes a very interesting, yet unverifiable, assertion that intelligence can only be viewed as a collective phenomena, not an individually possessed attribute. In the contexts of organizational health, learning, and growth, his assertion is one that certainly appears to have some validity.

Bolman and Deal (1991) also address the “living” aspect of organizations, with the attendant idea of implicate wholeness. They posit that organizations are actually “cultures” that represent the commonly held beliefs, values, and interrelational protocols of the organizational membership. While they provide vocabulary to categorize and describe various types of organizations, the underlying idea of the organization being a living system is always an assumption in their discussions. They, like Senge (1990), Argyris and Schon (1996), Hord (1997), Goleman (2002), and DuFour and Eaker (1998), assert that organizations can and should be organisms that engage in purposeful, intentional learning as a community.

So, what does all that have to do with student leadership? If organizations are, in fact, living systems that can and should engage in purposeful learning and growth, and if student leaders are valuable members of those organizations, and if the forces of

interconnectivity and interdependence are pervasive within the organization, then the role of student leaders in the organization must be viewed as an important variable in the life of the organization.

Leadership Considerations

Now we move to the generalized construct of leadership. What is leadership? That question drives the whole notion of how to study the concept. Leadership encompasses many, often different, things to different people. Winston Churchill is said to have defined leadership as “going from failure to failure without losing enthusiasm” (Senge et al., 2004, p. 145). Leadership has been viewed as a focus of group processes, as personality effects, as compliance inducement processes, as influence, as a list of behaviors, as the art of persuasion, as power relations, as goal achievement, as interpersonal skill, as a differentiated role, as the initiation of structure, and as a combination of these concepts (Bass, 1990). In recent decades the study of leadership has attracted scholars across disciplines and the research focus has increasingly centered around the issues of transformational leadership (a concept that will be discussed later in this work) (Hunt, 1999). According to Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994):

Leadership is persuasion, not domination; persons who can require others to do their bidding because of their power are not leaders. Leadership only occurs when others willingly adopt, for a period of time, the goals of a group as their

own. Thus, leadership concerns building cohesive and goal-oriented teams; there is a causal and definitional link between leadership and team performance. (p. 493)

This assertion is especially true in high schools (as opposed to middle schools or elementary schools) because the students behave like adults in many respects (maturity variations discounted). Leadership has even been mistaken for smooth communication skills and attractive looks, as noted by Gladwell (2005) regarding the making of a President Warren G. Harding. With so many different concepts of the notion of leadership, attempts to empirically study the topic are, at best, extremely difficult.

In the interest of trying to encapsulate the breadth and volume of literature that speaks to the general construct of leadership a framework by which to categorize the various writings and ideas cited for the reader was developed. The literature will be framed within three general constructs: the Science of Leadership, the Art of Leadership, and the Metaphors of Leadership. The Science of Leadership category will include works that speak to the productional, organizational, and structural elements of leadership. Included under the Art of Leadership will be works specific to relational elements of leadership, such as interpersonal skills, personality attributes, and the affectation of influence. Within the Metaphors of Leadership category the reader will find analogies and metaphors that have been used to describe leadership. Certainly there are other and useful models that have been used to frame leadership ideas/constructs. And, as always, there are the inevitable in-between-ers that defy our efforts to conveniently fit them into just one category.

Science of Leadership

The Science of Leadership has to do with the productional, structural, and organizational elements of the construct of leadership. Much of the work in this area deals with creating structures (in systemic terms) within organizations that lend themselves to greater organizational effectiveness or productivity.

House (1991) suggests that organizations can be mechanistic or organic in nature, having varying degrees of cohesiveness, and various levels of boundary spanning proclivity.

Much work in recent years has centered around the issue of team building concepts and learning communities/organizations (Argyris & Schon, 1996 ; DuFour, Eaker, & DuFour, 2005; Hackman, 2002; Senge, 1990). Heifetz and Laurie (1997) assert that the most effective leaders find ways to operationalize the collective intelligence of their organizational members, letting the summative strengths of others identify and solve the problems faced by the organization. This is, in effect, an exhortation to distribute power. Recommendations for adopting collaborative leadership models are also promoted by other leadership thinkers (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Bolman & Deal, 1991; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Goleman, 2002; Schmoker, 2005; Senge, 1990).

Hackman (2002) writes:

Effective leaders attend first to the basic conditions that foster team effectiveness – the features of the team and the organizational context that have been discussed in this book. First of all, they make sure they have created a real

work team that will have some stability over time. They provide the team with a compelling direction. They fine-tune the structure of the team so it fosters rather than impedes teamwork. They tweak the organizational structures and systems so they provide teams with ample support and resources. And they arrange for, or themselves provide, expert coaching to help teams take full advantage of their favorable performance situation. Effective leaders do these things in their own way, using the idiosyncratic behavioral styles and strategies that they have found to work best for them. And they attend carefully to timing, moving quickly and decisively when opportunities for action open, but never trying to force an intervention when the time for it is not right. (pp. 204-205)

Bolman and Deal (2002) also speak to the shaping of structures that work for organizational and work self-actualization and effectiveness. In a seminal work, Bolman and Deal (1991) discuss how leaders in organizations are forced to cope with ambiguity and complexity. They assert that leaders “frame” their problems (whether knowingly or not) in one of four contexts: the Structural, the Human Resource, the Political, and the Symbolic. They suggest that effective leaders have the ability to deal with problems in any, or all, of those four frames.

Some literature focuses on the management component (productional/structural) of organizational life. Frequently, the management aspect of leadership is associated with literature discussing the issue of organizational change (Bencivenga, 2002).

O’Connor et al., (1995) studied the characteristics and behaviors of charismatic leaders (i.e., leaders with high personal or emotional appeal to their followers) in an effort to

gauge their ability to affect organizational change. They found that leaders craft an organizational vision based on their personal beliefs, motives, and self-concepts, then impose managerial decisions designed to realize that vision. The operationalization of managerial leadership has direct bearing on organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 1998).

Art of Leadership

The Art of Leadership provides a framework from which to consider the relational aspects of leadership. These elements include activity level, task competence, interpersonal competence, power orientation, the valuing of others, esteem, status, and charisma. Recent research has primarily viewed leadership as a function of these indicators of social influence (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).

Gardner (1995) provides a comprehensive and empirically supported view of the construct of leadership. Through extensive literature review, he crafts a well-developed view of leadership. He supports his assertions further by detailing comprehensive case studies of 11 notables that included Margaret Mead, Martin Luther King, Eleanor Roosevelt, and Mahatma Gandhi. Gardner defines leadership as, “Persons who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings.” Gardner goes on to identify four factors that he considers crucial to the effective practice of leadership. First, leaders have a tie to their audience. Secondly, they have a certain independent rhythm of life in which is embedded their deeply held beliefs and values. He notes that leaders must be comfortable with loneliness. Thirdly, Gardner believes that leaders communicate through

stories, but those stories must be consistent with the traits that they embody. Finally, he believes that effective leadership can only exist where there is choice among the followership (the instrument of power cannot be the vehicle to affect acquiescence among followers). Gardner (2004) also asserts that effective leaders possess and develop three hallmark qualities: 1) linguistic, interpersonal, and existential intelligence, 2) well-honed instincts, and 3) integrity (upon which he places the highest premium).

Gardner (1995) argues that leaders effectively commerce in stories and narratives to affect influence. He states:

In speaking of stories, I want to call attention to the fact that leaders present a dynamic perspective to their followers: not just a headline or snapshot, but a drama that unfolds over time, in which they - leader and followers - are the principal characters or heroes. Together, they have embarked on a journey in pursuit of certain goals, and along the way and into the future, they can expect to encounter certain obstacles or resistances that must be overcome. Leaders and audiences traffic in many stories, but the most basic story has to do with issues of identity. (p. 14)

Anderson and Foley (1998) underscore the power of effective storytelling when they state, “When, however, the aim of storytelling is to interact with others and identify common ground, stories have the potential to build authentic communities of shared meaning and values” (p. 7).

Bass (1998) has developed perhaps the most empirically examined and supported model of leadership. This model, called the Model of the Full Range of Leadership,

divides leadership into two fundamental elements, transformational leadership and transactional leadership, and a third non-leadership component called laissez-faire leadership. Within the transformational leadership dimension exist four components: charismatic leadership (or idealized influence), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The transactional component of the Bass model consists of two elements: contingent reward/punishment and management by exception. Bass (1998) asserts that all leaders display each of these components to some degree. Effective leaders are considered to function mostly from the transformational perspective. Least effective leaders are considered to operate most frequently from the laissez-faire leadership component.

Goleman (1994, 1998) makes the case that high levels of emotional intelligence are predictable indicators of effective leadership. He lists four components of emotional intelligence. First, Self-awareness is the understanding of one's moods, emotions, and drives, and the effect of those elements on other humans. Secondly, Self-regulation is described as the ability to control or redirect one's mood and impulses, and the ability to suspend judgment in order to think before acting (see also Sosik et al., 2002, and Tsui and Ashford, 1994, for studies in leader self-regulation skills). Third, Social Awareness includes the elements of empathy, organizational awareness, and service. Finally, Relationship Management consists of the elements of inspiration, influence, developing others, change catalyst, conflict management, teamwork, and collaboration. De Pree (1997) also speaks to the impact of relationship management skills for leaders.

In later work, Goleman (2002) identifies several leadership styles: visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter, and commanding. He divides leadership styles roughly into the categories of dissonance producing and resonance producing, in relation to organizational performance. Goleman suggests that the resonance producing leadership styles are the most effective for facilitating well-functioning organizations.

Collins (2001) identifies what he calls Level 5 Leaders (similar to Bass's Transformational leader) that embody a paradoxical mix of personal humility and professional will. They set up successors for even greater success. Level 5 Leaders display compelling modesty, are self-effacing and understated. They are committed to organizational success rather than personal success, displaying a "plow horse" rather than "show horse" mentality. They are inclined to attribute success to other factors, but to assume personal blame for failures or poor performance.

Metaphors of Leadership

The Metaphors of Leadership construct presents overarching models of leadership issues, often through metaphor or analogy. Covey (1991) proposes principle-centered leadership as he articulates the importance of leaders acting from an intellectually and emotionally grounded set of principles. He describes effective leaders as perpetual learners, service-oriented, highly and positively energized individuals, others-oriented, lovers of balanced lives, adventurous, synergistic, and attendant to self-renewal. Covey argues that leadership encompasses four dimensions: security, guidance, wisdom, and power.

Block (1993) carefully articulates the view of leadership from the servant perspective. Block asserts that leadership in the 21st century must be built on collaborative trust between organizational members and between the organization and its clientele. Others advocate a similar theme (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Bolman & Deal, 1991; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Goleman, 2002; Greenleaf, 1996; Hord, 1997; Hord & Czerwinski, 2000; Kelley, 1992; Rooke & Torbert, 2005; Senge, 1990). Block argues for a move from what he describes as patriarchal styles of leadership toward models of shared decision-making and distributed power and responsibility. His most powerful premise, I believe, is in his belief that the heart of effective and empowering leadership is couched in the modeling of selflessness with regard to the people in the organization and the missions of the organization. Moxley (2000) builds on the same idea of collaborative leadership, calling the model “partnership-as-leadership”. He details five requirements for the model to be effective: a balance of power, shared purpose, shared responsibility, respect for the person, and partnering in the day-to-day elements of the organization (which he calls the “nitty-gritty”) as well as in special and ad hoc situations. Smith (1996) expounds similarly by casting leadership less in terms of dominance or leader influence over followers but more in the terms of a common pursuit of organizational members to accomplish a difficult task, a process he describes as meaning making.

Palus and Horth (1996) argue that effective leadership is an art. They describe this art of leadership as the activation of aesthetic competencies, competencies employed in the process of cognitive, emotional, individual, and collective sense-making (very similar to the ideas posited by Goleman, 2002).

Palus and Horth state the following:

Going beyond the analogy of leadership as an art, we propose that the processes of leadership are fundamentally art making. We identify art making as representing specific, powerful modes of perceiving, constructing, mobilizing, and participating in evolving realities. We look to aesthetics for gaining the ability to comprehend the essential human dimensions of unity, complexity, and intensity. In particular, we focus aesthetic competencies as a set of underexplored and potentially valuable resources in perceiving, understanding, and acting on complex challenges in organizations. (p. 54)

They continue:

There is an essential threat in this view of leadership that we wish to emphasize: leadership is about constructing, making. Leaders craft, cobble, spin, weave, shape, hammer, and smooth. We mean this literally as well as metaphorically. Leadership processes build up realities of form and substance. This is seen, for example, at the material level when those involved in the processes of leadership produce products while keeping an eye on quality (or not). Often leaders are architects of organizational structures and relational processes. Leadership shapes people. Leadership crafts vision. Leadership processes carve out places where people can stand, and move together, and take action together. (p. 56)

Wheatley (1999) extends the ideas of interconnectedness and interdependence to the issue of leadership. Building upon the ideas of self-organizing systems and the ideas

supporting chaos theory (now sometimes referred to as complexity theory), she argues that effective leaders develop an understanding, either intuitive or otherwise, of the interconnected and interdependent nature of the universe and apply those ideas in their efforts to lead organizations. In essence, she argues for leading in concert *with* the flow rather than struggling against the current, abstractly speaking. House (1991) discusses this same issue in more academic language, describing such leadership as organic in nature, rather than mechanistic. In lay terms, he too, is suggesting intuitive leadership that works from a participative perspective rather than a didactic one. Kanter (2004), as well, reinforces the need and responsibility for leaders to operate in participative fashion.

Other writers and researchers allude to the moral responsibility that accompanies the leadership role (Block, 1996; Etzioni, 1993; Hoyle, 2002b; Sergiovanni, 1992). All of these authors call upon leaders to view their gifts and work in light of accomplishing the common good for higher-level constructs. They argue that leaders have an obligation to think and act in selfless ways, inviting the participation of other stakeholders in the organizations they lead.

Hoyle (2002a) uses the metaphor of love to describe the practice of leadership. He asserts that effective leaders engage in six fundamental practices: visioning, communicating, teamwork, empowering, mentoring, and evaluating. He insists that all six of those constructs should be framed in other-centeredness (love). This conceptualization is not significantly different from the assertions of Covey and Block (noted above).

Howard (1996) likens effective leaders to the skillful musician whose performance *moves* us, regardless of flaws in technical prowess. Howard also observes that all effective leaders understand their followers more fully than their followers understand them. Howard writes:

As with complicated works of art, it's a question of how one reads, senses, or interprets their significance: lots of subtle clues, facts, trends, and stylistic patterns to make sense of – to fold into one's understanding and basis for judgment. It's like flipping prints in a gallery tray to find the one that "speaks" most authentically; like listening to successive recordings of the same opera or aria for that *one* performance which captures the essence of the work. Leaders, if they are to show leadership, must similarly attune themselves to their followers' wishes and ambitions even as leaders attempt to guide or reshape them. Wills calls this compromise, but it is more than that. On the experiential side, it involves the full engagement of one's sensibilities in successive reconstructions under ever-changing, often highly stressful conditions. That is the aesthetic element in leadership: the acuity with which one succeeds or fails in performing that delicate balancing act. (pp. 26-27)

From the quotation above, one can discern that the operationalization of leadership competencies is a very deliberate, though tricky, process. A question fundamental to this study is How are the acquisition and development of those kinds of skills affected in youth?

School Leadership Considerations

A review of literature of the more specific issue of school leadership is now in order. A discussion of leadership in the school setting is best served by reviewing the literature that addresses school reform issues. Most of the literature related to school leadership is written, understandably, from and for the perspective of the adult leaders in school environments. For logical flow, the reader will find the issues related to school leadership below divided into three subdivisions. The Call for School Reform/Improvement sections will quickly provide the basis for current school improvement initiatives. The Nature of Reform section will provide an overview of the prescriptions for reform. The “Who” of Reform section will discuss the players in the school context that have (or have not) been identified in literature as the catalysts for school improvement.

The Call for School Reform/Improvement

Despite a plethora of prescriptions for school improvement over the last 20 years, schools have really not changed all that much - yet. High schools continue to function, for the most part, with an agrarian calendar, with a fracturing of the curriculum into specific content areas, with a set number of equal-length periods in a school day, and with little opportunity for remediation or acceleration. Calls for school reform have consistently been heard from a wide range of concerned citizens and politicians. Herrstein and Murray (1994) note some of the possible dire societal ramifications if the way we educate our children does not evolve into a different model. Presumably, all the

professors of reform have the same objective in mind (even when their respective prescriptions lie at opposite ends of the continuum): all want to assure the highest quality education for all students.

Paradigm shifting has become an assumption in most of the school leadership literature. The reform calls have now taken on a new, and more tangible, form. States, and now the federal government with the *No Child Left Behind* legislation (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2003; Paige, 2002), have moved toward the setting of standards for curriculum and instruction that call for regular and rigorous assessment, usually by means of high stakes testing. The expectations (very high ones) have now been articulated and legislated at the federal level. As well, the consequences for failure are significant for school communities and their leaders (with school choice and administrative commandeering of schools being options for schools that are persistently low performing).

The Nature of Reform

How best to affect school reform and improved performance is the subject of a large body of literature. Some of the literature calls for reform from a production, or technical, perspective. That literature suggests that if the curriculum, pedagogy, and/or measurements are improved then schools will necessarily become more effective and efficient institutions for the transmission and creation of knowledge (Alexander, 2000; National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1996). Some believe that the heart of reform lies in the selection, revision, and implementation of curriculum (Boomer,

Lester, Onore, & Cook, 1992; Costa & Kallick, 2000b; English, 1992; Erickson, 2001, 2002; Strong, 2001). Other reformers call for pedagogical changes to drive schools toward a more meaningful and useful existence (Beck, 1994; Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Jadallah, 1996; Torp & Sage, 2002). As long as seventy years ago Dewey (1933) was arguing for schools to be places that fostered real thinking instead of merely institutions of training in formal discipline. In today's language, that same idea is described as critical thinking (Paul & Elder, 1999, 2001). In addition, some theorists believe that school reform and improvement will be driven by improved classroom management practices (Glasser, 1992).

Others believe that reform will only be significant and lasting when fundamental changes in paradigms are made (Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Snyder, 2000). As mentioned earlier, some insist that schools can only make meaningful and substantive changes if they undergo organizational shifts in thinking (Crowther et al., 2002; DuFour & Eaker, 1992, 1998; Eaker, DuFour, & Burnette, 2002; Garcia & Donmoyer, 2005). Cherryholmes (1988) very deliberately examines the relationship between theory and practice in the educational setting, ultimately positing the need for highly intense and reflective discourse in the education community as to the quality of both. Some point out the need for 21st century schools to attend in a very focused way to planning, people development, program development, and assessment (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Sousa, 2003). Fullan (2005) speaks to the eight elements he believes are required for school reform to be sustainable. Those eight elements are public service with a moral purpose, commitment to changing context at all levels, lateral capacity building through networks,

intelligent accountability and vertical relationships, deep learning, dual commitment to short-term and long-term results, cyclical energizing, and the long lever of leadership.

Some proponents of school reform suggest that improvements in school climate and culture are a sure prescription for school improvement (Bulach, 2001; Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Hoy and Miskel (1996) consider school culture to be the shared norms and shared values of the members of the school community. They go on to define school climate as the feel of the school environment. Quite often, the call for culture and climate improvement in the school house is driven by the underlying premise that schools have failed in their moral obligation to provide a safe and nurturing learning environment for students (Matera, 2001; Sergiovanni, 2000; Sizer & Sizer, 1999).

Some make the case that educators are compelled to address the teaching of moral values to their students and that teaching is most effectively done by those who are responsive to the their students' individual needs (Elkind, 2001; Fullan, 2002; Goleman, 1994). Bolman and Deal (2002) make the case that effective school leaders in the new century must activate the five qualities of focus, passion, wisdom, courage, and integrity in order to provide the kind of teaching and learning environment worthy of the students and communities they serve. They liken the process of educating to a spiritual journey. This debate is often bolstered by the belief that, as educators, we must attend not only to the intellectual stimulation of our students, but to the physical, emotional, and character components of their development as well (Goleman, 1994; Matera, 2001; Sergiovanni, 2000; Sizer & Sizer, 1999).

The “Who” of Reform

An acknowledgement of the need (and the mandate) for school improvement leads logically to the issue of who can make the reforms a reality. Much of the literature calls for school administrators to take the lead in school reform efforts. Hallinger, Leithwood, and Murphy (1993) argue that school leaders can affect reform through the skillful classifying, framing, and defining of the messy problems that face them in the context of the school setting. The campus principal is often cited as the primary catalyst for substantive school reform (Ash & Pearsall, 2000; Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000; LPD Video Journal of Education, 1996; Hausman, Crow, & Sperry, 2000; Taylor, 2002).

