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College Leadership Programs and Citizenship Development: Preparing Students to be Agents of Social Change

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College Leadership Programs and Citizenship Development:
Preparing Students to be Agents of Social Change

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
The Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling, and Foundations

by

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BBA., University of St. Thomas, 1995
MBA., University of St. Thomas, 1999

May, 2008

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares them for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this multi-case investigation explored the differences between how curricular and co-curricular leadership development programs approach citizenship development. Students' perspectives and experiences were collected through interviews. Document review and interviews with program administrators were also conducted during the data collection process. A case report for each leadership development program was compiled in order to manage all raw data collected. Interviews were audio taped and transcribed for analysis. Data analysis included cross-case analysis, partially ordered meta-matrices, and the use of taxonomies. The results of the study may provide student affairs administrators with empirical based knowledge regarding student values that will offer guidance and recommendations in altering program structure in order to prepare students be active citizens in their community.

Keywords: Higher Education; Leadership Development; Leadership Programs; Citizenship Development; Political Engagement; Service Engagement.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The American higher education system has played a vital role in developing students as better leaders and citizens (Astin & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Bukhardt, 1999).

Historically, a primary focus in early American colleges was to prepare students to be civically and socially responsible in their communities, as well as take on leadership roles to promote the betterment of the people (McIntire, 1989). Much of discussion as to how and why institutions should be involved in preparing individuals for community engagement is philosophical in nature (Rhoads, 1998); however, there is empirical evidence that higher education does positively influence students commitment to their community (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996). While the degree to which they accomplish this has been debatable (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, Burkhardt, 2001), many institutional mission statements indeed reflect the goal of leadership and citizen development (Boatman, 1999; Ehrlich, 2000). As such, through its development of student leadership and civic participation, colleges and universities can make a difference in the problems faced by the surrounding communities and greater society through acts of citizenry (Kezar, 2004).

A popular notion regarding citizenship is that “citizens are made, not born; it takes deliberate efforts to prepare young people to participate effectively and wisely in public life” (Levine, 2006, p 3). Unfortunately, many educators have expressed concern in regard to civic preparation consisting of an increase in individualistic values coupled with weakening social trust and decreasing civic skills. This is accompanied by a long trend of young adults disengaging in political involvement (Levine). Consequently, the Carnegie Foundation reported, “if there is a crisis in education it is that we have failed to provide the education for citizenship

that is still the...responsibility of...schools and colleges (Ehrlich, p.3). Critics stated that there has not been sufficient dialogue in the educational community regarding what young adults must learn in order to function well in a democratic society (Damon, 2006).

On a broad level, citizenship education can be viewed as a continuum that starts in childhood and continues through adulthood. However, citizenship development is more than learning about civics in a history class. This traditional history class type of citizenship development no longer meets the citizenship needs of this nation (Cogan and Derricott, 1998). Scholars acceded that there are failings in citizenship development throughout the schools and universities. Too many students are not receiving the necessary personal development and value clarification needed to implement social change in the community (Cunningham, 1977; Damon, 2006).

Many students enter college with a narrow comprehension of what one needs to know to be a civically minded individual and unfortunately believe that they are not capable of enacting change through behavior (Ehrlich, 2000). Although colleges historically have played a substantial role in helping students develop as citizens, “there are signs that contemporary college students may not be acquiring – or enacting – the civic values fundamental to democratic citizenship” (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003, p 153). Some of the most important civic skills necessary for civic engagement, including both community and political activity, are usually not included in academic coursework on most college campuses (Kirlin, 2002). When this occurs, students either seek off campus opportunities that can provide the student these competencies or the student becomes disengaged in the citizenship responsibilities. Students participating in the 2001 Wingspread Summit on Student Engagement declared, “Students look for connections to the community and want higher education to provide them with those connections and opportunities to explore critical social issues” (Wingspread, 2001, p. 6). Although original

institutional missions are grounded in the Jeffersonian values of democratic preparation, unfortunately “declarations are not always converted into practice” (Carnegie & CIRCLE, 2006).

In order to prepare students for acts of civic and social responsibility in their communities, universities must foster the development of the individual student (Ehrlich, 2000). A primary means for such development amalgamates the use of formal student development theory into the everyday practice of the student affairs profession. Many times administrators who are not formally trained in the area of student development question the worth and use of theories (Arnold & King, 1997); however, development theories “provide maps or guides by which to understand the ways individuals and groups experience higher education” (p. viii). Empirically tested theories provide administrators with a better understanding of individual differences and how to address students’ needs, design programs, create policy, and create a supportive environment that promotes growth and change (Arnold & King; Evans et al., 1998).

While there are innumerable theories that foster development in abounding categories, the principal development theories that guide citizenship development involve psychosocial identity, cognitive, moral, and ethical development. Chickering’s Theory of Identity Development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), Perry’s (1980) Forms of Cognitive and Ethical Development and Kolberg’s (1981) Stages of Moral and Ethical Development are all important theories that are used with citizenship development. The application of these theories is often conjoined with student interaction and involvement amid the college environment. Consequently, there have been many studies correlating collegiate involvement to the development of the student through the use of formal theories (Astin, 1993; Dugan, 2006b).

Not only is American higher education grounded in citizenship development, but it is also committed to leadership development. The growth of the citizen as a leader complements the need for values and skills necessary to implement change in the community. Leadership has

been described as a complex phenomenon (Burns, 1978) that constantly changes to meet the needs of a changing society (Yukl, 1989). There are innumerable definitions for the word leadership as well as countless theories to describe the leadership concept (Bass, 1990; Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991). In the early part of the twentieth century, leadership was considered to be an innate characteristic and theories purely revolved around the success of the individual leader in a managerial style. In 1978, Burns proposed a new type of leadership, called transformational leadership, grounded in value and skill development in a collaborative group environment. Noting the intense difference in leadership approaches with the introduction of transformational leadership, Rost proposed two paradigms that categorized the divergent leadership theories. These paradigms were referred to as the industrial paradigm and the emerging post-industrial paradigm. The industrial paradigm encapsulates theories that focus on the personal qualities and skills of the individual leader, (Bass; Burns). As Rost explained, “while the industrialized model of leadership has served the people of the US well since the 1800s, it increasingly ill serves our needs as we approach the fast paced twenty-first century”, (p. 101). He declared that a transformational change in thinking must occur with the conversion to the new post-industrial paradigm and all involved in leadership, from scholars to practitioners, must focus on the development of values and learned skills within a group process.

Within the past twenty years, it was reported that over 600 leadership programs were offered on college campuses across the nation fostering the new leadership beliefs of the post-industrial paradigm (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). These types of leadership programs range from formal academic and/or co-curricular credit-bearing classes to informal leadership activities and training workshops (Boatman, 1999; Posner, 2004). The leadership programs varied by institution and design based on objectives and available resources (Boatman; Posner). In order to enhance overall student development, most programs followed a model of leadership

development derived from one or more leadership development theories. One such theory is the Social Change Model of Leadership Development. This model demonstrates the post-industrial paradigm of leadership development (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991) and incorporates components of citizenship development that include value clarification, skill development, and interpersonal dynamics. The Social Change Model examines the relationship between values and behavior, two of the measurements of civic engagement (Ehrlich, 2000). A primary goal found in both leadership and citizenship theories is the development of students who will make a difference in their community (Astin, 1999; Battistoni, 1997; Komives et al.; Stoneman, 2002). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development is a model found cross-discipline that addressed the concept of change on the individual, group, and community level and illustrates the relations between those three components (HERI, 1996). The model is broad enough to relate to varying type of leadership programs (Dugan, 2006a; HERI).