The ambiguous and rapidly changing nature of our world, in general, has prompted some to call upon school administrators to become futurists as they fashion educational programming for the citizen of the future (Schoenfeld, 1999; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, and Snyder, 2000; Uchida, Cetron, & McKenzie, 1996). In fact, Kearns and Harvey (2001) suggest that unless school leaders become effective prognosticators of the global changes afoot, they will become victims of those changes. In leading schools toward meeting ever-changing social demands, Fullan (1998) advises school leaders to respect the naysayers, to form new alliances with previously disregarded parties, to manage the systems both emotionally and rationally, and to continue to fight for lost causes that represent the most fundamental and right elements of education.

A number of reformers insist that substantive reform can only take place as a collaborative effort (Alvoid, 2000; Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; DuFour & Eaker, 1998;

DuFour, Eaker, & DuFour, 2005); Hord & Czerwinski, 2000; Neuman and Simmons, 2000). Lightfoot (1987) studied six schools across the nation who had reputations for “goodness” and found that all effectively empowered a broad cross-section of stakeholders with the ability to make and implement substantive decisions.

Teachers are also cited as catalysts for reform (Caine & Caine, 2000; Crowther et al., 2002). Barth (1990) extends upon the idea of teachers assuming more of a leadership role in school reform efforts by suggesting that the school become not just a community of learners but a community of leaders. He makes a very strong case for changing from the management-labor paradigm assumed by principals and teachers to one of collegial collaboration with the student needs in mind. Sergiovanni (1990) describes this process of giving teachers the tools they need to effectively lead the school in a collaborative manner as empowerment (giving them the authority they need to make decisions), enablement (giving them the resources they need), and enhancement (giving them transformative support as they assume a more active leadership role on campuses). In later work, Sergiovanni (1992) goes on to describe this empowerment process as one of bartering, building, bonding, and binding between and among all the adults on school campuses. Lipman (1997), in an ethnographic study of reform efforts that included teacher empowerment, concluded that pervasive and substantive reform will never succeed unless and until the need for such reform becomes internalized by teachers themselves, instead of being mandated from outside the campus setting. Lipman argues that the social change desired is being held hostage pending individualized change in the

beliefs of the adults that make school related decisions in relation to culture development and power sharing.

The concept of schools becoming learning organizations, or learning communities has been advocated by numerous researchers and thinkers (Bielaczyc & Collins, 1999; Bierema, 1999; Costa & Kallick, 2000b; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning, 2000; Morrissey et al., 1999; Senge et al., 2000; Shultz, 1999). DuFour and Eaker (1998) and DuFour, Eaker, and DuFour (2005) provide a comprehensive overview of how best to transform schools into professional learning communities, espousing that model as the most appropriate one for affecting student achievement. Sergiovanni (1999) asserts that one of the primary challenges for principals is to put the processes in place, then foster the transition of schools into communities of learners. Eaker, DuFour, and Burnette (2002) suggest the same. Azzara (2001) takes the idea one step further in encouraging principals to treat their school community as family. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) point to some of the inherent problems that will be faced in attempting to create more collaborative learning communities (balkanization and contrived collegiality are a couple of notable examples).

What is conspicuously absent from much of the reform literature is the role that students can (should?) play. To reiterate Gardner's (1995) and Kelley's (1992) thoughts, effective leadership can only exist where there is choice and buy-in among the followership. In this case, that followership is the student body. And, student leaders have significant influence on the student body.

Student Leadership Considerations

The research on student leadership is limited and surprisingly more dated than I expected. Also, there was very little found in the way of conceptual models by which to study the construct of student leadership. Two related fields, that of gifted and talented education and that of character education provided some degree of relevant research as both attend to the issue of student leadership. As will be shown later, student leaders are often identified as gifted children and rightfully so. However, gifted children are often assumed to be leaders (a flawed assumption). Consequently, while some literature in the gifted and talented field is relevant, certainly not all will apply.

Character education is a developing field of study. The issue of student leadership also crops up often in this literature, so much so that the tendency can become one of melding the two issues into one. In speaking to the issue of character, Costa and Kallick (2000) note that:

Abilities alone are dry and dormant. Passions, motivation, sensitivities, and values all play a role in bringing intelligent behavior to life. Defining intelligence as a matter of ability, without honoring all the other elements that enliven it, fails to capture its human spark. The habits of mind express a character-centered view of intelligence that honors the role of temperament and individual differences. In contrast to an ability-centered view, the habits of mind view intelligence as dispositional. A disposition is a propensity to act in a certain way. Viewing intelligence dispositionally says that intelligence is expressed as characteristic patterns of intellectual behavior in everyday situations. (p. 53)

Their “character-centered” view captures the essence of the connection between character education and student leadership. However, please be reminded that this study is not about character education; rather, it is a study of the organizational impact of student leadership. Thus, only the character education literature that directly relates to issues of student leadership will be cited.

The discussion of student leadership that follows will be divided into general constructs to help provide a framework for the reader. First, the issue of the social development of student leaders will be addressed under the heading of Student Leadership Development by Social Happenstance. This section will reference the assumption of leadership roles by students as a function of socialization. Next, research and writings focused on the identification of student leaders and attempts to measure student leadership will be reviewed in the section titled Identifying and Measuring Student Leadership. Following, in the section titled Programmatic Development of Student Leadership, will be a discussion of programs and curriculum that have been designed to affect the development of student leaders. The final section, The Role of Student Leadership in School Reform, will review literature detailing student leadership activity in school improvement efforts.

How then do we best define the concept of student leadership? Fertman and van Linden (1999) describe leaders as individuals who are independent thinkers, effective communicators, and facilitators for others in understanding and acting on their own beliefs. These researchers insist on the assumption that leadership is a learnable construct with attendant skills and attitudes that can be developed. Goleman (2002) also insists

that the competencies of leadership “can be learned by any leader, at any point” (p. 101). Costa and Kallick (2000) suggest that student leadership can be viewed as a character-centered rather than ability-centered “disposition” toward the practice of intelligent behavior, which they call “habits of mind”.

Fertman and van Linden (1999) suggest that student leadership development goes through three stages. First is the Awareness stage in which youth come to the realization of personal leadership potential and leadership ability. The second stage is the Interaction stage. During this phase young leaders begin to intuitively develop their leadership and interpersonal skills through the day-to-day interactions with other youth in settings that range from one-to-one to group and team environments. The third developmental stage identified is called the Mastery stage in which the young leaders actually begin to affect influence upon others with cognitive deliberation. They begin to purposefully apply their leadership skills and attributes with deliberation and forethought.

The concepts related to transformational and transactional leadership can be applied to student leadership just as they are to adult leadership. Fertman and van Linden (1999) suggest that student leaders activating the transformational leadership qualities value the participation and contributions of others, have the ability to understand different perspectives, willingly take sound advice, are capable of seeing the contexts of situations, actively test their decisions, work to develop themselves, extricate meaningful lessons from their experiences, are process cognizant, and selflessly share power and the “spotlight.” These researchers contend that student leaders working in the transactional realm, on the other hand, are focused on problem-solving, make unilateral decisions, are

guided strongly by standards in their decision-making, work to develop their own decision-making skills, are task- and product-oriented, and have take-charge natures.

Student Leadership Development by Social Happenstance

A study of student leadership necessarily entails some attention to the issue of social development. The longstanding nature-versus-nurture debate in relation to leadership is well documented (Dickmann et al., 2004; Wright, 2004). The degree to which students are born with intuitive leadership skills and how those competencies are intentionally developed in students is related to the context of social development. And, context can be everything (Gladwell, 2002; Lewis, Amini, & Lannon, 2000).

Learning how to act and what to believe is one of the fundamental needs for humans as they develop from infancy through adulthood. The field of developmental psychology informs the issue of how student leaders come to understand themselves, their beliefs, and their attendant responsibilities to their lifeworlds. Van Linden and Fertman (1998) speak to the issue of how youth develop fundamental beliefs about right and wrong in the context of family, community, school, and work. The early childhood context of Nelson Mandela provides a powerful case study of these very thoughts (see Mandela, 1994). These social influences play an important role in human development in a remarkable array of subtleties and nuances (Forgas & Williams, 2001; Miller, 2002).

The case is made by some that leadership development is, in part, a function of social development. Gardner (1995) argues from a cognitive perspective that the construct of leadership is a socially *and* genetically transmitted phenomenon (somewhat

like morphic fields) in which humans, as primates, assume four predispositions. The first is the notion that primates naturally organize into hierarchies that have clear dominance relationships among group societal members (see also Oshry, 1995). Secondly, our primate heritage predisposes within us the proclivity to imitate. Gardner further notes that the socialization of human children is marked by two more predispositions. Young children develop rather quickly a sense of self. Also, young children develop an appreciation of how one is similar to other individuals. Gardner believes these four early socialization features engender within humans, from an early age, the intuitively understood notion of leadership.

Tightly aligned to the issue of social development is the impact that life circumstances have on that development. Prosperity or poverty, tragedy or triumph, have significant impact on the social development of children (and adults, for that matter). Ramey (1991) discusses how the events and circumstances of life tend to mold leaders of all ages. He speaks to the effect personal circumstances (like family) have on the development of personal integrity, relational integrity, vocational integrity, and one's commitment to the community. Like Gardner (1995), Ramey also notes the isolating effect of leadership and the importance of familial relationships in coping with that component of leadership. Bennis and Thomas (2002) also discuss the impact of environment and circumstances on the development of leadership.

The effect of the family on social learning is also a powerful influence on the development of youth in all facets, and especially so in the realm of leadership development. In relation to the familial influence on social learning, Etzioni (1993)

comments at length on the importance of the transmission of social mores, such as responsibility, to our children. He strongly suggests that the primary vehicle of this transmission of values is wrapped up in the business of parenting. His view is that children learn most of what is important about socially responsible living through their parents. Etzioni argues that this can, and should, be done through parents (or primary caregivers) and cannot be suitably or effectively done through institutions like childcare centers. Regarding these socially transmitted values he writes:

We mean by character the psychological muscles that allow a person to control impulses and defer gratification, which is essential for achievement, performance, and moral conduct. The core values, which need to be transmitted from generation to generation, contain moral substances that those with the proper basic personality can learn to appreciate, adapt, and integrate into their lives: hard work pays, even in an unfair world; treat others with the same basic dignity with which you wish to be treated (or face the consequences); you feel better when you do what is right than when you evade your moral precepts. (p. 91)

Goleman (1994) also articulates the power of familial influence on development of socially acceptable behaviors and beliefs in children. He insists that emotional intelligence is largely grounded in how effective parents are in teaching socially acceptable behaviors, beliefs, and responsibility to their children. Goleman notes the importance of parental attention to the fostering of confidence, curiosity,

intentionality, self-control, relational skills, communication skills, and cooperativeness to their children. Many of the items of the list just provided are frequently cited as leadership competencies.

Meriweather and Karnes (1989a) studied the perceptions of parents in relation to the development of leadership abilities in their children. Using a 16-item survey of open-ended questions that was administered to 73 parents over 15 states, the researchers clustered the responses by similarity, and categorized the clusters to seek generalizable conclusions. Parent respondents clearly saw the development of leadership in their own children as a composite of social development phases and opportunities. They saw the family as a primary molder of underlying belief structures. However, school, church, and community institutions were identified by parents as the venues most likely to provide leadership opportunities for the development of leadership skills in their children. Most of the respondents indicated that they had personally been beneficiaries of formal leadership training opportunities allowing one to infer that the knowledge and skills gained from such training would be transferred and modeled through the family structure.

Brazelton and Greenspan (2000) make the powerful argument, from their respective pediatric and psychiatric fields, that children need several things from a socialization perspective to develop into emotionally healthy adults. They believe that every child needs a warm, intimate relationship with a primary caregiver over years of time (not just weeks or months). For the healthy social, mental, and emotional development of children these Harvard researchers prescribe an ongoing nurturing relationship with an adult, physical protection and monitoring, developmentally

appropriate experiences tailored with individual differences in mind, limit-setting with structure and clear expectations, and stable home and community environments. While most of their prescription is not surprising, what is notable is the adding of their voices to an increasing chorus (Etzioni and Goleman are examples referenced above) of scholars who are trumpeting the need for parents to actively, meaningfully, and deliberately take responsibility for the positive social, intellectual, and emotional development of their children. What does this have to do with leadership? Emotional intelligence and well-being is repeatedly cited as a common attribute of effective leaders.

Kurdek and Fine (1994) studied samples of youth to discern the impact of family acceptance and family control on the social development of children. In the study, they assessed the relation between adjustment and perceptions of both family acceptance and family control in two samples of young adolescents, one with n=851 and the other with n=269. In the first sample, dimensions of adjustment were included self-reports of psychosocial competence and problems with self-regulation. In the second sample, adjustment was indexed by peer ratings of likeability. They concluded that there is a higher level of social adjustment in children from families that exhibit both high acceptance and high control of behavior. As well, psychological competence was found to be successively higher with higher levels of family control. Conversely, low levels of family control were indicative of many self-regulation problems in children (a concept that is reinforced by Goleman, 1994). Springen (2000) also reinforces the concept of the power of familial influence in social development.

Herrstein and Murray (1994) have drawn significant attention to the influence of socialization on youth by the culture in which they are raised. Using the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, these researchers made a number of empirical observations about the intellectual trends, and consequent partitioning, of American society. While these researchers received criticism from different quarters by noting ethnic differences in scores of cognitive assessment, a careful reading of their research and conclusions suggests that the ethnic and socioeconomic variations in data have much more to do with culture and environment than with genetic considerations. The authors note the implications for the social developmental issues in children and adolescents of temperament, civility, citizenship, intellect, occupational choice, and legitimacy. There are obvious leadership-related considerations in their research, both from operational and a developmental perspective.

Brokaw (1998) paints a poignant picture of an entire generation of Americans who assimilated important values and a sense of communal responsibility from the familial cultures in which they were raised. His work reads like the embodiment of Etzioni's arguments regarding social responsibility (Etzioni, 1993). Brokaw vividly describes (with case studies) how ordinary people accomplished extraordinary feats during their military service in World War II in response to their culturally embedded social beliefs. The case studies include folks from the following walks of life: priest, school principal, lumber yard owner, teacher, governor, senator, real estate agent, and many more, both male and female. His book is a primer on the power of culture, through its generational leaders, to transmit strongly and commonly held beliefs in fundamental

values like democracy, freedom, individual dignity, and self-determination. This work became a national bestseller. Although Brokaw made not attempt to identify and record the cases of anti-examples, his work provides valuable insight into the cultural and social influence upon the perpetuation of norms and mores valued by communities, both micro and macro.

As well, one cannot consider social developmental issues without paying heed to the effects that institutions have on developing children and adolescents. Avolio (1994) believes that leaders judge the world based on their own set of internal standards, allowing them a basis for making fundamental changes in the ways systems operate (sometimes not necessarily doing the “right” thing). In relation to these human systems, educational systems have profound consequences for the development of those internal standards in developing student leaders. Kozol (2000) points to the educational, thus societal, inequities that are imposed upon some children in the United States purely as a function of their community and educational circumstances. His qualitative study of the educational provisions for children in the South Bronx of New York, a pocket of despair, strikes a stark contrast to the teaching and learning environment of children in the suburbs of most American cities. These societal and institutional idiosyncrasies most certainly have an impact on the psyche of developing student leaders. His qualitative work serves as an excellent complimentary work to the quantitative work and subsequent conclusions of Herrstein and Murray (1994).

Other researchers point to the power of institutions (like churches and schools) to influence the social development of children (Bereiter, 1994; Hunter, 2000; Miller, 2002; National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1999; Scales & Leffert, 1999).

Meriweather and Karnes (1989b) developed and administered a survey to student leaders to gain insight into the perceptions of the youth on a variety of leadership-related issues. The study was conducted with attendees at a summer residential Leadership Studies Program for students who were currently in grades seven through twelve. Interestingly, the authors of this study failed to report the number of total participants in the study. Responses of the students indicated an intuitive understanding of the elements that impact the development and exercise of leadership skills such as parental influence, communications proficiencies, technological influence, and symbolism. However, the respondents to the survey seemed to have a fairly narrow view of leadership as most framed their responses in terms of leadership being mostly aligned with elected or political positions.

Intertwined in the issue of social learning is the construct of Roles Theory and individual identity. Finding one's identity is a fundamental driver in social development (Blatner, 1991; Gee, 2001; Montgomery, 1998). As children learn how and how not to act socially, they cognitively begin to identify patterns and make connections in search of how best to assimilate into and contribute to the local (or global) society. In effect, children search cognitively for the way to "fit in" into their environment, the role(s) they are to play (also see Gardner, 1995).

In a large mixed method study Roach et al.,(1999) found that role assumption is a primary driver in the development of youth leadership, especially in at-risk environments. This researcher and her team studied 120 youth-based organizations in 34 regional areas from Massachusetts to Hawaii, using both quantitative and qualitative means, collecting data from 30,000 young people between the ages of 8 and 28. They found that the development and practice of leadership in youth does not necessarily fit the adult models most often studied and described in the literature. Rather, the study suggests that young leaders constantly negotiate their roles within their varied groups of peers, family, and institutions. The researchers posit that the unusual nature of student leadership in relation to adult leadership is a phenomenon that is, as yet, largely unrecognized in scholarly circles. This conclusion by Roach is consistent with the Roles Theory premise that, rather than an individual (or a few individuals) leading a group, members assume different but equally valuable roles in the context of the group, collaboratively working toward a desired end.

Other researchers provide empirical support to the idea that, as humans, we assume and portray certain roles that we feel compelled to fulfill (Blatner, 1991; Montgomery, 1998). Sometimes individuals assume a role for the purpose of accomplishing some particular end (Solomon et al., 1985). Sometimes those roles are portrayed out of the need for self-actualization (Kipper, 1991; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1992). And, sometimes those roles are assumed in the interest of finding one's niche of contribution to the system or community to which one belongs (Zigurs & Kozar, 1994).

Whatever the reason for assuming a particular role, or roles, the subject of leadership is implicitly connected to the construct as it has everything to do with social interaction.

Identifying and Measuring Student Leadership

Now let us turn our attention to the issue of measuring student leadership. Measuring and/or quantifying student leadership is every bit as difficult as it is to quantify or measure adult leadership. In fact, based on the limited research, comparatively speaking, measuring student leadership may be even more difficult than assessing adult leadership. Oakland, Falkenberg, and Oakland (1996) reviewed comparative measures used for the examination of leadership in children and youth as compared to measures of adult leadership. They concluded that measures of children and youth leadership are inadequate, unreliable, and lack validity, to date. They assert the need for more effectively designed measures that target power and influence, behavior management, personal attributes, and interpersonal prowess.

Some researchers have attempted to measure student leadership through personality attributions. Karnes, Chauvin, and Trant (1984) used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) with intellectually gifted students attending a high school specifically designed to serve gifted students. Using quantitative methods they found little differences in those students who held leadership positions in relation to those who did not. However, they did find that firstborn children were more likely to hold leadership positions, as were males.

Karnes and McGinnis (1995), in a replication study, examined the views of student leaders' conceptualizations of leadership by having them respond to queries that

required their prediction of what leadership will look like in the future. Using open-ended questions in a qualitative format, students attending a summer workshop on leadership responded to questions about the future look of leadership, of individual opportunities for leadership, of leadership models and programming, of gender roles in leadership, and of technological implications for leadership. In relation to the original study conducted some seven years earlier, the authors concluded that student responses pointed to a heightened need for accountability by leaders in the current environment. Students in the latter study viewed leadership mostly in terms of career in contrast to the findings of the previous study, which seemed to focus on leadership in relation to civic, religious, or community organizations. Another notable difference in the two studies was the implied fear in the latter study of the controlling effects of technology by respondents.

Schneider et al., (1999) explored, in a longitudinal study of 242 high school student leaders, the personality, interests, motivation, behavior, self-rated skills, and academic ability of these youth leaders. High school teachers evaluated the student leaders. Variables from each of these constructs proved to be significant and consistent predictors of effective leadership. As well, linear combinations of predictors from the different domains were strong leadership predictors.

Riley and Karnes (1994b) studied the self-perception of 34 intellectually gifted elementary school student leaders who were participating in a weeklong enrichment program. The researchers used the Leadership Strength Indicator, a 40-item self-report instrument designed to measure students' self-assessments of their own leadership abilities. The research team found significant results in two areas. They found that

female student leaders in that age group were significantly more sympathetic than were male counterparts and that females were more conscientious than were the males.