There are a plethora of studies that provide components that make up a successful leadership program (Gregory & Britt, 1987). Following the post-industrial definition of leadership, most programs focused on valuing social responsibility and skill development that develops leaders for social change in their community (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt). However, some researchers are concerned that institutions do not stress civic involvement and social responsibility in their leadership programs as much as it should be emphasized (Astin & Astin, 2000; Cress et al., 2001; Lloyd, 2006) and believe that leadership programs should be more deliberate in their expectations of developing a socially responsible citizen (Kezar, 2000; Lloyd).

Statement of the Problem

American higher education was founded on the premise of preparing young adults to be better leaders and responsible citizens (Ehrlich, 2000; Kezar, 2004). Furthermore, theorists

contend that the primary purpose of leadership training and programs is to develop students to be *agents of change* through acts of responsible citizenry (Astin & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Bukhardt, 1999). Yet among college students there have been fluctuating degrees of involvement in civic engagement (Astin et al., 1999; Ehrlich, 2000). Although recent studies indicate a moderate strengthening of service activity, interest in political engagement continues to steadily decline among college students (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003; HERI, 2005, Levine, 2005; Westheimer, 2006; Wingspread, 2001). While leadership development programs have shifted towards a value-centered approach following the emergence of the post-industrial paradigm (Komives et al., 1996; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991), due to the rise of individualism there is the indication that college students may not be acquiring the values or exhibiting the behaviors that characterize democratic citizenry (Batson, 1991; Fitch, 1978; Winniford et al. 1995; Friedland & Morimoto, 2006). Nonetheless, there is a problematic trend related to higher education's goals of developing students as responsible citizens (Carnegie & CIRCLE, 2006; Cress et al. 2001; Cunningham, 1977; Damon, 2006; Ehrlich). This goal is apparently being thwarted given the concomitant decline in the kinds of activities and dispositions that promote responsible citizenship. This study will shed light on this discrepancy by examining the design of both a curricular and co-curricular leadership program on two college campuses and exploring how each program addresses student citizenship development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this study investigated the differences between how curricular and co-curricular leadership programs approach citizenship development and explored the students' perspectives and experiences as a way of knowing how value clarification and skill development are applied to civic behavior. The

results of the study will provide student affairs administrators with empirical based knowledge regarding student values that will offer guidance and recommendations in altering program structure in order to prepare students be active citizens in their community. Theoretically, this study will contribute to the overall knowledge base on civic engagement and fill the literature gap of civic engagement in the context of college and universities.

Research Questions

The primary research question that guides this study was: How does involvement in a leadership development program prepare students for responsible citizenship? The secondary research questions are:

1. What are the differences in approaches to citizenship development in a curricular leadership program in comparison to a co-curricular leadership program?
2. What components make up the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
3. What is the purpose / mission of each of the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
4. How are the leadership programs assessed?
5. To what degree do student leaders' values contribute to citizenship?
6. To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement?
7. To what degree do students' behaviors contribute to citizenship?
8. To what degree do student leaders feel empowered to create change in their communities?

Significance of the Study

The American higher education system was founded with a strong civic mission, aimed at producing leaders who would serve their community (Astin, & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999; Cress et al. 2001). Now in the twenty first century, colleges are increasingly being asked to re-evaluate their civic functions and prepare students for their role in society as change agents in the community (Komives et al., 1998; HERI, 1996). The results of this study will provide institutions with insight as to how to direct initiatives in their pursuit of the citizen leader as well as provide insight into student values of altruism and individualism. On a broader level, if students are choosing service over political engagement, student affairs administrators can explore more campus opportunities, as guided by this study, that involve unconventional forms of political involvement.

Additionally, this study examined structure of the informal and formal leadership programs and provided a comparable analysis of how administrators approach civic skill development. Student perception of their ability to apply skill development to civic behavior will be advantageous in understanding student learning and skill transfer. This analysis will provide student affairs administrators, as well as the professional associations, with insightful information so administrators can evaluate the leadership program on their campus and restructure to best fit the order to prepare students be active citizens in their community.

At a time when other institutional priorities often hinder the advancement of intentional leadership programs on campus (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999), the findings from this empirical study grounded in theory will inform purposeful practice. Student affair administrators can employ these findings into program learning objectives and provide substantial outcome assessment of their leadership programs. This may in turn have an impact on institutional priorities, policies, and funding allocation.

Finally, the Carnegie Foundation and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (Carnegie & CIRCLE, 2006) recently made a call for new forms of research on civic engagement in the context of colleges and universities. They stated it is “important that research be designed and interpreted in ways that make it useful to those who influence university policy and relevant to professional organizations” (p. 5). Additionally, researchers were asked to conduct studies on multiple campuses, examine institutional culture, and investigate the integration of a broad range of co-curricular opportunities. This multi-site case study will address the call for research and will contribute to the literature in the areas of citizenship and leadership development.

Conceptual Framework

In preparation for this study, conceptual and theoretical frameworks from varying disciplines including developmental psychology, political science, and education were reviewed. The Social Change Model for Leadership Development, as presented by the Higher Education Research Institute (1996), was selected as the conceptual framework of this study for several reasons. Many of the elementary education and developmental psychology frameworks followed a longitudinal approach from adolescence through adulthood (Flanagan, 2003; Patrick, 2003); ergo, it would be out of the scope of this study. Political science frameworks only focused on the political aspect of citizenship development and did not address the community service component of civic engagement (Kirlin, 2003; Verba, Scholzman, & Brady, 1995)

The Social Change Model embodies the post-industrial paradigm of leadership as a relational process (Komives et al., 1998), but also includes the value and behavioral measurements of civic engagement (Ehrlich, 2000). The model incorporates the primary components of this study in the desired contextual setting of leadership involvement. Although it is a leadership model, it incorporated important concepts discussed in political science

literature which includes skill building, common purpose, and resolving conflict through collaborative efforts (Flanagan, 2003; Kirlin, 2003; Patrick, 2003, Torney-Purta & Vermeer, 2004; Verba et al., 1995). Additionally, the model is broad enough to relate to varying types of leadership development programs regardless of formal or informal program structure. As noted, both the literature on leadership as well as citizenship discusses developing individuals who will make a difference (Astin, 1999; Battistoni, 1997; Komives et al., 1998, Stoneman, 2002). The Social Change Model of Student Leadership Development is the only model found cross discipline that addresses the concept of change.

Two primary goals surround the premise of the model. The first goal addresses student learning and development through self-knowledge and leadership competence. The second goal strives to facilitate a positive social change “for the betterment of others, the community, and society” (HERI, 1996). The Social Change Model explores leadership development from the perspectives of three major components: individual, group, and society (HERI). These components are connected through a relational process grounded in behavior and values – the same elements that are used to measure citizenship development (Ehrlich, 2000). Each component within the model also offers corresponding values, which are referred to as the “Seven C’s” (HERI). Further description of the components and the correlating values will be discussed in greater depth through out the study.

Overview of Methodology

In order to gain insight to the research questions, the qualitative multi-case study was used to examine program structure and participant experience (Creswell, 1994, 1998). A curricular and co-curricular leadership program from two urban research universities were selected as the site locations for this case study. Document review and interviews with both students and program directors served as a primary means of data collection. Eleven students

and three administrators were interviewed in this study. Once access was obtained, the program director was asked to provide recommendations and contact information for students who meet the criteria of this study. The students selected to participate were identified by the following attributes: a) current participant in the leadership program; b) junior or senior level status; and c) current or past member of an organization registered as an official organization within the university structure. All participants signed consent forms prior to the start of the 60-minute interview. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim (Glesne, 1999). Field notes consisting of my thoughts and reflections were used during data analysis (Bogdan & Bilken, 2003) and a case study portfolio was used to organize all of the data collected during this study (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003).

Definition of Terms

The terms listed below will be used throughout this study:

Citizenship is the “process whereby the individual and the collaborative group become responsibly connected to the community and the society” through the involvement in leadership activity. In the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, citizenship is synonymous to the concept of social responsibility (HERI, 1996, p. 23). In this study, the legal status of the citizenship is not addressed.

Citizenship Education is the “concern for the social good lies in the heart of the educational experience” (Rhoads, 1998, p. 276).

Civic Engagement is the involvement in political or service initiatives on the local, state, or national level.

Civic Identity is the development of an “individual and collective senses of responsibility for society, political and moral awareness” (Ehrlich, 2000, p. xxxi). It establishes a connection

between the degree of service and civic participation in childhood and young adulthood with the amount of participation of that same individual later in life (Ehrlich, 2000).

Change is the “ultimate goal of the creative process of leadership – to make the world better” for the community (HERI, 1996, p. 21).

Co-Curricular Leadership Program refers to a leadership program that does not offer academic course credit for involvement in the program.

Community Involvement is a behavioral measure that represents the amount of time and energy an individual devotes to service in their community. The term community involvement is synonymous with the terms “service involvement” or “service” (Astin, 1984; Ehrlich, 2000).

Consciousness of Self means “being aware of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions, that motivate one to take action” (HERI, 1996, p.22).

Congruence is “thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity, and honesty toward others” (HERI, 1996, p. 22).

Commitment is the “psychic energy that motivates the individual to serve and that drives the collective effort. Commitment implies passion, intensity, and duration” (HERI, 1996, p. 22).

Collaboration is to work with others in a common effort (HERI, 1996, p. 22).

Common Purpose means to “work with shared aims and values” (HERI, 1996, p. 23).

Controversy with Civility means to “recognize two fundamental realities of any creative group effort: that differences in viewpoint are inevitable”, and that such differences must be addressed openly but with civility (HERI, 1996, p. 23).

Community Service is an activity performed by an individual or group with the effort to help the community.

Curricular Leadership Program refers to a leadership program that offers course credit.

Non-Positional Organization is an organization that elects their student leader officers from within their own membership base (Dugan, 2006b).

Organization Members are students who have affiliated themselves with the campus organization, and are recognized as being affiliated by other members of the organization. This term is also referred to a “member” throughout this study.

Positional Organization is an organization those officers are elected into their positions by the student body (Dugan, 2006b)

Service Involvement is synonymous with the above definition of “community involvement” that represents the amount of time and energy an individual devotes to service in their community (Astin, 1984; Ehrlich, 2000). The term “service involvement” may be shortened to “service” throughout this study.

Social Responsibility is the “sense of personal responsibility individuals should feel to uphold their obligation as part of any community (Komives et al., 1998, p. 15).

Student Leader is a student who holds a leadership position in an organization on campus. This term is also be referred to as “leader” throughout this study.

Organization of the Study

This chapter provided the overview of the study. The next chapter will present the review of literature that covers aspects of the conceptual framework. Chapter three will present the methodology that will be used in the design of the study and explain why certain approaches are important to this researcher. It will also discuss site selection, selection of participants, and data collection techniques. Data collection will begin following Institutional Review Board approval. Chapter 4 will provide the findings in a rich descriptive format and Chapter 5 will present analysis as well as implications for policy and future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to explore how and to what degree does involvement in a leadership program prepare students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this investigation will examine curricular and co-curricular leadership programs and their impact on citizenship development. Citizenship development at the college level will be explored through perspectives of program administrators and students.

The leadership section of this chapter will take the reader on a journey through time that will describe the evolution of leadership from the industrial paradigm, which focuses on the individual, to the post-industrial paradigm, which introduces the value-laden relational process. The chapter will also describe various leadership models that reflect the post-industrial approach to leadership development. The second part of the chapter will briefly explore the traditional theories that discuss student development. Theories that will be discussed include identity development, intellectual/ethical development, and moral development. The student development theories will offer a foundation of understanding for the next sections that will discuss student leadership development and involvement. These sections will describe the development process of students as they become more involved in leadership activities and training. The section on citizenship will discuss the approaches to citizenship, citizenship skills, the formation of values as well as the trends of political and service engagement. If there is a problematic trend of developing students as responsible citizens (Carnegie & CIRCLE, 2006; Cress et al., 2001; Damon, 2006) and theorists contend that a primary purpose of leadership programs is to develop students to be agents of change through acts of responsible citizenry (Astin & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999), then it is important for this

literature review to address the leadership theories that provide the foundation for leadership programs, how a student develops, and the components of what makes a good citizen. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the conceptual framework that guides the study.

Leadership

Society views leadership as a valued commodity that individuals strive to achieve (Northouse, 2004). It is “one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (Burns, 1978, p. 2); however, in the quest to comprehend the evolving nature of leadership, scholars have yet to arrive at a unanimous decision on the definition of the term “leadership”. Stogdill (1948) remarked that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are people who have attempted to describe the concept” (p. 259). Komives, Lucas, and McMahon, (1998) explained the difficulties of arriving at a single definition due to the “social construction” of the phenomenon. In other words, leadership itself is always changing to meet the needs of a changing society. The concept was also viewed and valued differently depending on discipline and culture (Komives et al., 1998). By its very nature, ‘the term leadership means different things to different people’ (Yukl, 1989, p. 2).

Leadership Theories

Not only are there myriad definitions used to describe leadership, but there were also a multitude of theoretical approaches to explain the complexities of the leadership process (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991). In his attempts to make sense of the “discordant notes in the symphony of leadership studies” in the twentieth century (p. 94), leadership scholar John Rost proposed two paradigms that categorize the leadership theories (Komives et al.; Northouse; Rost). These two paradigms presented two distinct ways of looking at how leadership developed through the years. Rost referred to these two as the industrial paradigm and postindustrial paradigm.

Industrial Paradigm

The industrial paradigm comprised leadership theories that expressed popular leadership views throughout the majority of the twentieth century. The term “industrial” was derived from organizational theories that transpired after the industrial revolution. During this time period, there were great influences of hierarchical authority and position, division of labor, and standardized rules (Kuh, 1995).

Rost (1991) labeled the following theories falling under the industrial paradigm: Great Man, trait, behavior, situational/contingency and influence. The characteristics used to describe the leadership theories in the industrial paradigm were as follows: “1) structural, 2) management-oriented, 3) personalistic in focusing on the leader, 4) goal-achievement, 5) self-interested and individualistic in outlook, 6) male dominated, 7) utilitarian and materialistic, linear, quantitative, and scientific in language and methodology” (p. 27). In the industrial paradigm, Rost equated leadership as good management, but there were also scholars who expressed clear discontent with using leadership and management in a synonymous manner (Yuki, 1989).

Great Man Theory. In the principle based Great Man theory, it was believed that leadership was hereditary and that individuals were born with the characteristics needed to be a great leader (Bass, 1985; Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004). This person was said to have the natural abilities to exert power and influence in the social, political, or military arena. Although some scholars told stories of kings, aristocracy and intermarriage (Komives et al.; Northouse) others disregarded these folklores saying that the stories were merely started around the beginning of the twentieth century when people only thought of great leaders as great men (Rost, 1991).