In another study of the self-perception of student leaders Abel and Karnes (1993) compared the leadership potential of rural and suburban student leaders. Also using the Leadership Strengths Indicator, the team compared the responses of 49 rural and 98 suburban intellectually gifted students ranging from Grade 6 to 12. They found no significant difference in the self-perceptions of the two subgroups, but prescribed the need for leadership development programming for both groups as the authors expressed disappointment in the general scores of both groups.

The effort of some researchers has been directed at defining the psychological types most correlated to assumption of student leadership roles. Karnes, Deason, and D'Ilio (1993) found that students who exhibit high levels of leadership competency also enjoy high levels of self-actualization. Using the Leadership Skills Inventory and the Reflections of Self by Youth (ROSY) instruments, both quantitative instruments, they studied 95 students (34 boys and 61 girls) in Grades 6 to 12. In this study, the researchers found strong correlations between the two instruments used, specifically in the areas of speech communication skills, values clarification, decision making skills, group dynamic skills, personal skills, and planning skills. Although no definition of leadership was provided by the authors, the skills set measured by the two instruments is indicative of the proficiencies associated with leadership.

Some research has been directed at assessing the leadership proficiencies and proclivities of gifted students. Karnes (1991), perhaps the most prolific of student

leadership researchers, notes the frequency of the giftedness-leadership connection. Frequently, an assumption of leadership skill and potential is made for students who have an identified giftedness in other areas (Karnes & Bean, 1996). Leadership is often written into district and state gifted and talented plans as a specific area of giftedness. Smith and Smith (1991) found that a program designed for developing the leadership skills of gifted adolescents resulted in improved willingness to respond to others, improved ability to influence others, improved group participation levels, and improved self assurance. Gifted students have been found to experience slightly higher levels of self-actualization than other students (Karnes & D'Ilio, 1990). Gifted students quite often assume (or are drafted into) leadership roles whether or not they have a demonstrated leadership propensity (Bireley & Genshaft, 1991; Karnes and Bean, 1996).

Other researchers have chosen to address how environmental forces impact the leadership ability and behaviors of student leaders. The home environment has a powerful impact on the development of leadership skills in youth (Karnes & D'Ilio, 1989). Karnes and D'Ilio (1989) used the Family Environment Scale to study 76 students attending a one week leadership development program. These students were all adolescents who had been identified for participation by adults at their respective schools. The researchers identified discrepancies in the perceptions of the students and their parents, particularly with the mothers. The authors prescribed activities that enhance independence and expressiveness in the home setting. Also the researchers recommend purposefully provided opportunities for students to read extensively in areas such as current events and the biographical/autobiographical works about influential leaders.

McCullough, Ashbridge, and Pegg (1994) studied two groups, 79 students considered to be leaders and 124 students not necessarily considered leaders, the comparison group. The leadership group was chosen by guidance counselors and high school teachers; the nonleadership group was chosen in pseudo-random method from three high schools in the same geographic area as the leadership group. The students were asked to respond to a questionnaire that consisted of questions related to birth order, affluence, family structure, and aspirations. Of the 203 participants, 75 percent were from families in which the biological families lived together. Socioeconomic status was based on family wealth: 38 percent reported above average family wealth, 62 percent reported average or below average affluence. The researchers found that adolescent student leaders tend to have a higher internal locus of control, to come from two-parent homes, and to have more prestigious career goals than students who were not leaders. The leadership constructs held by parents have a powerful impact on the development of student leaders as well (Meriweather & Karnes, 1989).

Whorton and Karnes (1992) examined the effect of parenting behaviors on the development of student leadership. They measured demonstrated leadership in comparison to the parenting styles of Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating. These researchers concluded that the Delegating model of parenting contributes most effectively toward the development of leadership proficiency in their children.

Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway (2000) studied 112 high school student leaders on sports teams who perceived that their parents were exhibitors of transformational leadership behaviors. A model was developed to measure how effective, satisfying, and

effort-evoking student leaders were in the eyes of their peers and coaches. The researchers concluded that students of parents who display transformational leadership behaviors were rated to be more effective, satisfying, and effort-evoking leaders.

Riley and Karnes (1994a) studied 89 young socio-economically disadvantaged student leaders ranging in age from 10-15 years using the Leadership Strengths Indicator. The only finding of significance was that the level of participation in boys in the area of group activities was higher than that of girls. Some research indicates that participation in uniformed groups (like Scouts or ROTC) is likely to be a beneficial factor in the development of psychological competence in young student leaders (Chou, 1999).

The focus of some research in student leadership has been in relation to gender and minority impact. Karnes and D'Ilio (1989a) used the High School Personality Questionnaire with 95 secondary school students attending the Leadership Studies Program. They found that girls scored significantly higher than boys in the areas of emotional stability. As well girls outscored boys in dominance and independence.

In another gender related qualitative study of 15 female college leaders, Romano (1996) found that the females all related personally to models of strong women leaders. As well, these female student leaders found their leadership involvement to be personally self-actualizing (a finding contrary to some other studies cited by the author). Karnes, Bean, and McGinnis (1994) found that the most influential elements impacting the development of young female student leaders included immediate family members. They also found that student government provided the greatest opportunities for leadership skill application, that shyness was considered the biggest obstacle, and that Jesus Christ

was viewed as the most frequently cited exemplary model of leadership. As well, these researchers found that young female student leaders believed more women and minorities would assume leadership responsibilities in society in the future (see also Karnes & Bean, 1993).

Lavant and Terrell (1994) concluded from their study of minority student leaders that more opportunities and leadership developmental activities for minority student leaders will benefit not only those students but also the subgroups that they represent.

Programmatic and Purposeful Student Leadership Development

Maxwell (1995) speaks at length to the importance of the identification and development of potential leaders. Priestland and Hanig (2005) provide a compelling case study (in their accounting of a seminal leadership development effort by British Petroleum) of the difficulty of creating a purposeful and effective leadership development program, at the very lowest levels of leadership, to the end of ensuring an effective and focused organization. As interest in the topic of student leadership has increased in recent years the development of programming and curriculum designed specifically to address the development of student leadership has increased. Educating young leaders, or prospective leaders, has become an industry in itself over the last few decades. Efforts to address the issue formally have gained momentum and support (Foster, 1981; Kemp, 1999). The effectiveness, and objectives, of these programs and curriculum vary widely. Karnes and Stephens (1999) note that opportunities within the school and community setting, as well as within religious settings, should be made available for students to

assume roles of responsibility and decision making, in order to refine their leadership skills. Van Linden and Fertman (1998) report that, in light of heightened attention to the issue student leadership development efforts have become more numerous and more effective in recent years.

Leventhal (1999) argues that classroom teachers should incorporate development of leadership components into their regular instruction. He believes this is important for the improvement of occupational skills, for the development of leadership skills through shop-laboratory experiences, and to foster improved self-image and interpersonal skills. Experience-based learning is recommended by others (Dewey, 1938; Engler, 2000). Fertman and Long (1990) go further by suggesting that student leadership development should not be limited to just some students, but rather, made available for all students to access. The concept of leadership skills development for all students, not just some, is also promoted by Goldstein and his colleagues (1997). Leventhal (1999) cites the following organizations as being curriculum providers of leadership development materials: Junior Achievement Program, Toastmasters, Rotary Club, DeMolay International, Kiwanis, International Order of the Rainbow for Girls, and 4-H School Enrichment Program. Karnes and Stephens (1999) identify other organizations that propose to develop student leadership. These include Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and the Roets Leadership Training Program (Roets, 1997). Another internationally known youth leadership development program is the Hugh O'Brien Foundation. Chan (2000) cites the Creative Leadership Training Program in Hong Kong, a program designed for developing the leadership skills of gifted students.

Karnes and Bean (1995) are examples of those who have developed a curriculum by which young leaders, with adult mentoring help, can carefully engage in reflective consideration of the processes of leadership development. Long et al., (1996) posit a three-phased process of leadership development programming that moves from conceptualizing and empowering to planning and finally to implementing. Evans and Evans (2002) describe a Leadership Workshop in which students are exposed to a quick overview of leadership styles and definitions, examine leadership characteristics, engage in an express lane version metacognitive consideration of leadership, and finally are exposed to some application of leadership skills opportunities via problem solving and situational scenarios. The National Association of Secondary School Principals also offers curriculum, with specific lessons and activities, for the development of student leaders (NASSP, 1998). The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration offers curriculum designed specifically for the activation of student leaders in the interest of reducing use and abuse of alcohol in youth (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 2000). Parker (1983) provides curriculum that focuses on cognition, problem solving, interpersonal communication, and decision-making skills. Hardin (2003) explored the impact of short-duration training sessions on the perceptions of students regarding their disposition toward a servant-leadership model (concluding that student leaders can be positively impacted by abbreviated and deliberate leadership curricula).

Karnes and Meriweather (1989) add that any curriculum for student leadership development should include active student participation in the formulation and

implementation of objectives. They espouse letting developing student leaders gain real-life experience by acting in leadership kinds of ways with leadership kinds of responsibilities.

Much of the effort to develop leadership in youth is couched in the literature related to character education and service learning. Fertman and van Linden (1999), using the youth leadership development stages of awareness, interaction, and mastery as a framework, espouse the purposeful development of transformational leadership qualities in students. They provide ideas and activities designed to give student leaders meaningful and relevant experiences in the application of leadership skills. Students identified as student leaders are often called upon to facilitate efforts to provide character education (Harned, 1999). As well, student leaders are often identified as standard bearers and models in attempts to institute service-learning components into the school setting (Hinck & Brandell, 1999). Jones and Stoodley (1999) propose the involvement of student leaders in developing a school-community based approach that they call Communities of Caring, aimed at creating caring and respectful school environments that reinforce positive values. Some observers are recommending that leadership development initiatives in these areas begin at even earlier levels (Sherrill, 2000). Close and Lechman (1997) espouse the use of student leaders as educators and facilitators of strategies in conflict resolution, not only for other students, but for adults as well.

Some of the educational literature and curriculum on student leadership has been directly premised on gender. Karnes and Bean (1995) provide a focused attempt to address leadership education for young women in girls by providing 20 case studies of

female leaders. They note the contributions of these female leaders, and then provide leadership skills development proposals for aspiring female student leaders.

Some researchers argue that more frequent and more realistic opportunities for the demonstration of leadership skills should be afforded young leaders in developmental stages (Des Marais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000; Purnell, 2000). Parker (1983) argues that leadership training models for youth must include intellectual and creative skill development, using holistic approaches that activate application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluative processes. Des Marais, Yang, and Farzanehkia (2000) suggest that many leadership development programs and curriculum aimed at student leaders are lacking in opportunities for realistic decision-making, planning, and, more importantly, accountability. These authors suggest that an important learning element of leadership development is that of learning accountability for failed initiatives or unfruitful outcomes. They argue that errors and blunders are an important part of the freedom and responsibility that is necessarily a part of meaningful leadership experience.

Feldhusen and Kennedy (1988) call for a five-pronged process to prepare gifted leaders for their anticipated leadership roles in society: extensive experience in predicting, planning, and extrapolating; explicit leadership training; consistently designed applications for thinking skills; real-world experience in problem identification and solving; deliberate study of major concepts, themes, issues, and ideas.

MacGregor (1999, 2001) provides an overview of the common components of effective student leadership development programs. Some of those common components include self-assessment and reflection, skill building activities, problem solving,

addressing intercultural issues, service learning elements, servant leadership concepts, experiential learning, mentoring, community involvement, public policy debate, targeted training and development, incentives and recognition, portfolio development, and capstone experiences. MacGregor goes on to list other components of successful youth leadership education programs. These include: large contingent of involved youth, making leadership experiences authentic and meaningful, having high expectations of the youth involved, asking for and embracing youth perceptions, be flexible and timely in the provision of leadership experiences, have clearly stated goals, sensitivity to diversity, and secure organizational support for the program.

Roach (1999) found, in a review of youth leadership programs in relation to adult models, emerging youth leadership differs from established measures and theories drawn from adults. Roach notes the strong connections to cognitive psychology and organizational sociology for youth leadership development initiatives, and underscores the importance of adaptation, situational engagement, roles awareness, and real-world application of knowledge. Roach also makes the appropriate connection to the need for applying the most current research on cognitive processes (brain-based teaching and learning) in formulating and implementing these initiatives.

There are those who believe that student leaders have the skills, the influence, and the inclination to become more active and productive players in transforming schools and communities into better places (Ackerm & Boccia, 1997). The ideas and recommendations of these authors will be discussed further in the next section.

Goldman and Newman (1998) provide a guidance for empowering students in schools to take more, and more meaningful, leadership roles in transforming schools into powerful cultures of learning and caring (more about the ideas of these authors in the next section). Their assertions cut to the heart of this study. One driving question is, What role(s) can/do student leaders play in efforts to reform schools?

The Role of Student Leadership in School Reform

Despite the steady drum beat for school reform and the vast number of prescriptions for affecting that reform, relatively few thinkers on the topic have identified students as significant players in the attempt to reform schools. Sergiovanni (1996) is an exception in that he identifies students as a key ingredient in the formula, noting that schools should be communities of learning with a central language, a coherent curriculum, a partnership of empowered players that include students, teachers, and parents, a broad range of services for children, and effective means for measuring and monitoring progress. He calls these schools with “character”.

Newman (1991) advocates the involvement of students in the effort to reform schools. He believes four factors are critical in gaining the meaningful involvement of the students. First, he notes that students should be engaged early in the process of school improvement and that the focus on school improvement must be maintained. Second, and very relevant to the issue of student leadership, he cites the importance of understanding and honoring the political realities. Student leaders hold powerful sway over the student body and must be included in school reform efforts. Third, the student-

teacher relationship must be one of cooperation and collaboration rather than one that is superior-subordinate in nature. Finally, the author asserts that all players in the reform effort must feel that their involvement is meaningful, that it makes a difference, and that it is appreciated.

Goldman and Newman (1998) not only promote the idea of student involvement in school reform, they provide helpful implementation guidelines for activating that student talent. These authors propose that school leaders should purposefully involve student leaders in problem solving around the real issues of the school. They promote the direct involvement of the campus student leaders in the decision-making processes. The authors cite student benefits from more self-directed learning, teamwork, communication, and creative thinking in relation to the application of the students' leadership skills. The authors declare, "If a school wishes to make the transition to quality, it is essential that the power of positive student thinking be unleashed." (p. 98)

Ackerm and Boccia (1997) are other thinkers who espouse the active involvement of student leaders in the reform process. As editors, they have assembled a compendium of examples of successful incorporation of student leaders in the remaking of schools. They note the need for structured and purposeful training of student leadership skills. They cite the need for student leader involvement in navigating the difficult issues related to multicultural education and social action. The authors also note the powerful impact of student leaders on the peer mediation process.

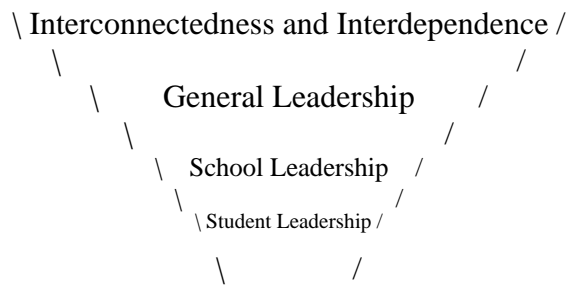
Matera (2001) chronicles how an Illinois high school that had slipped into a pattern of chaotic and unhealthy student behavior was turned around by a small cadre of teachers and large group of students committed to making a difference. One teacher noted, “We were all learning as we went along. The more we transferred responsibility to the kids and took the burden from the teachers the better it seemed to work” (p. 107). Nine student leaders led the charge in developing a culture of students teaching and learning dignity, class, and personal character to each other in the high school setting. The transformational results in this high school were remarkable.

One can reference the positive societal outcomes that are possible when students activate positive leadership attributions by considering the rippling effect of positive influence described in the movie, *Pay It Forward*. In this feature length film, a young middle school boy trapped in a less than nurturing environment chooses to try to affect positive outcomes in his lifeworld by influencing others. He draws other students and adults in his sphere of influence into a world of others-centeredness by engaging in unsolicited acts of random kindness, a process he called “paying it forward.” The movie tracks the rippling effect of leadership-by-kindness, and its subsequent community-wide impact, throughout a metropolitan community (Bohm’s ideas of implicate wholeness, interconnectedness, and interdependence and Etzioni’s call to leadership by responsible communal behavior seem to run deeply throughout this story).

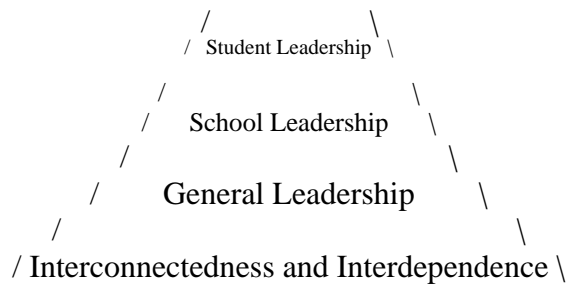
Smith and Park (2003) sum it up well by stating, “In an environment where listening to students is valued and their ideas are acted on, students’ engagement is tangible and their enthusiasm is palpable” (p. 41).

Summary

As introduced at the beginning of this chapter, the relevant constructs in this review of literature were initially presented as an inverted pyramid (again shown below).



Consider now that pyramid turned upright (see graphic below) in order to try to make sense of the importance of the issue of student leadership.



Student leaders are key members in the organizational setting that we call schools. Their actions influence all of the other stakeholders in a school, including the adults who hold leadership positions in the school (those who are generally responsible for school performance and improvement). Badaracco (2002) suggests that “leaders buy time and drill down into the political and technical elements of the problems they face” (p. 178). In relation to this study, those problems center around school reform and the goal of sustainable high performance. Adult school leaders operate from both intuitive and

purposeful leadership constructs as they lead schools toward reform and improvement, thus providing examples (and anti-examples) of leadership effectiveness to the student leaders on their respective campuses. The interplay and reciprocal influence between student and adult leaders on school campuses impact their campuses directly, and their communities, states, nation, and world indirectly. Better understanding the activation of student leadership and the development of student leaders will help inform educators as they continue down the path of school improvement.

Conclusions

A number of conclusions derive from this literature review.

First, although there is a generalized base of research on student leadership, there is a significant shortage of relevant empirical studies focused on how student leadership impacts campus performance or the school as an organization. Consequently, a theoretical-based study of student leadership can help fill a void in the literature that currently exists.

Second, while multiple models exist to describe leadership in general, there is a need in the literature for a clearly articulated, agreed upon conceptual definition of student leadership and for a well-defined construct for student leadership.

Third, there is limited evidence in the literature of the purposeful enlistment of student leaders on high school campuses in relation to school improvement or the leadership culture of the campus.

Fourth, there may be a number of context variables that mediate the relationship between student leadership culture and organizational effectiveness.

Based on the conclusions stated above there is a clear need in the literature for a conceptually based study that develops and tests a model of student leadership and its influence on school organizational behavior and effectiveness.

CHAPTER IV
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

What is student leadership? How is student leadership developed and nurtured? What impact do student leaders have on the organizational behavior and effectiveness of high schools? Can student leaders be enlisted to affect improved campus performance? These questions and others provide the springboard for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore how, through the eyes of high school principals, student leaders impact school organizational effectiveness.

Context of the Study

The Student Leadership Culture (SLC) on a high school campus possibly represents a powerful force which can conceivably be incorporated into the quest for systemic improvement in the interest of creating effectively functioning high schools, responsive to the needs of 21st century students and society (Glickman, 1998; Karnes & Bean, 1995; Karnes & Stephens, 1999).

Why undertake a study of this nature? What in the mind of the researcher would trigger the desire to probe more deeply the impact of student leaders on the performance of high school campuses? The world view of this researcher, as with most others, has been generated and revised over 28 years of service in high schools, four years of teacher

pre-service training, and four years spent in high school as a participant. Having served in roles such as youth minister, teacher (of mathematics, English, health, and industrial trades), coach (of multiple sports, with both genders), athletic director, and principal (in schools ranging in enrollment from 65 to 2700), the researcher has had many and rich opportunities to observe the practical impact of strong student leaders (toward both positive and negative outcomes). This constructivist history has most certainly impacted the thinking of the researcher, from the practitioner's perspective. With the advent of ever-intensifying demands on schools toward higher performance and accountability, this researcher developed a congruently ever-intensifying desire to search for more, better, and different practical and pedagogical strategies to affect improvements on the campuses being served. Subsequently, a rather natural and intuitive interest in the development and impact of student leaders evolved into the desire to study the construct more deeply in some formalized way. This study is the next step in that evolution, but likely not the last.

The SLC conceptual model described in Chapter II was used to examine the impact (or lack thereof) of student leaders on the sample of chosen high school campuses. Campus principals in the sample that indicated interesting variations of SOE in relation to the SLC model were interviewed in an attempt to discern the impact of student leadership.