The Great Man theory was problematic for numerous reasons. The first criticism was that there was no scientific proof that leadership qualities passed on through genetic means

(Komives et al., 1998). The second major criticism was that this elitist theory romanticized the belief that only aristocratic men could be considered a great leader (Komives et al.; Rost, 1991).

Trait Theories. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the second generation of leadership theories shifted attention from the myth to reality. The concept of leadership traits began to emerge as scholars looked beyond the persona of a leader and focused on the characteristics that make a successful leader (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004). Trait theories had been the most widely studied leadership approach and scholars created lists upon lists of characteristics that were said to make a successful leader. In a survey of forty years of trait studies, Stogdill (1948) put forth eight important traits that were associated to the leadership role. They were: insight, intelligence, persistence, self-confidence, alertness, initiative, responsibility, and sociability.

The theory introduced the components of leader, situation, and follower, but noticeably focused more on the leader element (Bass, 1990; Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004; Stogdill, 1948). The theory also told little about how individuals fit a situation (Komives et al.; Northouse). For instance, a person may be a good leader in one situation, but the individual traits did not always reproduce the same level of leadership in another situation. Although this theory was valuable for the individual leader, practitioners realized that this theory was not relevant for training purposes. Thus, the behavior theoretical approaches emerged from the deficiencies of the trait theory (Komives et al.; Northouse; Rost).

Behavioral Theory. The Trait theory focused on the characteristics of the leaders, whereas, the Behavioral Theory called attention to the leaders' capabilities (Northouse, 2004). Although many studies had been conducted on the behavior approach, the research efforts at The Ohio State University and The University of Michigan (in the 1940's and 1950's) pioneered research in this particular leadership approach (Northouse). The research conducted at these

universities specifically studied the behavior a person used when leading a group (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse). From this study, researchers created the most well known leadership model of the industrial era called the Managerial Grid, later renamed the Leadership Grid (Northouse). The grid assisted leaders in reaching their fullest potential through concern for people and production. Data showed that effective and successful leaders demonstrated a high concern for both people and production (Komives et al.; Northouse; Yukl, 1989). Although this approach offered a method to understand the “complexities” of leadership, it still failed to provide a leadership style that could be used in all situations (Yukl). Northouse reiterated that at times the leader would need to exert more task behaviors; whereas in different situations, the need for supportive behavior may be more appropriate.

Situational / Contingency Theories. Situational theories began to emerge in the 1950’s and remained in the mainstream of leadership style until the 1980’s. The situational theory acknowledged that in order to be effective, leaders must adapt how they approached a situation by means of altering their style or behavior. The situation determines who emerged as a leader and what behaviors were needed at the time (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004).

Many influential studies had been conducted and models emerged out of these studies: Fidler’s Least Preferred Co-Worker /LPC Model (Komives et al.; Yukl, 1989), and Reddin’s 3-D Management Style Theory which influenced the Situational Leadership Model by Hersey and Blanchard. This leadership theory and the models that transpired have been highly utilized by practitioners and frequently used for training leaders within managerial organizations (Komives et al.; Northouse).

Influence Theories. Influence theories surfaced in the 1920’s and remained popular throughout the 1970’s. Although Rost (1991) indicated that influence was one of the four essential elements of leadership, he also noted that it was difficult to define in practical and

meaningful ways. Bell (1975) remarked that influence is a persuasive process that can have an impact on people in a relationship. Within this relationship, followers often bestowed these attributes to their leader based on their perceptions (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004). In the 1920's the word *charisma* was used as a method to describe the power-influence relationship between leader and follower (Bass, 1990). In 1977, Robert House introduced the Theory of Charismatic Leadership that used testable variables to predict charismatic behavior in leaders (Komives et al.; Northouse).

Although widely used, the charismatic leadership style had mixed reviews. Kouzes and Posner (1987) indicated the term had been widely over used and misused. Northouse (2004) supported this argument affirming that some used charismatic and transformational as synonymous terms; however, he asserted that charisma was only one component of transformational leadership. Rost (1991) also warned against heavily based influence, emphasizing that a relationship predominately characterized by influence in a coercive manner was not leadership.

Although the industrial paradigm offered great contributions to the leadership process, many of these leadership approaches were no longer manifested in the student leadership environment on college campuses. While some people may be born with natural talents, the Great Man Theory was dismissed and replaced with contemporary Post-Industrial approaches that offered all students with the opportunity to become leaders on their campuses. Although research results used to generate the industrial trait theories in the early 1900's had proven to be beneficial in predicting qualities necessary for leadership success, the notion of individual traits of a student leader had lost its zeal. Less emphasis was placed on the importance of an individual's innate traits, but rather the development of skills was highlighted as a prominent leadership quality. The type of behavior and influence demonstrated by a leader in situations

was paramount; however, the theories encapsulating the industrial paradigm focused more on the managerial aspect depicting rapport of leader to follower. The next section describes the post-industrial approaches that accentuates the leadership development of students in a value-centered, skill building, relational environment that emerged on college campuses.

Post-Industrial Paradigm

In 1978, James MacGregor Burns shared his view on new leadership perspectives that could be described as unconventional when compared to traditional theories classified in the industrial era. Burns shared two different types of leadership: transactional and transforming. Transactional leadership occurs “when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things” (Burns, 1978, p. 19). He went on to say that “transformational leadership occurs “when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Burns, p. 20). This new outlook on leadership marked the end of the industrial era, as Rost (1991) proclaimed “transformation to be the cornerstone of the post-industrial school of leadership” (p. 123). With this new leadership enlightenment, additional scholars began to rethink their understanding of leadership and subsequently proposed their own theories that fit in the post-industrial paradigm (Northouse, 2004; Rost).

Model of Transformational Leadership. Nearly ten years after Burns (1978) introduced transformational leadership, Bass (1985) provided a broader version of transformational leadership. In his theory, transformational leadership challenged followers to accelerate above what was required by encouraging followers to: comprehend the importance of shared goals, put aside their own self interests in the effort to do what is best for the whole team, and address higher-level needs for the greater good (Bass). Transformational leadership focused on the performance of the follower and helped to develop to their full potential (Northouse, 2004). This

leadership theory also highlighted a moral component that encouraged individuals in the group to help each other reach higher levels of value and ethical ambition (Burns; Komives et al., 1998; Yukl, 1989). People usually associated transformational leaders as role models or examples of positive leadership. Individuals such as Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Franklin D. Roosevelt were examples of transformational leaders (Bass; Burns; Komives et al.).

Relational Leadership Model. In the Relational Leadership Model (Komives et al., 1998) leadership was defined as a “relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good” (p. 21). This model was made up of five primary components: inclusive, empowering, purposeful, ethical, and process-oriented. The model had been designed to assist individuals who want to make a meaningful contribution to an organization (Komives et al.). Each of these components emphasized aspects of knowledge, values/attitude, and skills that encapsulate relational leadership. In order to be inclusive, an individual must have a willingness to understand both self and others, have an appreciation for differing opinions, and finally, must practice communication and build coalition support. There were two dimensions to empowerment: claimed and shared. To be empowered, an individual claimed to have participated in the process of change. The individual also realized that in order to be inclusive, empowerment must also be shared with others. This differs from the industrial influence theories that embodied power over another person rather than mutual empowerment of self and others. In the relational leadership model, leaders were responsible for creating an empowered environment that fostered a sense of trust by reducing fear and humiliation (Komives et al.).