Research Questions

1. How do high school principals view student leaders in the context of the campus leadership culture?
2. How do high school principals develop/engage/enlist the student leadership component on high school campuses to affect improved campus effectiveness?
3. In what ways do student leaders have an impact on school culture and organizational effectiveness?

Sample

The initial survey response group for the study consisted of 105 principals of public high schools in Texas, campuses of sizes ranging from less than 100 to mega-campuses of over 3000 students. These principals included rural, suburban, and urban principals and represented all regions of the state. The sample selected for subsequent follow-up numbered 22, although only 14 were interviewed as per the reasons explained later. Principals interviewed included nine males and five females; included three Hispanic, one African-American, nine White, and one of mixed ethnicity; were inclusive of a wide range of work experiences; and included a broad spectrum of years of service as a principal (from first-year lead principals to over 35 years as an administrator).

Design of the Study

A grounded theory approach was taken in designing the study. Grounded theory, sometimes known as the constant-comparative method, is based on the notions that theory is grounded in the relationships between the data and the categories into which they are coded, and that the coding and categorization of data is a mutable process throughout the study (Keyton, 2006). While a researcher developed survey instrument was used in the early phases of the study, the survey itself was not designed to generate empirically statistical data. Rather, the survey (described in detail later) was used as a vehicle by which to identify principals (or campuses) of interest. Once identified, follow-up grounded theory tools were deployed to collect and analyze the data in order to develop the clearest understanding thereof.

Throughout the study, the researcher struggled with the tenuous relationship of deploying a survey, which is normally deemed a quantitative tool, in the outset of a qualitative study. The researcher found useful the succinct elaboration of Donalek and Soldwisch (2004) regarding the dichotomy of quantitative versus qualitative research by stating:

Quantitative research is deductive. It presupposes a constant, stable, external reality that is measurable and follows discernible rules of science. Its purpose is to measure some portion of that fixed reality. In contrast, qualitative research is inductive, moving from the perspective of the individual or group to possible wider themes. Qualitative researchers believe that reality is that to which

people pay attention and value. If an individual or group is not thinking about something or doesn't value it, then, at that moment, it has little or no reality, however physically real the object, event, or condition may be. (p. 354)

The research questions in this study lent themselves to this methodology (Kelle, 2001). As a result, the researcher felt compelled to both measure some portion of fixed reality and to discern the reality of that to which the principals and campuses pay attention and value.

A researcher developed survey was sent to the sample, embedded in an e-mail. The survey provided a framework by which campuses of interest could be identified. While the survey may suggest to some a quantitative component to the study, the reader should understand that the intention of the survey was only to collect the self-perceptions of principals about themselves and/or their respective campuses in relation to their commitment to the development and enlistment of student leaders. In effect, the survey was an extension of the qualitative tools by which the researcher could use the data to then tease out principals of interest.

The researcher collected the responses to the survey and coupled them with campus performance data to create a scatter plot. By use of a scatter plot, the researcher then scheduled interviews with the principals of the campuses of interest. The data generated by the survey was a mixture of descriptive data for the campuses pulled from the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) Report, and the self-reporting of the principals regarding their level of Intentionality toward student leadership development and deployment (from the survey). Once identified, the principals of campuses of

interest were then interviewed in person in as many cases as possible (in some cases phone interviews could only be accomplished), to add the depth and richness of qualitative discovery and analysis.

Grounded theory research design was employed to probe the deeper thoughts and motivations of the participants and to more accurately describe the full meaning from the perspectives of both the researcher and the reader. “If you want people to understand better than they otherwise might, provide them information in the form in which they usually experience it” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 120).

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) speak of the researcher as bricoleur, and describe qualitative research as bricolage. A bricoleur, as a qualitative researcher, is someone capable of handling multiple tasks, with a degree of expertise in all, a jack-of-all trades, of sorts. The bricolage is the product that emerges from the works of the bricoleur.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) describe the characteristics of a bricoleur as follows:

- flexible and responsive: a willingness to deploy whatever research strategies, methods or empirical materials are at hand, to get the job done, if new tools have to be invented, or pieced together, the researcher will do this
- technically curious and multi-competent: skilled at using different methods such as interviews, observation, personal documents, etc.
- intellectually informed: reads widely and is knowledgeable about different interpretive paradigms

- reflexive, the bricoleur understands that research is an interactive process shaped by his or her personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, ethnicity...
- writes well: capable of producing a bricolage; a complex, dense, reflexive, collage like creation. (pp. 2-3)

Kelle (2001) states, “Take whatever seems adequate from each paradigm or methodology for your research questions and leave the rest” (p. 22). While this researcher deemed the research questions begging of grounded theory methodology, it should be understood that the researcher must consciously examine which methods will best serve the study (Creswell, 1994; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Data Collection

The collection and analysis of data in a study of this nature are iterative and recursive processes, consistent with grounded theory (Keyton, 2006). A researcher must be cognizant of the evolving nature of the study and the changing contexts of the interview and data collection process. Constantly challenging oneself with questions provides a grounding for the researcher for several reasons. Strauss and Corbin (1998) put it thus:

Asking Questions and Making Theoretical Comparisons

1. Help analysts obtain a grasp on the meaning of events or happenings that might seem otherwise obscure.

2. Help sensitize researchers to possible properties and dimensions that are in the data but remain undiscovered.
3. Suggest further interview questions or observations based on evolving theoretical analysis.
4. Help analysts move more quickly from the level of description to one of abstraction.
5. Counter the tendency to focus too greatly on a single case by immediately bringing analysis up to a more abstract level.
6. Force researchers to examine basic assumptions, their biases, and their perspectives.
7. Force a closer examination of the evolving theory, sometimes resulting in the qualification or altering of the initial framework.
8. Make it more likely that analysts will discover both variation and general patterns.
9. Ensure the likelihood of a more fluid and creative stance toward data analysis.
10. Facilitate the linking and densifying of categories.

Furthermore, the researcher must be ever mindful of the context of the research environment. Lieberman (1995) notes, “Getting closer to school people who are changing their practices presents greater opportunities for understanding the change process – closeness allows for greater depth of understanding of practice...” (p. 3). Lieberman continues, “It is important to recognize that these studies result from a

negotiation between the outsiders and the insiders, the researchers and the researched” (p. 4). That “negotiation” of data collection ensued and is described in the paragraphs that follow.

Permission of each public school superintendent in Texas was requested by the researcher. The request was to study the principals and campuses of the high schools in their respective districts. Currently there are over 1000 public school districts in Texas. By accessing the research portal of the Texas Education Agency (TEA) web site and tapping the superintendent e-mail database, the contact e-mail addresses of the superintendents were collected. Understanding the time demands of school superintendents the researcher sent a succinct e-mail message to each superintendent regarding the nature of the study, accompanied by a request for permission to study in their respective districts. Of the 1025 requests made 29 declined the researcher access for study within their districts. Approximately 150 of the permission request e-mails to superintendents were undeliverable. Undeliverable messages were expected as per the experience of other researchers who have used e-mail for research purposes (Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002). Those superintendents granting permission were also provided the option of receiving the findings of the study upon completion.

In surveying the high school principals the researcher again made use of the public e-mail contact database at the web site of the TEA. As the focus of the study is related to public school performance, principals from private schools, charter schools, and alternative education campuses were excluded from the sample set. Also removed from the contact database were the campuses to which access was denied by the

superintendent. Furthermore, due to the fluidity and attrition rate of high school principals, numerous high schools in the TEA database had no name and/or contact e-mail address for a current principal, thus those campuses were not contacted. The remaining contact sample of principals of campuses serving high school students numbered 690.

The principals of the high schools in the districts for which superintendents granted access were then provided a brief pre-notice e-mail consistent with best practice in electronic survey administration (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003). The message of the pre-notice simply stated in the subject line of the e-mail, “Like you, I am a Texas high school principal and I need your assistance...” The body of the e-mail pre-notice stated:

My name is Nelson Coulter and I am the principal at McNeil High School in Austin (in case you want to verify the legitimacy of this message).

In a few days I’ll be sending you a short survey in an e-mail as part of my doctoral work. I am studying if/how developing student leadership impacts campus performance. I’d sure appreciate your taking the time to respond.

Stay tuned...

Nelson Coulter

Any researcher must consider the most appropriate medium for the collection of data. In choosing that medium there are several considerations: type of data needed/desired, equipment, cost of survey development, transmission costs, data entry logistics and costs, whether or not open-ended questions are appropriate, and project time

(Porter, 2004). Andrews, Nonnecke, and Preece (2003) state, “Surveys are imperfect vehicles for collecting data” (p. 186). With that in mind, and after weighing carefully the pros and cons of paper surveys, web-based surveys, and surveys embedded in the body of an e-mail, this researcher concluded that a survey embedded in the body of an e-mail was the most appropriate tool.

The tool chosen for the initial survey of principals in this study was a survey embedded in the body of the e-mail. There were several reasons for this choice. First, in the ever expanding electronic communication age, electronic surveys are increasingly common (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003). The development and transmission costs of e-mail surveys are substantially less than paper versions (Olsen, Wygant, & Brown, 2004; Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002). Electronic survey result rates rival postal versions in some studies (Moss & Hendry, 2002). They also have the advantage of speedy distribution and response cycles (Olsen, Wygant, & Brown, 2004; Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002). Response rates tend to be even better when a pre-notice and reminder are sent within days before and after the survey is disseminated (Moss & Hendry, 2002). As well, keeping the survey as short as possible and salient to the likely interest of respondents has been shown to contribute to higher return rates (Christ & Stodden, 2005; Moss & Hendry, 2002). These authors also assert that multi-media capable e-mail has aided in effectiveness of e-mail versions of surveys. The electronic communication prowess of the sample being a consideration, it should be noted that in today’s education environment in Texas virtually all principals use e-mail as a primary communication tool.

Worth noting are some disadvantages to electronic surveys in comparison to mailed surveys. Mail surveys generally yield a higher response rate and a lower rate of undeliverable surveys (Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002). The researcher determined that these disadvantages were tolerable in the context of this study.

Using the guidance and feedback of an expert panel and current academic literature regarding electronic surveys, the researcher developed a brief survey to use in assessing the disposition of the principals regarding the development and enlistment of student leaders on their respective campuses. The survey sent to high school principals was a quantitative measure designed to provide a reasonable assessment of the level of commitment of the campus principals to the development, engagement, and/or enlistment of the SLC in relation to the mission of achieving an effective school, a concept that will be referred to as the Intentionality of the principal. Each item in the survey was designed to discern the level of Intentionality of the principal toward the SLC with regard to the 14 attributes of the SLC Model described in Chapter II. Two survey items were dedicated to each attribute, using a Likert scaling convention. A Likert-type scale was used because of the simplicity of the scoring for the respondent (Borg & Gall, 1989). As a reminder, it should be recalled that SLC attributes were defined as a result of thorough literature review, the definitions were then confirmed as credible and appropriate by an expert panel of judges with experience working with student leaders in high schools, and the attributes were ranked in hierarchical order by those same judges. The panel of expert judges included : three principals of large high schools, one statewide director of Student Councils, one statewide director of student activities, and one member of the National

Association of Secondary School Principals Standing Committee on Student Activities (the purview of said committee includes the development of student leaders). As well, the survey was reviewed by two experienced researchers who were asked to provide feedback and suggestions on the quality and appropriateness of the 28 items. That feedback was used to make further revisions in the survey document.

The attributes and definitions are shown again below for the convenience of the reader:

1. Responsibility is the ability to consistently make decisions and take actions (both individually and collectively) that are morally and ethically grounded in commonly accepted beliefs about citizenship, and the willingness to be accountable for those decisions (Marshall, 2001; Toso, 2000).
2. Collaborative Proficiency is the ability to interact effectively with other individuals and groups (both horizontally and vertically) so as to function as team members working toward common, acceptable goals (Melamed & Reiman, 2000; Schnorr, Black, & Davern, 2000).
3. Decision Making Capability is the ability to accept authority and to make reasoned and sound decisions from an organizational perspective (Owens, 1998; van Linden & Fertman, 1998).
4. Respect for Diversity is the acknowledgment and acceptance of, and appreciation for, diverse social, cultural, religious, and intellectual views (Barth, 1990; Strong, 2001).

5. Communicative Rapport is the ability to foster and perpetuate productive levels of organizational communication both horizontally and vertically (Block, 1993; Wasley, 1994; Whitaker, 2003).
6. Service Orientation is the level of commitment to serving others from the leadership perspective, as opposed to pursuing means and ends that are motivated by purely selfish intentions (Block, 1993; Block, 2002; Greenleaf, 1996).
7. Self Awareness is the degree to which one is aware of his/her own interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and tendencies (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
8. Self Regulation is the ability to suspend one's emotions and reactions in order to make reasoned judgments about appropriate actions and reactions (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
9. Goal Orientation is the ability to envision greater performance and to develop a plan for achieving that higher performance (Bielaczyk & Collins, 1999; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).
10. Relationship Management Prowess is the ability to use interpersonal skills to develop, maintain, and nurture relationships with others in a useful way to affect the outcomes desired (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
11. Conflict Resolution is the ability to sense, acknowledge, and understand the catalysts of conflict, and to work individually and collaboratively to constructively manage, or eliminate, the conflict(s) in productive ways (Close & Lechman, 1997; Melamed & Reiman, 2000).

12. Others Awareness is the ability to read and assess the emotional, intellectual, political, and spiritual disposition of others (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002).
13. Learning Focus is the commitment to optimum academic and intellectual achievement for all students on the campus (Cohen, 2001; DuFour, 1999; Schlechty, 2001; Whitaker, 2001).
14. Global View is the ability to assess and realistically appropriate one's place in the larger realms of community, state, nation, and planet, and to act accordingly (Costa & Kallick, 2000; Flanary & Terehoff, 2000; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Snyder, 2000).

The 28-item survey was coupled with a short salutation, an indication of estimated time to complete (see Moss & Hendry, 2002), succinct directions as to the mechanics of responding, a brief overview of the study, assurance of confidentiality (see Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece (2003), an offer of sharing the results, and an expression of thanks for responding. The survey can be viewed below in the format in which it was sent:

Subject Line of E-mail:

Here is the short survey Nelson Coulter told you was coming...

Body of E-mail:

Colleague,

Below is the survey I sent you notice of a few days ago. There are only 28 items in the survey; I believe it will take you less than 10 minutes to complete.

Simply hit your “Reply” or “Reply With History” button, respond to each of the 28 items, then hit the “Send” button to return your responses to me.

Your responses will obviously not be anonymous as you will be replying directly by e-mail. However, please know this study is not designed to place a value judgment on your campus or you as a principal; it is simply the first step in a process designed to discern if and how the commitment to student leadership development on a campus impacts the performance of the campus.

A few principals will be asked for an interview later.

The usual and acceptable practices of research regarding the protection of your confidentiality will be employed. You are assured of confidentiality.

In the blank beside each item please place a 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 in accordance to the scale shown below:

1 = Never

2 = Infrequently

3 = Sometimes

4 = Often

5 = Always

1.____ A curriculum designed to encourage responsibility among students is available to faculty for integration into the usual curriculum offerings.

2. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students with regard to developing and practicing collaborative proficiency.

3. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students in relation to the skills needed to be effective and efficient decision makers.

4. ___The respect of diversity by students is acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

5. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students with regard to the meaning of and need for communicative rapport.

6. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students with regard to the meaning of and need for service to others.

7. ___Students teach other students the importance of self-awareness.

8. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students with regard to the meaning of and need for self-regulation.

9. ___The concept of goal orientation is well-defined, and broadly communicated to the campus through multiple media portals.

10. ___A curriculum designed to enhance students' ability to manage relationships is available to faculty for integration into the usual curriculum offerings.

11. ___A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students regarding the meaning of and need for conflict resolution.

12. ___Demonstrations of others-awareness by students is acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

13. ___Students are made aware of the need for learning focus on their part.

14. ___The concept of global view is well-defined on the campus, and broadly communicated through multiple media portals.

15. ___Students are made aware of the need for responsible behavior on their part.

16. ___ Examples of collaborative proficiency by students are acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

17. ___ Students teach other students the importance of being active and effective participants in the making of campus-related decisions.

18. ___ The respect of diversity is a well-defined construct on the campus, and broadly communicated through multiple media portals.

19. ___ Effective demonstrations of communicative rapport by students are acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

20. ___ The concept of service is well-defined, and broadly communicated to the campus through multiple media portals.

21. ___ A curriculum designed to develop self-awareness among students is available to faculty for integration into the usual curriculum offerings.

22. ___ Self-regulation by students is acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

23. ___ Goal orientation on the part of students is generally viewed by campus stakeholders as a critical component toward the success of the campus as an organization.

24. ___ Relationship management prowess by students is acknowledged and/or praised publicly.

25. ___ Students are made aware of the need for effectively resolving conflict on their part.

26. ___ The concept of others-awareness is well-defined, and broadly communicated to the campus through multiple media portals.

27. ___ Focus on learning is an established norm for all stakeholders on the campus.

28. ___ A coherent campus plan is deployed by which the adults on campus educate students with regard to developing the skills to purposefully discern their respective roles in the community and/or society.

Would you like to receive the results of the study?

Thanks for taking the time to respond,

Nelson Coulter

A brief reminder e-mail was sent to the sample about one week after the survey was delivered.

The researcher originally made application with the University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, Office of Research Services, for an exemption. That exemption was granted. In all cases, the respondents to both the surveys and participants in the interviews were assured of confidentiality in the documentation of the study. All participants provided informed consent to the researcher.

As responses were received the researcher took the responses to the 28 survey items and entered them into the database designed to generate a scatter plot from coordinates of the independent and dependent variables of each campus. It is worth restating that the survey should not be construed as a quantitative tool. The survey was designed only to serve as a vehicle of self-reporting of perceptions by the principals solicited. The responses to the survey were not deemed by the researcher to be empirical measurements, but rather, as the conveyance of perceptions of the principals with regard to their level of Intentionality toward student the development and enlistment of the student leadership on their respective campuses. The process used to generate the scatter plot is described thoroughly in the Data Analysis section that follows.

Once outlying schools of interest were identified from the scatter plot the researcher then attempted to schedule face-to-face interviews with the identified schools. These were not statistical outliers, but rather, schools of high interest whose principals self-reported either exceptionally high or low levels of Intentionality, and/or which exhibited extremely high or low SOE. In most cases a face-to-face interview with the principal was achieved at his/her workplace. Ten face-to-face interviews were able to be scheduled. However, phone interviews were agreed to by four principals who preferred

that medium. Two principals flatly denied interviews. Three of the principals did not return repeated calls and/or e-mail communications. One principal actually scheduled an appointment with the researcher but failed to show up for the interview (without notice); one principal offered to provide a phone interview but was consistently unavailable; and one principal asked to have open-ended interview questions sent via e-mail but failed to return responses to the researcher.

The interview data was collected by a combination of recordings and field notes. As well, the researcher added to the field notes impressions of the campuses and or interviewees during the interviews. In some cases, the participants were able to provide documents to the researcher which enriched the data collection. The researcher was cognizant of the need for multiple data sources in order to provide triangulation. Jacelon and O'Dell (2005a) state, "In all qualitative research, the researcher does not profess to be an expert about the phenomena of interest. The researcher does not develop hypotheses about the phenomena; rather, he or she observes and questions and then makes sense out of those observations." The researcher was also particularly mindful of the power of asking the right questions and the power of purposeful listening (Leeds, 2000; Patterson et al., 2002).

A note of thanks was written to those principals who provided time and insight through the interview process.

Data Analysis

The Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) database is a statewide data collection system in Texas that houses demographic and performance data on every public school campus (and district) in the state. Schools are compelled by law to submit quality data to the state, and the responsibility for repository of that data lies with the TEA. Once the data is collected from campuses and districts, the TEA then formulates a performance report known as the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) Report. This report, provided annually to each campus in the state, is also known in the common vernacular of Texas schools as the “School Report Card”. Data assembled in the AEIS Report include student performance (as a whole and by subgroups) on numerous data elements that include student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) tests, student participation rates in various diploma plans, student participation rates in advanced coursework, student participation and performance rates on nationally normed ACT and SAT college entrance exams, high school completion rates, attendance rates, demographic information regarding student and staff populations, and financial expenditure data for the campus . Using the cumulative data, the state, through the AEIS Report, provides each school with an accountability rating that falls in one of four following domains: Exemplary, Recognized, Academically Acceptable, and Academically Unacceptable. Generally speaking, the data from the AEIS Report is commonly accepted (not necessarily embraced) by the larger education community and the general public as a quantitative assessment of the organizational effectiveness of a school.

Being able to determine the degree of relative effectiveness of each school as an organization is a critical component of this study. Measurable outputs (dependent variables) were identified through which some reasonable and defensible conclusions to that end could be made. Those outputs, described thoroughly in Chapter II, include the following elements that were drawn from the state AEIS report for the campuses: student performance on TAKS (both students meeting minimum expectations and those reaching commended performance); attendance rates; completion rates (not including students who received GEDs); students taking Advanced Placement (AP) and International Baccalaureate (IB) courses; percentage of graduates receiving the Recommended High School Program (RHSP) or Distinguished Academic Program (DAP) Diploma; student performance on AP and IB exams; college readiness of students in English and math as per the scale scores received on the TAKS tests; percentage of students taking ACT and SAT exams; and student performance on ACT and SAT exams.

The 12 data elements chosen as representative of the overall SOE were selected for several reasons. First, data among that set are indicative of the baseline or minimum expectations of the school. Secondly, data among the set provide a snapshot of the performance of the top tier students. As well, elements in the set are representative of the holding power of the school, i.e., getting students to show up on a daily basis and keeping them in school until completion. Finally, data elements among the chosen indicators are representative of the school's ability to prepare student for the next level of education.

While other data elements could have been extracted from the AEIS Reports, the researcher determined the set chosen to be an adequate representation of the health of the

school and SOE. Elements not chosen, such as demographic data, mobility rates, and expenditures allocated from the district are beyond the scope of the campus principal or staff to have any meaningful impact.

For this study, the survey responses of principals were designed to discern the level of commitment to, and confidence in, the student leadership component on the respective campuses. The responses to the 28-item survey were entered into a database, numerically scaled in Likert Scale fashion according to the level of commitment to the SLC. Simple sums across the SLC indicators were then used to provide a quantitative measure of Intentionality of commitment of principals to student leaders and their development. The sums of these indicators then served as the abscissa in the coordinates for each campus. The survey data serves as the independent variables in the quantitative portion of the study. A sample of the data set generated can be seen in Appendix A.

The quantitative performance data pulled from the AEIS Report elements described above were also entered by the researcher into a database. The raw data so entered was then adjusted by formula to show each element as a percentage above or below the state average for the same performance indicator. The 12 chosen indicators, adjusted as noted, were then summed to provide a relative quantitative “picture” of the organizational performance of the campus, the SOE. The summation of this data then served as the ordinate in a set of coordinates for a campus, which would later be used to identify outlier campuses. These data individually and collectively represented the dependent variables in the quantitative portion of the study.

The coordinates consisting of the quantitative sums of selected data (the sums representing the Intentionality of the campus principal toward the SLC served as the abscissa and the AEIS indicator sums, the SOE, served as the ordinate) were then used to develop a scatter plot to identify the outlier campuses (see Figure 4.1). While several options were considered for identifying the outlier campuses of interest, the researcher chose to use the visual representation of the scatter plot as a guide for identification. Referring back to the Example Scenarios described in Chapter II, the researcher was primarily interested in identifying principals whose campuses exhibited, on the surface at least, exceptionally high or low Intentionality toward student leadership development and/or exceptionally high or low SOE results. The superimposed rectangular boundary seen in Figure 4.1, while sized with some degree of arbitrariness, provided a reasonable parameter for selection of some campuses of high interest with which to do further, and deeper, study.

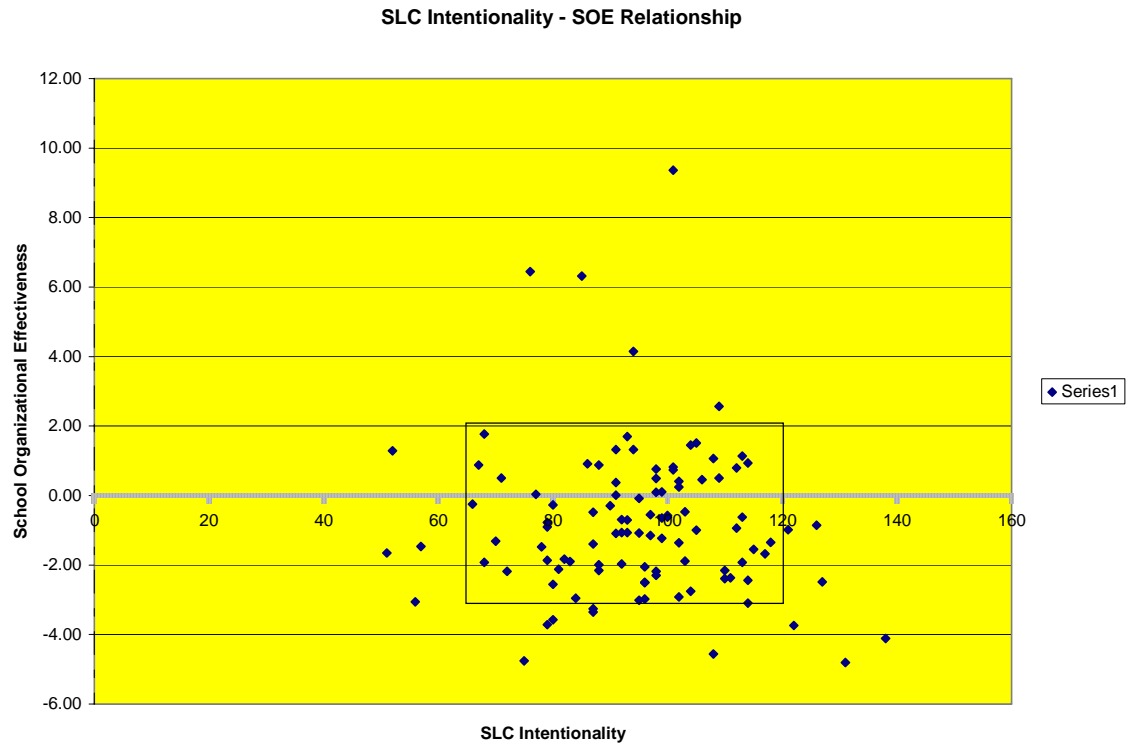


Figure 4.1 SLC Intentionality - SOE Relationship

Worth noting is the few instances in which the data received was unusable by the researcher. In the case of three principals, the returned survey had gaps or uncompleted survey items. These surveys were deemed invalid. Also, the response from the principal of one campus was complete, but not usable, as the school had only been open for one year, thus there was no AEIS Report data available to the researcher.

Other unusual modifications were employed by the researcher in the data analysis. A few campuses had gaps in the AEIS Report data. For instance, SAT Math performance data might be absent for the 2004-2005 school year, but there was data available from the 2003-2004 school year. In those instances, the researcher took the most current data available for use in the database. Another anomaly that occurred had to do with

campuses that were grades K-12, 6-12, or 7-12 in nature. These were most frequently rural schools. The AEIS Report provides TAKS performance data both by grade and subject tested. The data element used in this study was the sum of all grades tested on the campus. On purely high school campuses, this summary data was provided for the cumulative performance of high school students only. On campuses of the K-12, 6-12, and 7-12 variety, the researcher was faced with a dilemma. Either the school could be completely discounted by the researcher or the data selection criteria could be modified for the non-typical campuses. In these cases, the researcher chose to use only the data for the grade 11 performance of students on the campus, making the assumption that the grade-11 students would be most representative of the “end product” outcomes of the school, thus reasonably representative of the SOE of the campus.

Once these outlier campuses were identified, interviews were scheduled and conducted with the principals of the outlier schools to gain a deeper sense of the impact on SOE of each by the SLC. The follow-up interviews with each of the principals were of the semi-structured genre, the most commonly used interview methodology (Burnard, 2005). Grant (2004) also cites the semi-structured interview as a commonly used qualitative tool. The researcher had a short list of pre-developed questions that were used as the springboard for dialogue that would eventually (and ideally) shed deeper understanding as to the impact of SLC on the SOE of the campuses, in the mind of the campus principal. The researcher used open-ended qualitative questions that begged response from the quantitative data. These questions were designed to examine more fully the beliefs and practices of those principals with regard to student leadership. The

follow-up interview was done in person (or by phone when face-to-face interviews were not achievable) by the researcher, using accepted qualitative techniques to probe fully the motivations and beliefs of the subjects. Each of the subjects in the interview stage of the study agreed to the conditions of human subjects research. Each subject received confidentiality assurances with regard to their responses.

Face-to-face interviews, on the campus of the subject, were the preferred modality of inquiry. When a researcher has the opportunity to question and observe a participant within the work setting, there is available a whole array of additional contextual data by which the researcher can use for triangulation purposes. Menial elements such as the neighborhood in which a school is located can have powerful bearing on the climate and culture of a school, and thus, on the success of the organizational undertakings therein. Many other contextual elements help the researcher in this respect: watching the interactions of the principal with other adults and with students, viewing the symbols within the office of the principal, observing the physical arrangements of the reception areas of the school, discerning the interactions of students with adults and with other students (and group-to-group interactions), etc. Because of these contextually rich data sets, this researcher strove to interview the principals on their campuses and pressed for that accommodation when requesting access. However, when principals of interest declined to meet with the researcher requests for a phone interview were immediately made. The insight and thinking of the principals was the coveted data; this researcher

determined that the tempered data obtainable by phone were preferable to no data at all from the principal(s). As is always the case in research, the gatekeeper generally controls the access to the data for the researcher.

All face-to-face interviews were recorded, then later transcribed for coding and analysis. While some researchers (see Burnard, 2005) question the value of audio recordings, this researcher deems the practice of value when possible in that it frees the researcher to keep his/her attention focused on the non-verbal signals conveyed by the interviewee. While interviews were being recorded, the researcher also jotted notes in relation to the non-verbal communication of and relevant impressions of the interviewee, and the environment. As well, the researcher included field notes regarding the documents provided by the principal and impressions of the culture and climate of the campuses visited. Phone interviews were not recorded, but field notes were scribed by the researcher to capture the essence of the dialogue with the interviewees.

As this study is exploratory in nature, the data from the three sources (the survey, the AEIS Report, and the follow-up interview) were carefully reviewed against the a priori conceptual SLC model developed in Chapter II. The researcher acknowledges some precariousness in testing a model by use of grounded theory. While grounded theory is generally presumed to be inductive in nature, the SLC Model Process Dimensions were used as a framework by which to assist the researcher in coding the field notes and interview transcripts. Rubin and Babbie (1993) note:

Although grounded theory emphasizes an inductive process, it can also incorporate deductive processes. It does this through the use of constant

comparisons. As researchers detect patterns in their inductive observations, they develop concepts and working hypotheses based on those patterns. (pp. 359-360)

Gay and Airasian (2003) state:

Grounded theory aims at deriving theory from the analysis of multiple stages of data collection and interpretation. The researcher strives to identify patterns, themes, and categories from the qualitative topic and data. However, unlike other forms of qualitative researcher, which focus mainly on understanding, grounded theory goes beyond to develop a theory that derives from the data. (p. 17)

Grounded theory utilizes similar methods, but performs them in ever-narrowing iterations of constant comparison so as to distill from the data a testable theory. (p. 221)

The dependent variables are the individual elements of the SOE as well as the holistic view derived from those elements (as defined in the model). The independent variable in the study is the Intentionality of the principal and campus toward to the development, enlistment, and engagement of the SLC.

Jacelon and O'Dell (2005b) assert:

Data analysis in qualitative research is a creative process. As the instrument of data analysis, the researcher explores and reflects on the meaning of the data. In most qualitative traditions, the data analysis phase overlaps the data collection phase. As data analysis proceeds, the researcher moves back and forth between data analysis and data collection in order to create and explain findings.

It is essentially a two-stage process in which the first is the actual data analysis, the systematic searching and arranging of the data into manageable units (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005b). The second step is the interpretation of the data, which is ongoing and recursive in nature (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005b).

Interviews were rated by the researcher using grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Grounded theory is premised on the assertion that meaning emerges from the data via systematic inquiry. The researcher attempted to identify concepts and themes that were given voice by the subjects through the course of the interviews. As the data were analyzed using recurring themes (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) that emerged from the course of the interviews, the technique of latent content analysis was employed. As opposed to the more manifest surface content of a text, latent content refers to determining underlying meaning in a narrative; it is determined by “a subjective evaluation of the overall content of the narrative” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 122). The researcher attempted to develop theories that accurately describe or explain the situations and perceptions of another’s world (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005a; Poggenpoel, 2006). Using the “open-coding” method described by Corbin and Strauss (1990), key and common concepts were identified and organized. As per the guidance of Wolcott (1994), the researcher used a two-column format by which to code the data. The transcriptions, impressions, contexts, and contents of collected documents were placed in the left column of a document. In the adjacent right column the researcher coded comments, indexing, reflections, and questions. The second column serves as a constant reminder to the researcher that the work is never really finished.

The researcher was particularly mindful of the obstacles that occur in qualitative research as described by Poggenpoel (2006): insufficient preparation to enter the field, lack of structural coherence, problems in gathering and analyzing data, and lack of skills in reporting. Consequently, the researcher was particularly mindful that complete objectivity is highly unlikely, and that to assume so can blind one to his or her own assumptions. Being ever mindful of the driving research questions also provided a relevant grounding to the data collection. Each interview was thoroughly reviewed, multiple times, whereby the researcher scanned for key words, phrases, ideas, and themes that seemed to convey relevant and significant constructs. The researcher kept in mind the concept of “thinking backward” (see Wolcott, 1994, p. 387) in the analysis and interpretation process. Making meaning of these constructs within and across the interviews was pursued vigorously by the researcher in attempt to identify transferable knowledge for practitioners and theorists.

Supportive documents from campuses were received to varying degrees. As consistent with best practices in qualitative methodology, the documents provided a degree of triangulation for the researcher. A theme grid was created (see Fernald & Duclos, 2005) by which the researcher could track the frequency and occurrence of themes that emerged from the data as the coding process evolved.

Conger (1998) states, “[Qualitative studies] can be the richest of studies, often illuminating in radically new ways phenomena as complex as leadership. It is a paradox given that qualitative research is, in reality, the methodology of choice for topics as

contextually rich as leadership” (p. 107). Furthermore, Danzig (1997) notes the power, richness, and value of “stories” such as those gleaned directly from the school principals, as is done in this study.

The question of how to measure difficult constructs is perhaps the most challenging aspect for any researcher. When trying to measure levels of commitment and the consequent organizational impact, one is, in a sense, attempting to nail jello to the wall. Senge et al., (2004) makes the point saliently:

Not only does overreliance on measurement doom modern society to continuing to see a world of things rather than relationships, it also gives rise to the familiar dichotomy of the “hard stuff” (what can be measured) versus the “soft stuff” (what can’t be measured). If what’s measurable is “more real,” it’s easy to relegate the soft stuff, such as the quality of interpersonal relationships and people’s sense of purpose in their work, to a secondary status. This is ironic because the soft stuff is often the hardest to do well and the primary determinant of success or failure. For example, engineers know that the best technical solutions often fail to be implemented, or are not successful when they are, because of low trust and failed communication.

The problem is not of measurement per se. The problem is the loss of balance between valuing what can be measured and what cannot, and becoming so dependent on quantitative measures that they displace judgment and learning. When this happens, you see managers “driving” organizations to meet quantitative goals set at the top, with little serious effort to build new capacities

required to achieve sustainable levels of improved performance. The resulting “management by fear,” in the words of the famous quality management pioneer W. Edwards Deming, pervades modern institutions, from businesses driven to meet Wall Street expectations to schools driven to improve scores on standardized tests. (pp. 192-193)

The richness of the SLC topic, coupled with the lack of corroborating empirical work, requires the researcher in an exploratory work of this nature to be extremely careful as well as meticulous. What is not said is often as telling as what is said. Framing the data against the a priori SLC conceptual model provides a means by which to attain some coherence. As well, the data must be viewed from multiple perspectives and through multiple lenses in order to bring clarity to the themes and concepts that emerge.

Thank you notes were written and mailed to participants who shared their time and thoughts with the researcher. Results of the study were shared with those superintendents and principals requesting the findings of the study, which will be described in detail in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Initially, an agreed upon working definition of student leadership was needed in order to construct a useful a priori conceptual Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model. Twenty high school principals from a broad range of public high schools in Texas were asked to provide a working definition of student leadership. These principals were chosen as representative of the various geographic regions of the state as well as to provide broad representation of school size. Once the 20 principals provided their respective definitions of student leadership, the responses were synthesized by the researcher into the definition shown here: Student leadership is the application and modeling of interpersonal skills, intellect, and charisma by students in assuming the civic responsibility to influence others in affecting positive community and organizational outcomes.

With that working definition of student leadership, an extensive literature review was undertaken in order to develop an initial conceptual model by which to examine the construct of student leadership. The model that was developed, the SLC Model, is thoroughly described in Chapter II. The resulting model is shown in Figure 5.1 below.

From the SLC Model, the Process Dimensions shown were identified as possible attributions of student leadership which could form the basis of a study of the construct.

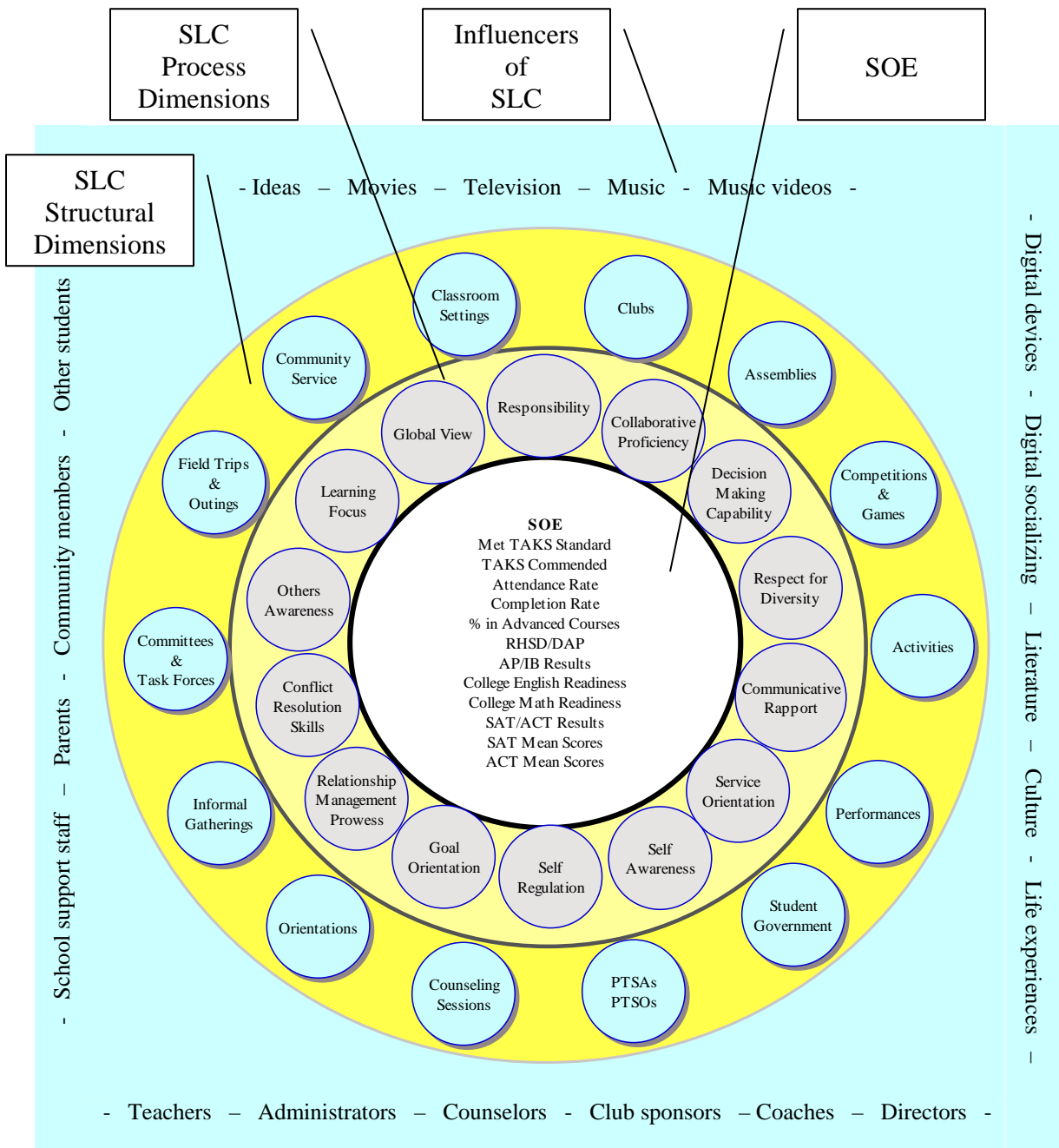


Figure 5.1. Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model

The resulting order of the attributes (shown in the SLC Model) is the prioritization that emerged from the feedback of five persons considered to have considerable expertise in the area of student leadership. The contextual definitions of the attributes are provided to the reader again below in the discussion of Emergent Themes, in order to provide the clearest possible picture of the revelations of the study.