The third component of relational leadership was the element of purposefulness. This meant having commitment to a shared goal reached in a collaborative manner by the group. Empowered individuals expressed differing opinions of the goal or how to accomplish the goal;

however, in relational leadership, a common ground would be established through a collaborative resolution. Building a socialized vision from among the members of the group gained more support than a personal vision. “Sharing vision requires insight into one’s own actions, the skills to listen to find common purpose, the ability to develop strategies needed to set purposeful goals, and the open mind to imagine possible outcomes” (Komives et al., 1998, p. 87). By implementing purposefulness, students became the change agents that embodied the ideals of the post-industrial leadership paradigm.

The fourth component discussed ethical leadership guided by values and principles. Many organizations established ethical standards and codes that guided their decisions (Toffler, 1986). In this model, ethics was not to be used synonymously with the concept of morals. Morals usually reflected either personal values, religious beliefs, or a combination of both. Relational leadership was described as value-driven and encouraged individuals to lead by example. “Exemplary leadership includes a congruency between values and actions” (Komives et al., 1998, p 92). The fifth and final component of the relational leadership was process-oriented. Process referred to the group dynamics and how shared goals were achieved. Collaboration and reflection were important dynamics that make up this component. Through effective communication, in a collaborative manner group members established shared goals and determined the best way to achieve those goals. Engagement in the reflective process allowed members to celebrate their successes and learn from their failures in a supportive inclusive atmosphere (Komives et al.).

Although the Relational Leadership Model exemplified the qualities of the post-industrial paradigm, it was noted that this model provided a framework for leadership, but was not considered a leadership theory. In addition, the concept of change was discussed while

describing the components of relational leadership; however, change as an outcome of leadership was not addressed in the model (Komives et al., 1998).

Servant Leadership Theory. Developed by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970's, the Servant Leader approach emphasized that leaders should put the needs of their followers before that of their own needs (Greenleaf, 1977; Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004). The intent of the servant leader was to empower others so that they not only developed their own skills, but also became servant leaders as well. There were strong altruistic implications in this theory in that the leader did not join the organization for personal gain, but rather to make a difference (Komives et al.). The servant leader felt a strong sense of social responsibility and tried to rectify these injustices through his/her role in the organization (Northouse). Peter Block (1993) referred to this type of leadership as stewardship. Both the leaders and the followers were stewards of the organization contributing unconditionally to nurturing the needs of others and the organization.

This section presented an overview of several renowned leadership theories and illustrated how approaches to leadership evolved over the decades. The industrial paradigm provided an overview of individual leadership characteristics; whereas, the post-industrial paradigm fostered the development of student leaders through a relational process. The theories in the post paradigm revolved around the importance of values and responsibility toward the greater good. Post-industrial leadership theories discussed in this section support universities' missions in developing student leaders who will contribute to the good of the community. Administrators also devise leadership programs based on the post-industrial leadership theories. Prior to discussing the relationship between leadership and citizenship, the discussion of student development is essential in understanding how values, personal identity, and intellectual competency influence student decision making.

Student Development

Many scholars and practitioners believed that the concepts of personal development and student development were “intertwined and inseparable” (American College Personnel Association, 1994). The role of higher education in student development evolved over time. In the beginning of the American higher education system, it was a common belief that students lacked maturity and required supervision. Administrators were granted authority to act “*in loco parentis*” and enforced rules in a parental fashion (Arnold & King, 1997). However, conventional attitudes and viewpoints began to slowly shift with a landmark document from the American Council of Education (1937) that advocated the education of the *whole person*. This decision was also coupled with the concern that “secularism and intensive research threatened higher education’s previous commitment to preparing students for citizenship” (Komives et al., 1998, p. 68). It took many decades, but the traditional higher education *in loco parentis* beliefs fully shifted in the late 1960’s from controlling student behavior to assisting in the development of behavior and values. Universities saw the need for administrators to work closely with students in order to promote student growth and change (Arnold & King). Thus, the student affairs profession was formed to reinstate the original mission of character building so that the student could contribute to the betterment of society (Evans et al., 1998).

Scholars and practitioners significantly referred to the term “student development” in the context of the student affairs profession (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Hamrick, Evans, & Schuh, 2002). Student development has a philosophical approach concentrating on the holistic growth of the person (Evans et al., 1998). In the late 1960’s, Sanford described development as “a positive growth process in which the individual becomes increasingly able to integrate and act upon many different experiences and influences” (Evans et al., p. 4). Moore (1990) defined the concept from a holistic approach that integrated both intellectual development

and interpersonal competence. He described it as a theoretical perspective, but also as a role description, and a set of goals for the individual. Rogers (1980) defined student development as “the ways that a student grows, progresses, or increases his or her developmental capabilities as a result of enrollment in an institution of higher education” (p. 31). It is no wonder why Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, and Lovell (1999) called for a clearer definition of student development.

Student Development Theories

With the introduction of student affairs to college and university organization structures also came the influence of formal student development theories (Evans et al., 1998). Many times administrators who are not formally trained in the area of student development question the value and use of theories (Arnold & King, 1997); however, student development theories “provide maps or guides by which to understand the ways individuals and groups experience higher education” (p. viii). Theories provide administrators with a better understanding of individual differences and how to address students’ needs, design programs, establish policy, and create a supportive environment that promotes growth and change (Arnold & King; Evans et al.).

Many of the initial student development theories can be arranged in categories, such as psychosocial and identity development, cognitive and ethical development, as well as theories based on social, cultural, and historical context. This study will primarily examine psychosocial and identity development, cognitive and ethical development. The majority of the early classical student development theories were grounded in psychology-stage formation. Chickering’s (1993) seven vectors of student development, influenced by Erikson (1980), addressed identity development through psychosocial stages of human development. Piagetian psychology shaped early cognitive development theories, such as Perry’s (1968) *Forms of Cognitive and Ethical Development* and Kolberg’s (1981) *Stages of Moral and Ethical Development*.

Identity Development

Chickering's Theory of Identity Development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) was a comprehensive overview of developmental issues students encountered in college and the dynamics in the college environment that affect outcomes (Hamrich et al., 2002). Chickering's Theory of Identity Development included seven vectors of development. The vectors were constructed to interact and build upon each other, taking the students on a journey of self discovery. The seven vectors included: developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interrelationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity.

The first vector covered three forms of developing competence which included intellectual competence, physical competence, and interpersonal competence. Intellectual competence outlined acquiring the knowledge and skills to develop critical thinking. Physical competence stressed the importance of physical well being and involvement in recreational activities. Interpersonal competence stressed the necessity of skill development and working with people in a collaborative manner. The second vector, managing emotions, illustrated the importance of students learning how to control their emotions and communicate their thoughts in an amenable manner (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

The third vector discussed the student moving through autonomy toward interdependence. In this vector, the student moved away from needed approval of others and gained confidence in personal decision making. The fourth vector, entitled developing mature relationships, discussed a student's experience in establishing their own identity through the ability to advance relationships with close friends. Establishing identity, the fifth vector, described the student becoming more comfortable with themselves as an individual. In this vector, students began to accept their self concept and gain confidence and self esteem

(Chickering & Reisser, 1993). The sixth vector discussed the development of purpose. In this vector, students established commitment to their own personal belief system that defined them as individuals. The last vector, developing integrity, incorporated three stages that were both ordered and overlapping at the same time. The three stages included: humanizing values, personalizing values, and developing congruence. Humanizing values established an appreciation for others' values in comparison to individual values. Personal values became the core set of beliefs and the individual's behavior was congruent with the core values (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). It is reported that Chickering's work laid the foundation for many contemporary studies within psychosocial development and is one of the most cited references in student development literature (Evans et al., 1998).