From the definitions of the Process Dimensions a survey was developed and e-mailed to 690 high school principals in the state. The survey was revised multiple times to assure alignment with the operational definitions above. Responses to the survey were received from 109 principals, four of which were unusable. Consequently, the sample consisted of 105 usable responses.

These data were then used in conjunction with campus performance data known as the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) Report retrieved from the Texas Education Agency (TEA) web site. The principal response data and the AEIS data were used to generate a set of coordinates for each campus (see the description of this process in Chapter IV). The resulting scatter plot provided a means by which the researcher could identify outlying campuses of interest. The scatter plot is shown in Figure 5.2.

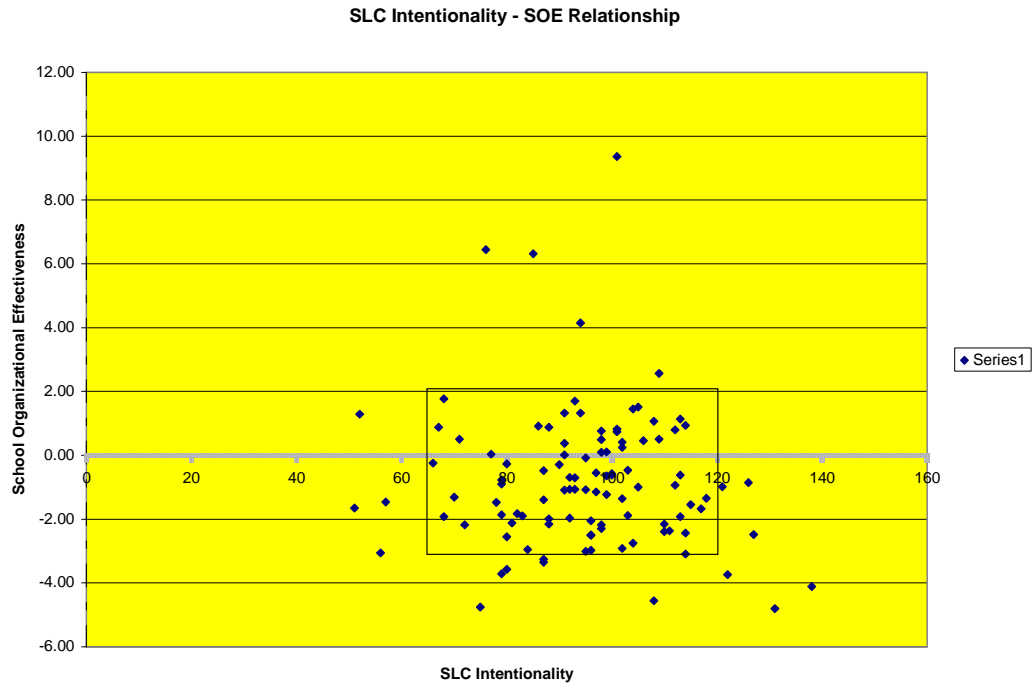


Figure 5.2 SLC Intentionality – SOE Relationship

Principals of the 22 campuses represented by the data points lying outside the rectangular box superimposed on the scatter plot were asked for follow-up interviews. The researcher requested face-to-face interviews with all 16 of the principals who initially agreed to interviews. Only 10 face-to-face interviews were able to be scheduled. However, phone interviews were agreed to by four principals. Two of the 22 principals flatly denied interviews. Three of the principals did not return repeated calls and/or e-mail communications. One principal of the 16 who agreed to interviews scheduled an appointment with the researcher but failed to show up for the interview (without notice); one principal offered to provide a phone interview but was consistently unavailable; and one principal asked to have open-ended interview questions sent via e-mail but failed to return responses to the researcher.

Semi-structured interviews were then conducted with the principals. Leeds (2000) paints a clear picture of the power of effective questioning in providing the deepest possible understanding of the thinking, motives and perspectives of others. Examples of the kinds of questions asked of the participants are as follows: How do you see the student leaders on your campus impacting the effectiveness of the campus? What kinds of formal/informal processes or systems are in place on your campus designed to develop student leaders? What adults on your campus are charged with the development of student leaders (either formally or informally)? How do student leaders impact the culture/climate on your campus? What kinds of meaningful leadership tasks or responsibilities are afforded student leaders on your campus? In what ways do you incorporate student leaders in the decision-making or planning processes on your campus? How do you communicate the value of the student leadership component to campus stakeholders? How do you communicate (either formally or informally) with student leaders on your campus? How significant is the influence of student leaders on your campus?

Donalek and Soldwisch (2004) state: “The purpose of qualitative research is always to gain understanding at the individual or group level (p. 354)”. The following qualitative tools were deployed by the researcher: semi-structured interviews, constant comparison analysis, grounded theory, two-column coding, bracketing, triangulation, observation, and participant checking. Semi-structured interviews are those in which the interviewer refers to a sheet containing prompts of key topics or the interviewer has a set

of key questions which serve as launching points for related and relevant questions (Burnard, 2005, p. 5). Rubin and Babbie (1993) describe the process of constant comparison analysis:

“Although grounded theory emphasizes an inductive process, it can also incorporate deductive processes. It does this through the use of constant comparisons. As researchers detect patterns in their inductive observations, they develop concepts and working hypotheses based on those patterns.” (pp. 359-360)

Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe grounded theory. They state:

They mean a theory that was derived from data, systematically gathered and analyzed through the research process. In this method, data collection, analysis, and eventual theory stand in close relationship to one another. A researcher does not begin a project with a preconceived theory in mind (unless his or her purpose is to elaborate and extend existing theory). Rather, the researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data. Theory derived from the data is more likely to resemble the “reality” than is theory derived by putting together a series of concepts based on experience or solely through speculation (how one thinks things ought to work). Grounded theories, because they are drawn from data, are likely to offer insight, enhance understanding, and provide a meaningful guide to action. (p. 12)

Two-column coding is a data management technique of documenting all available interview, observation, and documentary data in the left column of a document, then

using the right column to write impressions, themes, questions, and trends (Wolcott, 1994, p. 386). Bracketing, according to Jacelon and O'Dell (2005a), is the process by which the researcher is constantly self-aware and reflects on the research process and his or her own assumptions. Triangulation is the process used by researchers in which different data sources are used to confirm or corroborate other data sources (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Observation techniques were used, specifically nonparticipant observation. Gay and Airasian (2003) describe nonparticipant observation as that in which the researcher watches, but does not engage in, the activities being observed. Participant checking is a process by which the researcher seeks feedback from the participants to make sure that what he or she is hearing or seeing is an accurate description of what the participant is conveying (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005a). By use of these tools the researcher collected, organized, and analyzed the data.

As the data were coded, a theme matrix (see Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) was used to help organize the data and to gain clarity on the prominent themes and patterns that were emerging. As data from the interviews were collected and organized into a two-column analysis format, the researcher created a spread sheet with the pseudonyms of the participants recorded down the vertical axis and the themes that emerged recorded horizontally at the top of columns. Upon examination and triangulation of the data, the researcher placed a "Y" in the cells of the spreadsheet. The "Y" symbol designated that "yes" the researcher observed a specific theme in the data of a particular participant. This theme interpretation matrix then provided a useful visual accounting of how frequently

themes were evident across participants and how many themes were evident in the data for particular participants. The theme interpretation matrix may be viewed in Appendix B.

In all respects the researcher strived to preserve the integrity of the data and the perspective of the participant in analyzing the data. While the practice of conducting on-site interviews is one that is valuable in qualitative research it should be noted that each of the face-to-face interviews conducted were done so only once per participant. The logistical limitations and considerations were such that this constraint on the amount of data collected was compelling. The access to the principals, given their very busy schedules, was such that the researcher determined one-time interviews with the participants would have to be sufficient for this initial study of the SLC Model. Certainly, more interviews and observations of each participant would have been useful for strengthening the trustworthiness of the research. The reader, like the researcher, should consider this aspect of the study to be, in some sense, a limitation.

Establishing trustworthiness was and should be a compelling driver for any researcher. Jacelon & O'Dell (2005a) state, "Trustworthiness in qualitative research is the equivalent of validity in a quantitative study. It is established through ensuring rigor in the process of data collection and data analysis." This researcher worked diligently to ensure the rigor of both the data collection and data analysis process, in the interest of generating research that the reader and the larger practitioner and theorists communities might find a trustworthy addition to the general knowledge base.

Emergent Themes

As the study is exploratory in nature and designed to test the feasibility and usefulness of the SLC Model developed in Chapter II, it is appropriate to first examine the data in light of the 14 Process Dimensions described in the SLC Model. The researcher is/was particularly cognizant of the dynamic tension between the development of an a priori model and the use of grounded theory underlying the process. Grounded theory presumes that themes and patterns emerge through the collection and analysis of the data. In light of that presumption, the reader should not assume the Process Dimensions to represent in any way a testable hypothesis. They, in fact, emerged from the literature review as elements and attributes deemed to be consistent with the construct of student leadership.

The researcher is cognizant of the fact that the data analysis must be related to the audience in a way that will be useful; in effect, the researcher has to be a storyteller (Jacelon & O'Dell, 2005b). As noted by Klein (2001), "The think-aloud data are soft, and fuzzy, and they are difficult to interpret. Nevertheless, we can still learn a lot by observing and questioning people as they perform realistic tasks within natural contexts" (p. 291).

The reader should note that the names and overtly identifying characteristics of all the participants referenced and/or quoted below have been changed to ensure their anonymity. With that in mind, an examination of the data will first address the 14 Process Dimensions of the Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model that was developed in Chapter II.

Responsibility

Responsibility was defined in the SLC Model as the ability to consistently make decisions and take actions (both individually and collectively) that are morally and ethically grounded in commonly accepted beliefs about citizenship, and the willingness to be accountable for those decisions (Marshall, 2001; Toso, 2000). Most of the participants identified responsibility as a dimension of leadership in students that was both desirable and worthy of providing opportunities for the development thereof. Ann, the principal of a large high school in a metropolitan area described a recent event in which her campus was called upon to provide aid in response to a natural disaster. She spoke of the leadership of the student leaders on her campus in response to the crisis: “We would not have been able to serve the public as well as we did if our student leaders did not have that sense of personal responsibility and leadership.” She went on to note the pride she felt for the way the student leaders on her campus reacted to the unusual and critical situation.

Cat also described work with the student leaders on her campus in which she was attempting to teach the students the power of taking ownership of the planning and administration of student activities and being responsible for those events from start to finish. She also related how she had to constrain the adult sponsors involved from usurping the responsibility from the student leaders involved. Eve was yet another principal who discussed the Responsibility component with respect to student leaders. She related how, through concerted engagement efforts with the student leaders on her campus and their responsiveness to the leadership opportunities she afforded them, she

had seen those students become more responsible in the deployment of not only organizational types of undertakings, but also in simpler and more tangible elements such as the cleanliness of their building.

Collaborative Proficiency

Eight of the 14 principals interviewed indicated Collaborative Proficiency as a critical construct in student leadership. It was defined in the SLC Model as the ability to interact effectively with other individuals and groups (both horizontally and vertically) so as to function as team members working toward common, acceptable goals (Melamed & Reiman, 2000; Schnorr, Black, & Davern, 2000). While not spoken to directly by name, several of the principals alluded to collaborative proficiency through the stories shared about the student leaders on their respective campuses. Mit, the principal of a large high school which had been underperforming prior to his arrival, spoke at length of the work he is doing to empower the students as stakeholders in the school. He specifically pointed to the development of student leaders toward their involvement in setting the vision for the school and developing and deploying the action steps needed to affect the improvement (rescue) he envisions.

Decision Making Capability

Decision Making Capability was defined in the SLC Model as the ability to accept authority and to make reasoned and sound decisions from an organizational perspective (Owens, 1998; van Linden & Fertman, 1998). This process dimension

emerged through the dialogue and/or observations of about two-thirds of the principals interviewed. Several of the principals noted that student leaders had representation on the decision making bodies of their respective campuses. Numerous principals also spoke of investing students, and student leaders in particular, with the power to make proposals and plans for changes on their campuses. Jan is the principal of a high school of about 2200 10th-12th graders. Her campus is the flagship campus of her district, a campus that is steeped in history and tradition. Jan spoke of working with the student leaders on her campus to empower them to make decisions about policies, processes, and practices that impact the student body as a whole.

Respect for Diversity

Respect for Diversity was defined as the acknowledgment and acceptance of, and appreciation for, diverse social, cultural, religious, and intellectual views (Barth, 1990; Strong, 2001). Respect for diversity only surfaced in the data analysis in about one-third of the principals interviewed. While the dimension did not appear with great frequency, it was obviously important to the few who did allude to it. Cat (short for Catherine) is the principal of an urban school in one of the largest urban areas in the state. She spoke of the Student Leadership class offered on her campus and the rich diversity of students represented in the class. She mentioned a state-ranked wrestler, a professed gang member, a starter on the football team, a cheerleader, and a girl who writes and performs her own songs. Cat described the value of this diverse group of student leaders in the context of the rapidly changing demographic make-up of her campus.

Communicative Rapport

Communicative Rapport was defined as the ability to foster and perpetuate productive levels of organizational communication both horizontally and vertically (Block, 1993; Wasley, 1994; Whitaker, 2003). The dimension of communicative rapport was identified in the data analysis on the preponderance of the campuses. Lee is the principal of a high school with about 400 students. He articulated the value of having student leaders on his campus who could effectively engage both students and adults in dialogue about the status of the school, and how it can be improved. Lee specifically spoke to the proficiency of the student leaders in communicating with a wide array of stakeholders on the campus. Lee saw this dimension as a critical catalyst in the improvement of the campus as an organization.

Service Orientation

Service Orientation was defined in the SLC Model as the level of commitment to serving others from the leadership perspective, as opposed to pursuing means and ends that are motivated by purely selfish intentions (Block, 1993; Block, 2002; Greenleaf, 1996). This Process Dimension was one of the most frequently cited by the principals and exemplified in the data. Even the principals whose campuses exhibited the least levels of Intentionality toward the development of student leaders would speak to the power of service orientation by their student leaders. Bob is the principal of a community school (a community with only one high school) of approximately 1500 students. The

data exhibited very little in the way of purposeful systems or processes for student leadership development on Bob's campus. However, as he spoke of the student leadership component, he noted how the student leaders on his campus led the way in altruistic endeavors on behalf of a neighboring community suffering crisis, and in the tutoring and mentoring of at-risk elementary students in their own community. As well, numerous principals noted the active and overt commitment to service by the student leaders (and the student bodies as a whole) of their campuses. Eve, the principal of a low performing campus with high numbers of at-risk students, shared how the student leaders on her campus volunteered time on Saturdays to make sure that every 11th and 12th grade student was able to fill out the myriad of complex paperwork required to get financial aid from the federal government for higher education costs.

Self Awareness

Self Awareness was defined as the degree to which one is aware of his/her own interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and tendencies (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002). This Process Dimension surfaced as an indicator on most of the campuses for which data was collected. Most often, the self-awareness component was identified as being bundled in curriculum and initiatives related to character education. Ken is the principal of a small high school in a rural, farming community. The campus has less than 200 students. Ken described the impact of student leaders in the context of an overall school initiative of Positive Behavioral Support (PBS). Ken noted that the

student leaders had the ability to impact the rest of the student body and that the self awareness thereof was a critical dimension for those students.

Self Regulation

Self Regulation was defined as the ability to suspend one's emotions and reactions in order to make reasoned judgments about appropriate actions and reactions (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002). This Process Dimension is another that tended to be tightly associated with initiatives of character education. It is a companion to the self awareness construct and appeared with the same frequency in the data analysis. Gus is the principal of one of the highest performing campuses, a campus that is located in the heart of a large metropolitan area. With many systems in place to develop and nurture student leaders, Gus described the efforts on his campus toward developing 9th graders as leaders, and future leaders. Gus described a Leadership class taken by at least half of the 9th grade class: "It's partly transition – study habits, organizing, how the school works as an organization, people you need to get to know, how to handle different challenges, who to turn to for different kinds of assistance and/or answers to questions." In this class the students learn the value of being able to regulate one's behavior effectively.

Goal Orientation

Goal Orientation was defined in the SLC Model as the ability to envision greater performance and to develop a plan for achieving that higher performance (Bielaczyk &

Collins, 1999; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Goal orientation was another of the Process Dimensions of the SLC that was prominent among the data set. About two-thirds of the campuses examined demonstrated this element among their student leadership data. Jan, whom you met earlier, spoke to the goal orientation of the student leaders on her campus. She described the class that consists of officers of the student government on the campus, and how they strategically set and prioritize goals for the planning and deployment of activities and initiatives on the campus. She also shared the process by which those students set the goals, make proposals to her, and schedule appointments with her to defend those proposals.

Relationship Management Prowess

Relationship Management Prowess was defined as the ability to use interpersonal skills to develop, maintain, and nurture relationships with others in a useful way to affect the outcomes desired (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2002). The data analysis indicates that a significant majority of the principals interviewed pointed to purposeful attempts to develop this Process Dimension in the student leaders on their respective campuses. Relationship management prowess is another of the attributes that is tightly aligned to efforts deployed in the interest of character education kinds of programming. Don is the principal of a small school in a rural community. The community has experienced several years of economic decline as a result of depletion of the oil and gas fields in the area. Don spoke of the rippling impact of the psychological depression on the community, and its consequent reflection in the psyche of students on

his campus. He discussed the positive impact of programming designed to empower students with skills in relationship management. Don noted he saw a remarkable difference in the student leadership subset of his campus in relation to their increased prowess in managing relationships with both students and adults. Don said, “I could see where that made a big difference. Kids that took that (leadership training class) were definite and positive leaders.”

Conflict Resolution

Conflict Resolution was defined in the SLC Model as the ability to sense, acknowledge, and understand the catalysts of conflict, and to work individually and collaboratively to constructively manage, or eliminate, the conflict(s) in productive ways (Close & Lechman, 1997; Melamed & Reiman, 2000). Only about half of the principals interviewed provided indications of commitment to the development of conflict resolution skills in the student leaders on their campuses. Ima was representative of the principals who did allude to this Process Dimension. In discussing the curriculum used on her campus in a Student Leadership class, she mentioned the component of conflict resolution and peer mediation as being critical elements from which she saw positive outcomes from the student leaders on her campus.

Others Awareness

Others Awareness was defined as the ability to read and assess the emotional, intellectual, political, and spiritual disposition of others (Goleman, 1994; Goleman, 1998;

Goleman, 2002). This Process Dimension enjoyed only moderate affirmation from the data analysis. About half of the principals interviewed indicated it as an element of focus. Of those who did, it was typically tightly aligned to initiatives of character education for the students. Ken, the principal of the school in a rural farming community, characterized the importance of the construct as a part of the initiative to provide positive behavioral supports on his campus.

Learning Focus

Learning Focus was defined in the SLC Model as the commitment to optimum academic and intellectual achievement for all students on the campus (Cohen, 2001; DuFour, 1999; Schlechty, 2001; Whitaker, 2001). Learning focus was mentioned by many of the principals as being a Process Dimension of high interest and impact with regard to the student leaders on their campuses. Several principals talked about the influence of student leaders who chose to take the most rigorous courses available on their campuses. Bob described the impact of student leaders who are known to be academically excellent by the other students as having a positive influence on the academic focus of the campus. Lee also noted the influence on the student body by leaders who are focused on learning, who take ownership of their learning. He feels the learning focus of these young leaders sends a powerful message to all others on the campus of the value of learning.

Global View

Global View was defined as the ability to assess and realistically appropriate one's place in the larger realms of community, state, nation, and planet, and to act accordingly (Costa & Kallick, 2000; Flanary & Terehoff, 2000; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Snyder, 2000). Global view was the least identified Process Dimension in the totality of the interviews and supporting documents. Only two principals alluded to it in any way. Not to be lightly discounted, however, it should be noted that the two principals who did allude to global view were from the two campuses that had the highest level of commitment to their student leadership. Both Gus and Ann indicated purposeful attempts through modeling or curriculum that were designed to instill in their student leaders a sense of their place in the larger scheme of life and their consequent responsibility in the context to make their world a better place. This Process Dimension was very tightly coupled with both service orientation and responsibility as it was articulated by these two principals.