Intellectual and Ethical Development

Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development (1968) explained the cognitive development of students in college, specifically, how people view their experiences. Within Perry's theory, there were nine positions that began with simple forms of intellectual competency and end in a complex thought process. Although Perry thoroughly described nine stages, a review of the main concepts was adequate in understanding the theory. In Perry's theory, dualism was the simplest form of thought. A dualistic thinker unconditionally accepted the answers of right and wrong as provided by the authority figure. When the individual began to question the authoritative answers, then the transition to multiplicity occurred. An individual at the multiplicity stage collected all forms of opinion; however, all information was considered equally valid because the individual did not know which opinion was right. The individual progressed to relativism when it was acknowledged that not all of the opinions were of equal value. The individual encountered ethical development as the transition to commitment to relativism took place. In this stage, the individual was capable of making decisions and

committing to personal opinions (Perry). It was reported that an understanding of how students “make meaning” is necessary in order to cultivate intellectual and ethical development (Evans et al., 1998).

Moral Development

Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development (1981) provided significant contributions to psychological development. Kohlberg proposed a theory that entailed three levels of two stages in each level. The three levels described the pre-conventional, conventional, and principle levels. The pre-conventional level described the influence of the authority figures and the influences of such actions as punishment and reward. Decisions at this level were made without regard for value, but rather based on the consequences that followed from the authority figure. The latter part of the level discussed the individual made decisions based on personal need. Reasoning was based off of equal fairness rather than what was just. The individual then transitioned to the second level called conventionalism. At this level, individuals made decisions based on family or friends influences and often conformed to group norm. During the latter part of the stage, the individual oriented toward social order. The principled level was the last level described in the theory. By the time the individual reached the last level, he or she based decisions on standards agreed upon by society. The person reached the highest form of moral development when decisions were based on ethical principles that the individual devised through his or her conscious (Kohlberg).

Astin (1984) affirmed that students encountered identity development as they became engaged in curricular and co-curricular campus involvement. He avowed that many collegiate experiences from peer groups to campus organizations contributed to students’ identity development. In the progression of identity development, thought processes were challenged by peers and professors, and students’ intellectual reasoning developed at more profound levels

(Kuh, 1995; Pascarella & Terezini, 1991). The higher levels of intellectual development complement the students' ethical and moral development. Ehrlich (2000) affirmed that the development of identity, moral awareness and judgment were vital in the objectives of higher education. When students engaged in moral reflection, they enhanced their critical thinking skills. As their moral judgment developed, the students became more aware of their social responsibility to the community. Commitment to social responsibility depended on their choice to act (Ehrlich; HERI, 1996). Their level of identity development determined their decision to act as well as the success in the act itself.

Student Leadership Development

Student leadership development is an important concept that can be traced to the early objectives of higher education (Astin, 1984; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). Even in colonial times, the element of preparing students to be leaders was documented through mission and purpose (Hamrick et al., 2002). In the early 1800's the student population was comprised of either young men from affluent families aspiring for public life or older men with the intention to become ministers. In their own way, each student was destined to hold varying forms of leadership in order to serve the communities (Horowitz, 1987).

As the United States encountered the industrial era, colleges presented new opportunities in order to meet the contemporary demands placed on American education (Bass, 1990; Rost, 1991). Traditional elements that comprised campus life began to evolve as enrollment increased and the student groups became more diversified. Emphasis on leadership through involvement in extracurricular activities was still prominent on campus (Cress, 2001), but became more accessible to both women and minority students (Horowitz, 1987). Through various means, the universities continued to provide essential skills and educational experiences necessary to foster leadership within students (Astin & Astin, 2000); however, some asserted that the objective of

civic leadership development weakened (McIntire, 1989) with the emergence of the modern American university (Thelin, 2003).

The commitment to leadership remained strong over the years and more recent times brought growth, theories, and practices concerning leadership development (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). Kouzes and Posner (1987) described leadership development as a “process of self-development” (p. 298). It was also asserted that leadership development was greatly enhanced when the student understood three principles that comprised the leadership process, which include “knowing”, “being”, and “doing” (Komives et al., 1998). Astin and Astin (2000) emphasized that the basic purposes of leadership development was to empower students to become agents of positive change in their community and the larger society (p.9).

Astin’s (1993) meta-analysis of college impact provided an in-depth analysis on the aspects related to student leadership development. Leadership outcomes were measured by whether the student held an elected leadership position as well as the student’s leadership ability, popularity, and social self confidence. This study revealed that increases in leadership during college was positively influenced by the number of college years completed, living on campus, and the degree of interaction with faculty and administration. Interaction with peers through formal or informal experiences was the strongest identifying factor illustrating an increase in leadership (Astin).

It was reported that students may not place their leadership development as a priority because of external pressures, such as busy schedules, academic pressure, and lack of meaningful contact with the university community (Astin & Astin, 2000). In addition, students may not develop leadership skills because they were unaware of their leadership potential (Astin & Astin) or may not see themselves as having the ability to make a difference (Komives et al., 1998). According to Astin and Astin, “leadership development is important and useful because it can

enrich the undergraduate experience, and because it can empower students and give them a greater sense of control in their lives” (p. 18).

Role of Student Affairs

Student affairs became a profession in the middle of the twentieth century as student development theory transpired from the disciplines of psychology and sociology (Evans et al. 1998, Hamrick et al., 2002). Prior to the “landmark publication”, the Student Learning Imperative (ACPC, 1994), numerous documents and reports outlined the role of student affairs as service providers. The Student Learning Imperative was the first to assert that a critical role of student affairs was to enhance, encourage, and promote learning and development in students (Blimling & Alschuler, 1996; Hamrick et al.). Universities were encouraged to create a “seamless learning environment” between academic affairs and student affairs that fostered both student and learning development (ACPA, 1994; Kuh, 1995).

Student affairs professions promoted student development in many ways. One such way was designing opportunities for leadership development (McIntire, 1989) through formal and informal experiences (Astin & Astin, 2000). Student affairs professionals enhanced student leaders’ abilities by providing opportunities for students to participate in collaborative group learning where they could integrate real life experience with classroom knowledge (Astin & Astin). One such on campus opportunity was participation in leadership programs.

Leadership Programs

“One of the central purposes of higher education has been the preparation of citizens for positions of leadership...With the growing complexity of education, the need for leaders to cope with change, leadership programs assume even a greater importance” (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). This quote may explain why higher education witnessed a tremendous growth of leadership opportunities in the past twenty-five years (Astin and Astin, 2000). By the late 1970’s, many

colleges refocused efforts on leadership development when national politics, such as the Watergate scandal, caused institutions to evaluate how they taught ethics, leadership and social responsibility.

Shortly thereafter, professional associations such as the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), and National Association for Campus Activities (NACA) began to focus on leadership initiatives (Miller, 1997; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). In 1976, ACPA formed a Commission IV Leadership Task Force and explored the format and goals of leadership programs (Roberts, 1997). By the early 1980's, student affairs professional associations combined efforts and shared ideas and formed the Inter-Association Leadership Project. Their main goal in this initiative was to create a "leadership agenda" that would provide guidance to all student affairs professionals (Miller, 1997; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt). Colleges and universities embraced the new leadership development initiatives and it was estimated that by the early twenty-first century, 600-800 leadership programs existed across the country varying in size, content, and purpose (Cress et al., 2001; Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt). Researchers pointed out that although leadership programs offered to college students were increasing in number, it seemed to be "growing primarily in terms of single course offerings or as an emphasis within student affairs programs" (Howe & Freeman, p. 5, 1997).