The Process Dimensions of the SLC served as a priori conceptualizations by which the researcher could frame the thinking of the principals who responded to the survey. Additionally, the SLC Model Process Dimensions served a similar role through the interview process. It should be noted again that these dimensions did not serve as the basis of a hypothesis being tested or presumed by the researcher. These were attributions generated through literature review, and confirmed by a panel of experienced advocates of student leadership, by which the study could be launched. As indicated in the discussion above, all 14 of the Process Dimensions were discovered in the data. The

most frequently appearing of the 14 were Responsibility, Communicative Rapport, Service Orientation, Self Awareness, Self Regulation, Goal Orientation, Relationship Management Prowess, and Learning Focus. Those elements receiving moderately frequent mention were Collaborative Proficiency, Decision Making Capability, Respect for Diversity, Conflict Resolution, and Others Awareness. Global View was the least mentioned of the Process Dimensions.

Other Emergent Themes of Intentionality

As one would expect in qualitative study, other themes emerged from the data. Those will now be examined in detail.

Voice

The theme of Voice was very prominent in the data set. Principals again and again alluded to the importance of providing Voice to students. In particular, that Voice was repeatedly referenced as being afforded through the student leaders on their campuses. The idea of providing Voice to students is not a unique construct; many thinkers and theorists have suggested as much in both schools and other types of organizations (Ackerm & Boccia, 1997; Carr, Jonassen, Litzinger, & Marra, 1998; Glickman, 1998; Lincoln, 1995; McLaren, 1989; McKibben, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2000). Mit, the principal of a school with high numbers of at-risk students, talked about launching an initiative he called “Student Voice” in which he worked closely with the

student leaders on his campus to craft solutions to the myriad of complex challenges they were facing. When asked why he would add another layer of work for himself to an already formidable job he said:

I work with them on the things that need improvement in our school...I try to empower the students to give them a sense of ownership in the building...You cannot have a successful campus without student involvement...Students should have a say in what's happening in their school.”

Cat is the principal of a relatively young, urban high school. She spoke of the impact on the campus when she initiated conversations with the student leaders on the campus designed to give them Voice. They shared with her a sense of lacking with regard to tradition, elements they saw on other campuses in their vicinity. Through those conversations came plans and actions steps to create the kind of traditions that the student leaders felt would be important for their high school in the future. Ima is the principal of another young high school (only in its fourth year of existence). She described the process she used to create an advisory council of students to meet with and serve with the principal. Ima articulated the desire and intention to work with these student leaders to craft a document that expressed the beliefs and values that the student body deemed a worthy vision for their campus, one that could be referenced and embraced over time. Ima spoke passionately about the need for the student leaders to have Voice as they were creating what they envisioned for the campus.

Capacity Building

Another theme that emerged from the data was that of Capacity Building. Numerous principals spoke in terms of empowering both students and adults with the tools needed for them to grow as individuals (or professionals, as the case may be). While this construct can be seen as tightly related to many of the 14 Process Dimensions in the SLC Model, it is best considered in a more holistic manner. As principals spoke of the strategies and skills deployed on their campuses to affect improved school performance, they would often put those initiatives in the context of strengthening the overall skills set of the students and teachers. The researcher was reminded of Covey's (2004) promotion of building and developing organizational members from a holistic perspective, to affect personal self-actualization (and thus, presumably, having the impact of organizational self-actualization). It was evident to the researcher that the principals that spoke to these issues had an intense interest in not only seeing the individuals on their campuses (both students and adults) become proficient and critical self-developers. In light of this, one could argue that the Process Dimensions of the SLC Model might well have been titled Capacity Building Dimensions. The Capacity Building theme was identified as a driving principle of many of the principals who were most highly committed to student leaders (interestingly enough, these same principals often launched into tangential discussions about developing the adults on their campuses as leaders). Ned is the principal of one of the highest performing campuses in the study. Ned's campus has received notoriety nationally in several publications as one of the highest performing high schools in America. Ned spoke about numerous undertakings on his

campus designed to build the capacity of current student leaders on the campus. He also spoke of the deliberateness of the campus in identifying the student leaders of smaller subgroups of students who were often overlooked, and their subsequent inclusion in the purposeful capacity building efforts on the campus. Ned shared examples of some of the deliberate processes used to build the capacity of the student leaders on his campus:

We're hiring a well-known student leadership consultant to come to our campus in June. We're going to select about 35 kids. These will be kids who are leaders in some of our groups on campus; we'll add to those some of the kids that we see as leaders, like from some of our sub populations. We want to get about 35 of those students together and put them through that leadership training. And then in August we want to gather those students up again and have another day before school starts so we can organize and have these kids start thinking how to help serve the campus and how do we help students transition from 8th to 9th grade.

Dedication of Time, Personnel, and Resources

Yet another theme that emerged from the data was the Dedication of Time, Personnel, and Resources to the development of student leaders. The principals interviewed, with few exceptions, paid substantive lip service to the value of student leaders on their campuses, to the impact of student leaders on the performance and culture of their campuses, and to developing those student leaders. The researcher was particularly interested in seeing which campuses actually had systems in place to dedicate

resources to that lip service. In other words, the researcher wanted to know which campuses were putting their “money where their mouth was”.

While the degree of that dedication varied significantly, many of the campuses were clearly devoting time, personnel, and resources in significant measure to the development of student leaders. Several of the classes dedicated sections in the master schedule to classes designed to develop student leaders; those commitments represent the allocation of personnel, classroom space, and instructional materials to the endeavor. On some campuses this was only one class; on others it represented multiple classes with different focal areas and groups.

Some principals talked of providing funding to send student leaders to leadership conferences. Other principals spoke of sending adults on the campus to trainings designed to equip them to better develop the students as leaders. Other principals spoke of purchasing curriculum designed to help students develop as leaders. These principals clearly feel there is some positive impact for or on their campuses or they would not be dedicating scarce resources to the development of student leaders.

Performance and Cultural Impact

Through the course of the interview process, principals were repeatedly queried in some way as to their assessment of the impact of student leaders on the performance and/or the culture of the campus. All but one of the principals in the interview sample articulated in some way a belief in the influence of student leaders on the performance and/or culture of the campus. Eve noted that that impact could take the form of positive

or negative outcomes. To take the time, energy, and resources to address the development of student leaders on the campus, the principals (and campuses) must, in fact, presume there is some desired outcome worthy of gaining for the effort. Few of the principals interviewed could articulate any kind of hard connection between the performance of the campus on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) test, as just one example, but their responses clearly indicated a belief in some derivative or circuitous impact thereon. For instance, Eve, the principal of a low-performing campus said:

You know, I think, I would hope, and our scores are not where they should be. There are several factors for that. But I would hope that they're engagement in all of these things (student leadership development initiatives) would help them concentrate and when they figure out when we tell them how serious this TAKS test is, they don't take it for granted. That, in turn, translates into better test scores. They've started to improve but we have a long way to go.

Fen is the principal of a smaller school in a community on the outer fringes of creeping suburban sprawl. Fen's school still enjoys many of the characteristics of the small town environment; the term he used was "countryish". When asked about the impact of student leaders on the performance of the campus Fen said, "Student leaders definitely have an impact on AEIS elements...We see our leaders taking those higher level courses. Others students see it and gear themselves as well." Even Ken, the one principal who expressed overt doubt about the impact on the performance of the campus, said, "I hate to say this, but no, I don't think the student leaders have an impact on

campus performance. Last year I might have said yes.” When pressed for the differentiation, Ken then went on to describe the poor performance on TAKS by a group of influential student leaders on his campus that consequently negatively impacted the campus performance data. This contradiction betrays an underlying understanding on Ken’s behalf that those students leaders may, in fact, have impacted the performance of his campus, just not in the way he wanted.

The impact of student leaders on the culture of a campus emerged as the more dominant theme of the principals interviewed. While few principals could articulate belief in any direct ties to the AEIS performance indicators and student leadership development and deployment, almost every one of them provided data indicating their belief in the impact of student leaders on the culture of their respective campuses. When Lee was asked about his thoughts on the impact on culture he said, “I think they do a good job...We teach the student leaders about our values and expectations. The students report graffiti and other bad stuff to us immediately – they know our school is their home away from home.” Ima spoke of how the student leaders on her young campus are actively working with her to build a “culture of learning”. The idea of the cultural impact on the campus was prolific among the data analyzed.

High Performance and Commitment to SLC

Perhaps the most overt finding in the study was the comparative investment (Intentionality) in student leadership development and deployment by the highest performing campuses. Of the principals interviewed, the campuses that were the highest

performing in relation to SOE were the ones that had the most structures and systems in place to develop student leaders and to provide them avenues for leadership and service. Ned, mentioned earlier, spoke at length of the leadership classes taught within the master schedule, summer training sessions for student leaders, and of the responsibility of several adults on the campus who lead large groups of students to the development of those young leaders. Gus was another principal of an extremely high-performing campus. He was able to provide insight into the many systems in place on his campus whereby student leadership is developed. He spoke of half the 9th grade class taking a course in leadership. He spoke of the purposeful work by the students in the student government in not only planning activities on the campus, but also in providing feedback to him in carrying out action steps for campus improvement. Gus also spoke of the power of the student leaders on his campus in perpetuating a “culture of service” within their community. He noted:

There are so many opportunities here for community service. We don't have that many service opportunities on the campus. Students are required to step ‘outside the bubble’, as we call it, to do service for some nonprofit organization, to ‘benefit those in need’ – that’s the phrase we use.”

Ann, principal of another high-performing campus, detailed the many-faceted work of the student leaders on her campus. She noted student leadership classes in the schedule, service projects designed and deployed by student leaders (both on and off the campus), peer mediation carried out by student leaders, involvement of student leaders in

crafting the campus improvement plan, and the regular meetings she holds with student leaders to dialogue about campus initiatives, campus culture, campus performance, and continuous improvement.

This researcher has struggled with the issue of causality in relation to high performance and high commitment to the SLC. Does the high performance spring from the high level of Intentionality toward the SLC? Or, does a disposition of high commitment to the SLC by the principal and campus have the effect of high performance? Certainly, the complex and numerous other variables in the milieu have some impact as well. Those confounding and mediating variables, both tangible and intangible, could include elements of school context, the cultural components of the school, the history of adult-student relationships in the school, the personalities of the principal and other adult leaders in the school, the resources available to the principal for non-academic undertakings, etc. There does, however, seem to be evidence of a significant relationship in high SOE and high levels of Intentionality toward the SLC.

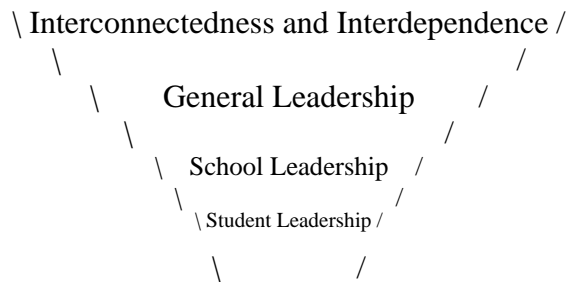
Summary

Analysis of data is, perhaps, the most difficult component in any study. Trying to take the myriad of hard and soft data, view it from as many perspectives as possible, diminish the impact of researcher bias, tease from it non-trivial conclusions, and assemble those findings in some coherent way to a broader audience is the challenge for any serious researcher. The work is especially, but not exclusively, challenging for studies of social phenomena. Sowell (1995) puts it this way:

The point here is that inferences cannot be made *either way* from the bare fact of statistical differences. Nor does it necessarily help to “control” statistically for other variables. Most social phenomena are sufficiently complex – with data on many variables being either unavailable or inherently unquantifiable – that often such control is itself illusory. (p. 37)

Certainly, this study is not the anomaly in that respect. The general emergent themes of the study have been documented in this chapter.

When discussing the findings of any study the researcher is compelled to frame those findings against the theoretical underpinnings of the study. That discussion for this study is best undertaken against the constructs of the literature review shown below.



To be certain, the themes that emerged through the study and that were discussed above have relevance at each level shown in the inverted pyramid. At every stage of the study the constructs of interconnectedness and interdependence (as articulated by Bohm, 1980, and Wheatley, 1999) were reinforced. Clearly, the preponderance of principals interviewed understood, either intuitively or otherwise, that the actions and reactions of

individuals, groups, and subgroups within their respective organizations had the power to impact the actions of others and the performance of the campus.

As well, the data collected reinforced clearly that the principals interviewed were all students, to some extent, of general leadership and school leadership constructs. The principals, in this respect, can only be thought of as learners-in-process with regard to their understandings of, and skills in working within, these constructs. If thought of as being placed on a leadership-learner continuum, the principals would fall all along that continuum, but with all moving toward higher levels of understanding. How to measure their respective proficiencies therein was not the purpose of this study, although those proficiencies (or lack thereof) had/have important bearing on their ability to engage, enlist, and develop the SLC on their respective campuses. Perhaps the most useful framework to use to reference the level of activation and understanding of the principals in this regard are the eight characteristics of principle-centered leaders described by Covey (1991) that included: 1) they are continually learning; 2) they are service-oriented; 3) they radiate positive energy; 4) they believe in other people; 5) they lead balanced lives; 6) they see life as an adventure; 7) they are synergistic; and 8) they exercise for self-renewal. While other and useful models are available for referencing the understanding and actions of the principals in the sample (Collins, 2001, and Goleman, 2002, are worthy cases in point) with relation to the general leadership and school leadership constructs, the Covey model is appropriate and adequate. Bolman and Deal (2002) provide a very useful theoretical reference framework from the school leadership

perspective. Ultimately, the data from the study reinforces and shows great similarity to the assertions of the models referenced.

Finally, the researcher must square the findings of the study against the theoretical underpinnings of student leadership in general. As has been mentioned, the lion's share of the work in student leadership literature and theory has been done by Karnes and her various colleagues over time ranging from 1985 to 1995 (see Reference section of this study). As well, the collaboration of van Linden and Fertman (1998, 1999) add richly to the construct. Finally, the work of Ackerm and Boccia (1997) provides the most concrete of frameworks when thinking about how best to consider the SLC construct. They advise principals to be serious with students about the construct, to recognize the students' right to ownership in that construct, to support students in varied ways through their leadership development, to expect students to fully rise to the occasion when tapped, to have the highest expectations for students as they deploy their leadership skills, to trust the students, to "give no slack" (p. 38), to hold no prejudices about which students can and cannot be successful in the leadership culture, and to be purposefully relentless in activating and engaging the student leaders on one's campus. The findings of this study, in the most fully engaging examples, are highly congruent with these assertions and recommendations.

As the SLC Model was developed and examined, flowing first from the literature and then progressively from the data collection and analysis process, there emerged reinforcement of the need for a useful model and of most of the elements of the SLC Model itself. While revisions are needed (as is the case with most models), the SLC

Model development appears to have relatively strong reinforcement from the findings as they are framed against the applicable theoretical bases.

The following chapter contains the conclusions that were drawn from the study.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study was conducted to initially test the appropriateness and usefulness of the Student Leadership Culture (SLC) Model, which was developed by the researcher. A survey was designed and disseminated to high school principals across the state of Texas to probe the level of commitment of the principal and/or campus, termed Intentionality, toward the development of the student leaders on the respective campuses, in the interest of improving the performance of the campus as an effective organization. The survey was designed not as a statistical measurement device, but rather as a tool by which the researcher could identify reporting principals who deemed themselves and/or their campuses to have interestingly high or low levels of commitment to the SLC. As well, the researcher was interested in discerning the Intentionality toward the SLC of principals of some interestingly high- or low- performing campuses, termed in this study to be School Organizational Effectiveness (SOE). Using Intentionality and SOE as bases for coordinates the researcher then identified 14 principals of high interest for interviews and observation.

The qualitative data resulting from these interviews provided the basis by which the SLC Model could be examined. As was discussed in Chapter V, all 14 of the Process Dimensions of the SLC Model received either moderate or strong reinforcement in the data, save one. The SLC Model appears to be a well-supported construct and to hold the prospect of usefulness and relevance in the study of student leadership, except for the

possible needed exclusion of the Global View indicator and the possible combining of the Communicative Rapport and Collaborative Proficiency indicators. As well, consistent with Grounded Theory studies, additional themes emerged from the data. Those, too, were discussed at length in Chapter V.

A number of conclusions can be drawn from this study. As well, other implicating factors emerged that are worthy of noting, since they appeared to have an impact on efforts of principals and campuses in working with the Student Leadership Culture (SLC). Clean and emphatically conclusive findings did not emerge, and were not expected to, by this researcher at least. The desire of this researcher was to discover and help define elements related to the development of the SLC and provide a clearer picture of how those efforts might contribute (or not) to the School Organizational Effectiveness (SOE) of high school campuses. With that in mind, the conclusions of the study follow.

The SLC Model and Its Relevance

Since the study was designed to develop and test an a priori model of student leadership that might serve some useful purpose for educators and researchers in the future, it is appropriate that an assessment of that development and testing be the first conclusion addressed. Did the model serve as an appropriate and adequate vehicle by which to study student leadership?

The answer to that question is one of mixed results. Of the 14 Process Dimensions in the model, most proved to be sufficiently supported in the data to warrant inclusion in the evolution of the model. Clearly, Responsibility, Communicative

Rapport, Service Orientation, Self Awareness, Self Regulation, Goal Orientation, Relationship Management Prowess, and Learning Focus were prominent components in the data. As well, Collaborative Proficiency, Decision Making Capability, Respect for Diversity, Conflict Resolution, and Others Awareness warranted significant appearance in the totality of the data and, in the opinion of this researcher, should continue to be included in the model. Global View was the least mentioned of the Process Dimensions and the one that deserves scrutiny. Global View was also the component rated last in the hierarchy of Process Dimensions by the panel of student leadership experts who provided guidance early in the development of the model. The conclusion of this researcher is that Global View should probably be removed as a critical indicator (Process Dimension) in subsequent versions of the SLC Model.

Principal Tenure

One of the more discouraging elements of this study was the revelation of the high fluidity and attrition rate among high school principals. Of the 14 principals interviewed, nine had less than two years of service on their current campuses. Only three of the principals had more than five years of service. This representation of response was one of the more intriguing elements in the study. One can only speculate as to the reasons that such a preponderance of the principals responding had so little experience in the chair of the lead principal. Perhaps this ratio of early-service principals to veteran principals is representative of the ratios in the entire population. Or, perhaps early-service principals are more inclined to respond to requests for interviews by a

researcher. Or, it may be that early-service principals have a more intense interest in engaging the student leaders on their respective campuses toward performance improvement. This researcher can only conclude that this distinction of the study represents another of those mediating variables previously discussed.

As the leaders of campuses principals represent critical catalysts and lynchpins for the deployment and sustainability of initiatives. Commitment to student leadership development is, as revealed by the data, most likely to thrive when supported (or even driven) by the principal on the campus. That understanding is one of the reasons this researcher chose to only interview campus principals. It seems evident and obvious that any long-term efforts at student leadership development are greatly compromised in an environment that cannot or does not promote tenures of any length for the principal. While it is not necessarily the focus of this study, it is a concern that includes and goes beyond the development and enlistment of student leadership.

Schedules and Student Leadership Development

One of the derivative findings of this study, while not necessarily a theme, is the impact of scheduling format on the development and/or enlistment of student leaders. Schools that continue to have 8-period schedules (whatever format those eight periods may follow) demonstrated a higher level of ability to invest time, resources, and personnel to the development of student leaders. Schools with only seven periods in the schedule (none were studied that had only 6-period schedules) were at a disadvantage with respect to the development of student leaders.

The driver of this issue is complex and convoluted, at best. Many, but not all, of the schools offering seven periods choose to have a 7-period schedule for reasons such as the guarantee of daily meeting time for all classes. Many schools (and districts) adopt the 7-period schedule as a function of limited financial resources (the rationale for this is far too lengthy to include in this study). State graduation requirements in Texas now call for all students to have at least 22 credits for graduation. In schools that offer only seven periods in the schedule, students may acquire a total of only 28 credits over the expected four years of high school membership. Students enrolled in such a school then have the opportunity, over four years, to take six additional elective courses of interest to them. Or, as is the case in some schools, certain additional class requirements may be prescribed by the school.

In comparison, in schools that offer an 8-period schedule students can conceivably accumulate 32 credits over four years in high school. Students enrolled in these schools have not six, but 10 opportunities to take elective classes of their interest and choosing. When active students fill these additional electives with athletic, fine arts, or advanced classes (which is quite frequent among the subset of students who are often considered to be leaders on the campuses), there is added opportunity (compared to a 7-period schedule) to include classes like Student Leadership, Teen Leadership, Peer Assisted Leadership, or other commonly offered leadership development classes.

One of the conclusions of this study is that schools which have 8-period schedules tend to have more formal offerings in the schedule for the development of student leaders. While it is not exclusively the case, it is frequently the case.