As indicated in the literature, leadership programs varied on all campuses and range from curricular credit-bearing classes to non-credit co-curricular leadership activities and training workshops (Boatman, 1999; Posner, 2004). In his research, Roberts (1997) found that leadership programs included but were not limited to leadership classes, retreats, conferences, ropes courses, workshops, lectures, and seminars. McIntire (1989) asseverated three basic forms of leadership development programs. The first basic form was the traditional student affairs model

that focuses on the development of student leaders within campus activities and student organizations through a co-curricular leadership program. The second program model described curricular leadership programs as an academic-focused model in a classroom setting that is a combination of academic and campus involvement opportunities. Usually faculty or leadership experts from the community taught these classes. The third model was training applied through practice (McIntire, 1989). In their Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, Dugan and Komives (2007) categorized leadership programs as short-term, moderate-term, and long-term. One time lectures and workshops were examples of short-term programs, a single academic course or multi-session series were classified as moderate-term, and leadership majors or minors were considered long term leadership programs. Although there were many proposed ways to categorize programs, researchers were mindful to the fact that there is no single ideal course or leadership program and it was recommended that leadership programs reflected institutional environment and needs of the students (Gregory & Britt, 1987; Roberts).

Researchers also published many different recommendations as to the components of a successful leadership program. Cherrey and Isgar (1998) suggested five elements to be incorporated throughout student leadership programs: understanding the complexity and diversity of an interrelated system; continual and critical reflecting and learning with a commitment to the betterment of society; embracing inclusiveness; and practicing collaboration. Gregory and Britt (1987) produced a comprehensive list of what *good programs do*. Just a few of the many components they recommend included: proper participant selection, sound philosophical basis, goal oriented, credit bearing, variety of training methods, and evaluation plans. Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt (1999) contended that effective leadership programs were developed around context, philosophy, common practices, and sustainability. Their insight was based off of their involvement in the research sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation.

Between 1990-1998, the Kellogg Foundation funded over 30 leadership development programs at colleges and universities across the nation (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt).

Researchers contended that, “there is no simple recipe or list of ‘do’s’ or ‘don’ts’ that will guarantee an effective program. However, the drawing of some general observations of characteristics is possible, and by ‘defining’ these characteristics, we can help to guide the development” (Gregory & Britt, 1998, p. 35). Ironically, around the time this statement was made, a declaration of standards was provided to bring clarity to the myriad approaches to leadership programs.

CAS Standards. In November 1996, the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) made a monumental contribution to leadership development with their introduction of the Leadership Program Standards and Guidelines. This was the first time that a set of guidelines were presented by such a renowned and respected association. CAS was regarded as “one of the premier standards’ development and promulgation organizations concerned with institutions of higher learning” (Miller, 1997, p. 7). CAS presented a set of minimum criteria necessary in creating and maintaining a successful leadership program. The standards were composed of thirteen components which included: mission; program; leadership; organization and management; human resources; financial resources; facilities, technology, and equipment; legal responsibilities; equal opportunity, access, and affirmative action; campus and community relations; diversity; ethics; assessment and evaluation (CAS, 1997). In a later version of the 2003 CAS standards, social responsibility, value clarification, and skill development were added as important contributing factors to an effective leadership program (CAS, 2006).

The CAS standards were specific enough to provide detailed leadership program guidelines and expectations, but were broad enough to provide guidance to institutions with

varying resources (CAS, 1997). These standards would assist a range of institutions with different institutional goals and funding priorities. Miller (1997) reported that if administrators followed CAS standards, they would be in compliance with regional accrediting bodies such as the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS). The 2003 updated edition provided examples of achievement indicators that coincided with necessary accreditation assessment techniques (CAS, 2006).

Leadership programs and citizenship development. Although colleges and universities nation-wide showed their commitment to the development of students leaders (Boatman, 1999), there was the concern that institutions did not stress the original intent of leadership development, noted earlier as civic involvement, as much as it should be emphasized (Astin & Astin, 2000; Cress et al., 2001, Lloyd, 2006). Lloyd argued that although many researchers and national associations (ACPA, 1994; Bell, 1994; Freeman, Knott, & Schwart, 1996; Komivas et al., 1998; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart, 1999), reported that one of the main purposes of leadership initiatives and programs was “to develop civic leaders with the focus on training students to become better citizens” (p.4). However, Lloyd’s research findings indicated that very few programs have “developing responsible citizens” as the main purpose of leadership development. Although the programs prepared the students to be leaders who can illustrate their leadership ability through the context of civic engagement (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart), some researchers believed that leadership programs should be more deliberate in their expectations of being a socially responsible citizen (Lloyd, 2006) through value clarification (Cunningham, 1977; Flanagan, 2003; Komives et al.), skill development (Kirlin, 2002, 2003), and civic engagement activities (Battistoni, 1997; Harkavy & Benson, 1998; Morgan & Streb, 2001).

Student Involvement

The topic of student involvement has been a widely researched topic in higher education (Astin, 1984, 1993, 1996; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimbing, 1996). The Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education (1984) cited involvement as the most important condition for improving undergraduate education, stating that the more involved students are on campus, “the greater will be their growth and achievement, their satisfaction with their educational experiences, and the more likely they are to continue their learning (p. 17). Further, it had been reported that student involvement in both academic and interpersonal activities had positive affects on a student’s development process (Pace, 1984); however, Dugan and Komives (2007) reported that being involved in too many forms of involvement experiences is counter productive for the student. Additionally, it was reported that the most influential variable for college achievement was the effort students invested in opportunities for learning and development in the college setting (Pace, 1984). This section will discuss the theory of involvement, influences on student involvement, the varying forms of academic and co-curricular involvement, as well as involvement in relation to student development and leadership.

Theory of Involvement

Astin (1984) created the Theory of Involvement as a means of bringing some *order to the chaos* of overwhelming amounts of literature regarding student development. The attraction to this theory was the ease in understanding, the explanation of the majority of student development influences, and the ability to embrace broad principles from various disciplines. A main advantage of this theory was that it could be used by both researchers and practitioners in order to enhance student development. According to Astin (1999), an involved student is one who “devotes considerable energy to studying, spends much time on campus, participates actively in

student organizations, and interacts freely with faculty members and other students” (p. 518).

Astin (1984) specifically defined student involvement as “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience” (p. 251). The behavioral aspect of a student was also an integral part in the design of the theory. What the student did and how they reacted to situations identified involvement more so than how a student thought or felt (Astin, 1984). The behavioral aspect was an underlining component of the five basic assumptions of the involvement theory which are addressed below.

Five assumptions in the Theory of Involvement

The first assumption revolved around the earlier mentioned concepts of psychological and physical energy of objects, meaning that a student's involvement is based on the amount of time they put forth and their degree of motivation to participate. The objects ranged from a very broad area, such as the student experience, or described something very precise, such as a student participating in a campus organization or a leadership program. The second postulate described involvement as a continuum. In other words, “different students manifest different degrees of involvement in a given object, and the same student manifested different degrees of involvement in different objects at different times (Astin, 1984, p. 252). For instance, a student may be very involved for a given time period, and then may not be as involved the next semester due to external circumstances.