Rhetoric and Action

As the field research was conducted with the principals and campuses of interest, one of the more interesting revelations was the frequency of disconnect between what was espoused versus what was practiced. In numerous cases, principals indicated a high level of belief in the value of student leaders on their respective campuses; however, the researcher found evidence that the espoused theory was significantly different than the theory in practice. Certainly, this is not the first time such discrepancies have occurred in research. Breunig (2005) notes similar incongruence between espoused theory and theory in practice. In speaking of that disconnection in the field of education she states:

There exists a lack of congruence between the pedagogical theories and the actual classroom practices. Freire, an inaugural philosopher of both pedagogies, encourages educators to join him on his professional mission of the search for “unity between theory and practice” (McLaren, 2000, p. 5).

As this researcher lives and works in the world of high school principals, these findings were not surprising. Especially in an environment of high and increasing expectations, principals have evolved over time into marketing experts, of sorts. While this study was not intended to be an examination of the communication prowess of principals, nor of their ability to be spinmeisters, there is no doubt that what principals say, how they say it, and why they say it are elements that have great bearing on the findings of the study. The researcher found in several instances that the principal could and did speak articulately to the systems in place designed to identify and develop the

student leaders on the campus. When probed further by the researcher for documents and/or specific examples these principals could not provide concrete evidence to support their assertions. Don, a case in point, gradually shifted his conversation from the what-we-are-doing perspective to a what-I-plan-to-do perspective when the questions of the researcher appeared to be more probing than his comfort level could accommodate.

While Don's intentions are not in question, either his view of the realities on the ground or his integrity in reporting must be questioned by a thoughtful researcher. The issue of rhetoric versus action is one in which introduced some degree of angst for the researcher. How to ascribe a level of honesty to a participant is a difficulty that must be adequately and appropriately addressed. For the most part, this researcher was willing to take the principals at their word if at least some corroborating data in the triangulation process could be identified.

The Recursive Trio: Context, Culture, Performance

The purpose of the study was to explore how, through the eyes of high school principals, student leaders impact school organizational effectiveness. From the data collected and analyzed, it is clear to this researcher that there is a relationship between student leaders and the effectiveness of the school as an organization. What is not clear is the causality in the relationship.

The context of the schools and principals appeared to have significant bearing on the level of Intentionality demonstrated toward the development of student leaders. The history of the school, the location of the school, the clientele served by the school, the

current successes (or failures) of the school, and the constructivist evolution of the principal all appeared to contribute in ways small and large to the commitment of the principal and the campus to student leaders and their development.

As well, the culture of the school clearly impacted, and was impacted by, the student leadership component. The shared values, beliefs, and norms of the campuses clearly had a role in the activation of, and the acceptance of, overt and covert displays of student leadership. Some of the campuses and principals fully embraced, expected, and incorporated demonstrations of leadership by the students into the fabric of the daily undertaking of their missions. The cultures of some of the campuses seemed to epitomize many of those Process Dimensions of the SLC, such as Self Awareness, Self Regulation, Others Awareness, Relationship Management, and Service Orientation.

High performing campuses tended to have more systems in place, and to dedicate more resources, time, and personnel to student leadership development and enlistment. Does that commitment cause the high performance or is it the result of the high performance? Collins and his team (2001) outlined the dichotomy they described as the Fly Wheel and the Doom Loop. In the dichotomy, they articulate how consistently exceptionally high performing organizations, by purposefully focusing time and attention on the most important missions and customers of the organization, tended to create a self-perpetuating cycle of energy, synergy, and success which they called the Fly Wheel. On the other hand, Collins' group painted a picture of organizations who perpetually under perform. These organizations they described with the metaphor of the Doom Loop; they tended to be captive to reactive practices, constantly dealing with crisis, subject to high

turnover in personnel, always “on fire”. This researcher sees evidence of the same type of Doom Loop and Fly Wheel conceptualizations at work in the high schools studied.

Voice

One of the most interesting themes to emerge from the data in this study was the theme of student Voice. Again and again, principals articulated either specific actions or ambiguous constructs that alluded to their desire and commitment to giving the students on their campuses Voice. This idea is not a construction of these particular principals; many others have noted the need and value for attending to student voice (Ackerm & Boccia, 1997; Carr, Jonassen, Litzinger, & Marra, 1998; Lincoln, 1995; McLaren, 1989; McKibben, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2000). Barth (1990) describes the negative organizational impact when voices of key stakeholders, like students, are muted. Heifetz and Laurie (1997) talk of organizational importance of protecting the voices of leadership “from below”. Etzioni (1993) asserts that there is a moral imperative in providing voice to all the members of an organization or community. Aronowitz and Giroux (1991) reinforce the same concept. Finally, Covey (2004) describes the personal and organizational self-actualization that can and does occur when key organizational members (like students) are given voice. What was evident to this researcher was the attractive organizational health, the culture, the climate of the schools which effectively gave Voice to their students. Mit was one of the principals in the study. He spoke of an initiative on his campus, a campus undergoing significant restructuring work, which he called Student Voice. The student leaders in Student Voice were being given a role in the decision

making processes not only designed to improve their school, but also to work in tandem with community leaders to affect an improved community. Mit convinced the researcher through his articulation of intentions for Student Voice that he fully expected the students therein to have real decision making power on the campus (this was not a sense that the researcher got from a number of the principals who spoke to the importance of student Voice). Etzioni (1993) would likely be proud.

Reflecting on the Research Questions

Any study is driven by some guiding research questions. Rarely are those questions easily answered, and most often they generate more, and more difficult, questions. This study proposed the following research questions:

- How do high school principals view student leaders in the context of the campus leadership culture?
- How do high school principals develop/engage/enlist the student leadership component on high school campuses to affect improved campus effectiveness?
- In what ways do student leaders have an impact on school culture and organizational effectiveness?

Answers to these questions have been at least partially discovered through this study. With a few notable exceptions the principals interviewed in this study tended to place significant value on the student leaders of their respective campuses. They viewed the student leaders as critical players on the campus with regard to analyzing the status of the campus, developing strategies to improve the campus, planning the actions needed to

affect an improvement in the performance or environment of the campus, and executing those plans.

While the degree to which principals put systems in place to develop, engage, and enlist the student leaders on their campuses varied widely, virtually all the principals spoke to processes or systems designed to do just that. The underlying premise to this deployment is that the principals must, in fact, see this subgroup of their campus as capable of having some significant impact on the performance of the campus as an organization or on the impact of the culture of the campus. In fact several of the principals spoke directly to this point. Eve said:

I think you would have to be naïve or have blinders on to not think that student leaders have an impact on your campus. Student leaders impact your campus, either positively or negatively. And I think that engaging the student leaders at least directs their leadership in getting them to become engaged with the learning process so that they feel their high school years are meaningful to them.

Jan noted:

They (student leaders) have a tremendous impact. A lot of the programs and initiatives we're trying to do have a direct relationship on how students feel here and how they're basically treated and how they're a part of the whole process, because the students ARE this campus. They've got to feel they're a main part of what's going on here.

Mit, in response to a question about whether student leaders impact the performance of the campus, said, “Yes, if they feel part of the school, they will perform better. If they take on ownership, then they’ll want the school to be successful.”

Contributions of the Study

This study makes a contribution to our understanding of schools and their effectiveness in several ways. First, any time reflective practitioners take the time to carefully examine their own practices and frame those against the practices of others, the profession is advanced in positive ways. This study has been a vehicle for gleaning meaningful data, provided analysis of that data, and conveyed that analysis in some coherent manner to others. When this study is considered by educational practitioners, educational theorists, curriculum developers, and organizational behaviorists, it will add to their knowledge base as they continue with the challenging and significant work of continuous improvement in schools. If this study contributes in some way to those efforts, then students’ education and lives will be improved. If one subscribes to the theories of interconnectedness and interdependence (discussed in Chapter III), then there will also be consequent benefit for the larger human community.

The abstract for this study starts with the following two sentences: “Leadership is a construct that has many facets, attributes, and nuances. In the gestalt of school leadership roles, the student leadership component is part of the overall leadership culture.” The implications of this study for both theory and practice embody several possibilities. The differing levels of leadership study, including general considerations, school leadership

considerations, and student leadership considerations, have received reinforcement and support from the data that emerged herein. While numerous models of those leadership constructs and theories have been discussed throughout the study, the SLC Model was conceived and derived from the synthesis of those models as a useful and appropriate conceptual framework to study student leadership in particular. This researcher believes there is ample evidence from this study to support that supposition. Upon reflection, the SLC Model (with revision possibilities that have been discussed) may even hold the prospect of being a useful construct for the study of leadership beyond the narrowly defined subgroup of student leaders.

As per the implications of the study for practice, there appears to be the prospect of usefulness. The complex milieu in which school principals work and in which schools as organizations function are, without doubt, an amalgam of contextual, cultural, and interpersonal interplay. The student leadership culture is clearly a subgroup of the larger organization and its impact on the performance of the organization is, at least in part, substantiated through this study. That leads to the question for reflective practitioners of how best to activate that subgroup in the interest of improved school performance. Evidence and examples of principals and schools that have effective student leadership development systems in place (that were a part of the sample of this study) can serve as useful case studies for practitioners interested in furthering their organizational goals through this avenue. Moreover, the colleagues known to this researcher, who is also a high school principal, are generally perpetually engaged in the process of grappling – grappling to find better ways to improve performance, better ways to build the capacity

of organizational members, better ways to affect climate and cultural self-actualization within the organization. The findings and conclusions of this study hold the prospect of supporting reflective practitioners of this nature in that process of grappling.

Further Study Needed

Klein (2001) states:

What are the criteria for doing a scientific piece of research? Simply, that the data are collected so that others can repeat the study and that the inquiry depends on evidence and data rather than argument. For work such as ours, replication means that others could collect data the way we have and could also analyze and code the results as we have done. (p. 290)

He continues:

The rigorous nature of laboratory research increases our confidence that we can replicate the results, but the rigor does not ensure that we can generalize the results. Orasanu and Connolly (1993) have questioned whether findings that are carefully obtained under laboratory conditions apply outside the laboratory. (p. 291)

The findings of this study are certainly unique, not in the sense that the study was particularly insightful or represents some epiphany, but in that the participants are unique, and their stories are unique. While other researchers can and might follow the same design and ask essentially the same questions and observe the same settings, the data they might collect would no doubt differ from the data collected in this study. The nature of

social science research, whether quantitative or qualitative, is that the data are representative only of the place, the time, and the context of that particular moment. One cannot reasonably hope to generalize the findings of such a study; even the exact same design and processes would generate slightly different data a day, a week, a month, a year, or a decade later. Rather, one can hope that the knowledge generated from such a study proves to be transferable in some meaningful way to the work of others or to the field in general. As the researcher, one always sees the holes and the flaws in a study and is acutely in tune to the limitations thereof. Researchers are constantly asking, “What am I missing here? What am I not asking that begs asking?”

Research almost always generates more questions, thus the need for more study. The impact of student leaders on the climate of a campus and on the performance of a campus was established in this study. There are a number of possible studies that could follow from this work. The SLC Model certainly needs refinement and revision. Studies designed to make the model more useful are needed. More study is needed on the impact of student leaders on the performance and culture of campuses, studies that include data collected from students, from teachers, from parents, and from community members. More study is needed with regard to student leadership in relation to gender, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity. One of the most obvious findings of this study was the haphazardness of student leadership development programming.

From a methodological perspective there is the need to develop a useful, reliable, and valid survey instrument that can generate quantitative data related to the SLC Model (assuming that some members of the research community find value in the model).

While the survey in this study was not designed specifically to generate quantitative data, it could provide an initial framework for revision and refinement toward that end.

Finally, more study is also needed with the intent of providing knowledge useful to the effective design and deployment of programming and curriculum that can provide meaningful and replicable processes for the development of student leaders.

Conclusions

As an exploratory study, it seems obvious to this researcher this study is a decent start – but just a start. The SLC Model is/was a worthy undertaking. As is most of the meaningful work of the social sciences, this project has proven to be messy and unwieldy. Walking the hair-thin line of the qualitative debate over what is science and what is not, this researcher has been ever mindful of the complexities and precariousness involved in the work. In Denzin's (1997) comments about what he calls the "sixth moment" he states:

Dichotomous (science and antiscience) and stereotypical thinking will not solve sociology's institutional problems. Nor can sociology's long legacy of radical democracy be quieted. There is, however, too much at stake to allow Huber's voice and reading of the field to go unchallenged. Perhaps these new voices she fears will bring sociology back home to that vital core of concerns C. Wright Mills (1959) called the sociological imagination. It is hoped this will happen because it is clear that objections to the postmodern irrationalists involve

more than disputes over epistemology or getting one's house in order. The material existence of an entire discipline is at stake. (p. 259)

In the view of this researcher, having a deeper understanding of the construct of student leadership and its consequent impact on schools, and thus on society, is an issue that demands the attention of committed educators. As educators we are compelled to be the architects of ever better social designs of the schools we serve. Block (2002) puts it well:

The task of the social architect is to design and bring into being organizations that serve both the marketplace and the soul of the people who work within them.

Where the architect designs physical space, the social architect designs social space. (p. 171)

There is not pretense that this work is easy. Heifetz and Linsky (2002) allude to the difficulty, "Thus, leadership requires disturbing people – but at a rate they can absorb" (p. 20).

Contributing in some meaningful way to the work of reflective practitioners who are committed to improving education (and thus society) as we know it is the professed egotistical motive of this researcher. To contribute, in effect, a strange attractor as described by Pascale et al., (2000) would be a welcome outcome. They note:

Drawn by the strange attractor, we evolve, perhaps temporarily, into individuals who are different and better, which suddenly and unexpectedly increases the odds of our making a future aspiration a reality. Being the right way makes doing the right thing a lot more likely. And for that outcome we can thank

strange attractors, which sometimes galvanize organizations – which is to say, all of us – to achieve greatly. (p. 73)

The researcher discerned in several of the conversations with principals the likelihood that some of those principals had not really considered carefully the impact that student leaders may have on their campuses. It was evident through the give and take of the questioning sessions that considerations of the possible impact of those students were taking on new possibilities in the minds of said principals. One could imagine the mental shift occurring as the possibilities for the impact on the performance of the schools was occurring.

Introspectively, the researcher went through mental vacillations as well. Is the subject of the development of student leaders truly non-trivial? Can systems be put in place to purposefully develop and nurture student leaders, with some degree of replicability? Can student leaders really have meaningful impact in positive ways on the performance and climate of campuses? If so, what might be the derivative effects on a community, or society? Handy (2002) makes an insightful commentary in relation to those questions: “I consoled myself with the observation of the philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer that all truth passes through three stages. First it is ridiculed. Second it is opposed. Third it is accepted as being self-evident” (p. 5). And, “Then I remembered that great quote from Bernard Shaw about all change coming from unreasonable men, because the reasonable ones expect the world to go on much as it always has” (p. 189).

Being committed to continuous improvement in/for schools is and has been the modus operandi of this researcher. But why? Fullan (2003) speaks of it as a moral

imperative. That seems to square with the understandings of this researcher. Fullan states: “What I am saying is that the driver should be moral purpose and that all other capacities (e.g., knowledge of the change process, building professional learning communities) should be in the service of moral purpose” (p. 30). What is the moral purpose of which Fullan speaks? Making a difference at the individual, school, regional, and societal level. And how does Fullan prescribe making these differences? He posits that school principals must foster a culture that has the expectation of respect, competence, personal regard for others, and integrity; this culture must become embedded across all stakeholders in the school community, students included.

Return now to the assertion of Senge et al., (2004):

Not only does overreliance on measurement doom modern society to continuing to see a world of things rather than relationships, it also gives rise to the familiar dichotomy of the “hard stuff” (what can be measured) versus the “soft stuff” (what can’t be measured). If what’s measurable is “more real,” it’s easy to relegate the soft stuff, such as the quality of interpersonal relationships and people’s sense of purpose in their work, to a secondary status. This is ironic because the soft stuff is often the hardest to do well and the primary determinant of success or failure.” (p. 192)

This researcher assumes the construct of student leadership and the development thereof more to the “soft stuff” end of the “stuffness” continuum. In effect, this is an acknowledgement of the difficulty of designing and conducting a study to measure such a nebulous construct. What can such a study possibly hope to produce?

Consider how, having spent a day in a museum, intensely studying art in its various forms. When one steps out of that environment, after a day of deep contemplation, the world seems to have changed to the eye. One notices lines, color, texture, and subtlety in the “outside world” in a more vivid way than before entering the museum. This study has had that impact on the author. Seeing the interesting and complex work of committed and skillful practitioners, and hearing them articulate their plans, their struggles, their desires for the students they serve, makes the world and work of this educator more vivid, more real, more meaningful. Perhaps, in some vicarious way, the reader has gained a similar experience.

While there is never an end to truly quality research, there must be an end to the product – periods put in place, deadlines met. Let the end of this product be an example of what can be, what might be. Ann, one of the principals in the study who demonstrated high Intentionality toward the development of students as leaders, and one who had the most effective systems in place for the development of those students, shared the following product of one of her classes:

Class Vision Statement

Here’s to never forgetting the roots that provide the foundation for our future and doing all things in life with passion for laughing, learning, and loving. Here’s to learning from each other and using our individual aspirations as a base to build our way to new heights of fulfillment. Here’s to never losing our thirst for knowledge or being afraid to make mistakes, for it is only by risking failure that we can become stronger. Here’s to making our actions reflect our words, our

words reflect our thoughts and our thoughts reflect our character. Here's to remaining firm in our beliefs yet being open-minded enough to respect those of others. Here's to looking into the past with a smile and a nod, living in the present in the fullest sense, and anticipating the future with hope, determination, and conviction. Here's to the world as it is. Here's to the world as we'll make it. Here's to us.

Covey (2004) says that inspiring others to find their Voice is the leadership challenge. He says, "Simply put – leadership is communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it themselves" (p. 98).

Indeed!

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APPENDIX A

INTENTIONALITY-SOE TABLE (SAMPLE)

		Responsibility	Collaborative Proficiency	Decision Making Capability	Respect for Diversity	Communicative Rapport	Service Orientation	Self-Awareness	Self-Regulation	Goal Orientation	Relationship Management Prowess	Conflict Resolution	Others Awareness	Learning Focus	Global View				
Campus	Principal																		
1	1	4	2	2	3	3	5	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4				
2	2	2	4	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	2				
3	3	2	2	3	4	2	3	2	2	3	2	4	3	4	3				
4	4	3	2	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	2	3	4	4	4				
5	5	4	3	5	4	5	3	3	3	4	1	5	3	5	4				
		Intentionality Sums	Dependent Variable Total		% Students Met TAKS Standard	% Students Commended Performance	Attendance Rate	Completion Rate I	% Student in Advanced Courses	% Students w/ Recommended Diploma or Higher	A/P/TB Results	College English Readiness	College Math Readiness	SAT/ACT Results	SAT Mean Score	ACT Mean Score	Dependent Variable Total		
State Ave. Benchmark Data					62.00	10.00	95.70	91.90	19.90	68.40	17.40	39.00	48.00	61.90	987.00	20.10			
Campus	Principal																		
1	1	101	9.36		0.47	1.30	0.00	0.07	1.58	0.23	3.37	1.10	0.85	0.00	0.18	0.21	9.36		
2	2	76	6.45		0.40	1.00	0.01	0.07	0.91	0.17	1.90	0.31	0.79	0.48	0.17	0.23	6.45		
3	3	85	6.32		0.45	0.20	-0.01	0.03	1.81	0.12	1.26	1.00	0.65	0.41	0.17	0.22	6.32		
4	4	94	4.15		0.35	0.50	0.02	0.07	0.30	0.16	0.88	0.28	0.67	0.59	0.14	0.19	4.15		

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APPENDIX B

INTERPRETATION MATRIX OF SLC MODEL

Appendix B, Interpretation Matrix of SLC Model – Emergent Theme Frequency

< Principal	Responsibility	Collaborative Proficiency	Decision Making Capability	Respect for Diversity	Communicative Rapport	Service Orientation	Self Awareness	Self Regulation	Goal Orientation	Relationship Management Prowess	Conflict Resolution	Others Awareness	Learning Focus	Global View	Voice	Analytical Capability	Improvement Focus	Dedicate Time/Personnel/Resources	Capacity Building	Performance Impact	Cultural Impact
Ann	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Bob						Y															Y
Cat				Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y			Y						
Don		Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y					Y		Y			Y	Y
Eve	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Fen	Y					Y						Y	Y		Y					Y	Y
Gus	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Hal	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y				Y		Y			Y	Y		Y
Ima	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Jan	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y			Y	Y	Y	Y
Ken	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y			Y	Y	Y	Y
Lee	Y				Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y			Y	Y	Y	Y
Mit	Y	Y	Y		Y			Y	Y	Y							Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Ned	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Close Full Screen