Quantitative and qualitative aspects were used to describe the third assumption of the theory. Quantitative measures were used to describe the amount of time a student spent on an object; whereas, the qualitative feature described the focus of students' time” (Astin, 1984; Foubert & Grainger, 2006). For example, a student can quantify the amount of time they contributed toward an organization project. However, the qualitative feature of focus describes how attentive and driven they were to complete the project. The fourth assumption stated that

the amount of development that took place was relative to the quality and quantity of student involvement. For example, an involved student who put forth time and effort in a project probably received more development (skills, relationship building, etc.) than a student who did not put forth much effort. Finally, the last assumption discussed the relationship between an effective university policy in relation to the ability of that policy to enhance student development (Astin). In other words, student development and involvement on campus will be more effective when university policy is support of involvement initiatives. These five assumptions as presented in the Theory of Involvement complement the development of the student.

Forms of Involvement

There are many forms of involvement including but not limited to living in a campus residence hall, involvement with peers, interaction with faculty, academic and co-curricular involvement. All of these forms of involvement shape a student's college experience (Astin, 1984, 1999); however, this section will primarily focus on co-curricular and academic involvement.

Academic Involvement

“Simply stated: students learn by becoming involved” (Astin, 1985, p.133) Using Astin's (1984) definition for involvement provided earlier, academic involvement included the amount of time a student allocated towards studying, spent in class, and the level of interest in coursework. Many researchers reported that participation in co-curricular involvement distracted students from their academic pursuits (Black, 2002; Boyer, 1987) and some faculty disregarded the importance of the out-of-class experience (Huang & Chang, 2004). Kuh (1995), on the other hand, asserted that “institutions seeking to enhance learning productivity should pay more attention to encouraging students to take advantage of existing educational opportunities, many of which are outside the class-room” (p.150). Huang and Chang explored whether co-curricular

involvement took away from academic endeavors. In their research, they concluded that the relationship between academic and co-curricular involvement was positive, meaning that one complemented the other. However, Astin (1984) claimed that excessive levels of high co-curricular involvement compromised academic pursuits.

Co-curricular Involvement

Researchers describe co-curricular involvement as any type of involvement that takes place outside of the classroom. This can include participating in a peer group, joining a student organization, accepting a leadership position, attending a campus event, and spending time in student common areas (Astin, 1984, 1999). Students who participated in co-curricular activities reported a greater connection to their university and an overall enhanced collegiate experience (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Baxtor-Magolda, 1992; Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Researchers also avowed that universities should support the co-curricular realm of activities. “Colleges cannot force students to participate in organized activities or perform leadership roles. However, they can and should be accountable for creating the conditions that promote such behavior” (Kuh, 1995, p.150).

Involvement and Student Development

Student involvement is a vital factor in the process of student development (Arboleda, Wand, Shelley & Whalen, 2003). Research showed a positive relationship between involvement in student organizations and several areas of psychosocial development as discussed below (Cooper, Healy & Simpson, 1994; Foubert & Grainger, 2006; Hernandez et al., 1999; Kuh, 1995; Martin, 2000; Terenzini, 1996). Pascarella & Terenzini (1991) noted that it is important to be mindful that different kinds of involvement incite different kinds of growth and change in the process of student development. For example, an involved student leader who has a high degree of interaction with the campus community, attends leadership training sessions, and participates

in community service activities will have a different opportunity for growth and change in comparison to a student who only spends time in the student common area.

Interpersonal competence

Kuh (1995) found that there was significant evidence that involved student leaders developed interpersonal competence through tasks performed such as planning, organizing, managing, and decision making. Interaction with peers was also shown to contribute to growth in interpersonal competence (Kuh; Terenzini et al. 1996). Interpersonal competence also involved an acquisition of skills displayed through effective communication and working effectively with others (Evans et al., 1998).

Developing mature relationships

Peer groups (Kuh, 1995) and participation in campus clubs and organizations (Astin, 1984) were said to complement the process of forming more mature interpersonal relationships. In his book, *What Matters in College*, Astin (1993) described involvement in peer groups as the “single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years (p.398). The greater the interaction with peers resulted in a more favorable outcome. The power of peer groups can be found in the capacity of peers to involve each other more intensely in experiences (Astin). In her study, Abrahamowicz (1988) reported that students involved as members of organization indicated greater perceptions of the formation of relationships with faculty, administrators, and students in comparison to students who were not members of an organizations.

Developing purpose

Some researchers believed that the strongest association between involvement and psychosocial development was clarifying goals and purpose (Martin, 2000). Cooper, Healy, and Simpson (1994) conducted a longitudinal study with students their freshman year and their junior

year. Students were categorized as members vs. non-members of organizations as well as students holding leadership positions vs. all other participants. Freshman who anticipated joining organizations had higher purpose values than students who did not want to join an organization. By their junior year, students who were involved showed significantly higher purpose values, as well showed an increase in educational involvement, lifestyle planning, cultural participation, and academic autonomy (Copper, Healy, & Simpson).

Thus far, this literature review discussed leadership theories, student development in relation to student involvement and illustrated how involvement can further enhance the student development process. The next section will discuss aspects of the student's involvement in service and volunteerism in relation to student development and social responsibility.

Citizenship

It was John Dewey's (1916) belief that education has a vital role to play in a democratic society. He asserted that such a society must support an educational system which provides individuals the opportunities to foster change through citizenry. Historically, a primary focus in early American colleges was to prepare students to be responsible citizens in their communities (McIntire, 1989). Much of the discussion as to how and why institutions should be involved in preparing individuals to be engaged citizens is philosophical in nature (Rhoads, 1998); however, there is empirical evidence that higher education does positively influence students commitment to their community (Cress et al., 2001; HERI, 1996). In order to explore the role higher education plays in citizenship development, it will be beneficial to delve into the concept of citizenship in the scholarly literature. This section will review approaches to citizenship, citizen education, civic skills, moral development in civic education, and the trends of civic engagement through political and service participation.

University Response to Citizenship Development

Although most universities incorporated citizenship development in their mission statements with commitment to the educated American and their responsibilities to society (Berger & Milem, 2002), through the earlier part of the twentieth century many scholars contended that this mindset had become an after thought (Kezar, 2004). Remarkably, research proved that over the past decade, colleges and universities had reevaluated their priorities and shown more interest in citizenship development impacting change in the community (Winniford et al., 1995). Some asserted that most professionals in the field of higher education believed that universities had a responsibility to teach civic responsibility to the students so that they could serve the community (Cohen & Kinsey, 1994). An increasing number of universities had reevaluated their perspective and actively encouraged students to participation in civic engagement through increased opportunities in and outside of the classroom (Astin, 1999; Cohen & Kinsey).

Approaches to Citizenship

Philosophical discourse distinguishing between a good person and a good citizen was traced back to ancient Greek times. On a very broad level, a good person lived a decent private life demonstrated by qualities of virtue and respect (Reed & Johnson, 1996). Conversely, a good citizen not only lived an admirable life privately, but also exemplified a commitment to public interests. An individual who practiced good citizenry also illustrates care (Rhoads, 1998) and knowledgeable awareness of community and political issues supplemented by the desire to bring about positive change through collaborative action (Cogan & Derricott, 2000). Nie, Junn, and Stehlik-Barry (1996) provided a different approach suggesting two dimensions of democratic citizenship worth noting. From their perspective, the enlightened citizen was knowledgeable of community issues; however, it was the engaged citizen who actually participated in the process

by committing the time and effort needed to address the issues. Conrad and Hedin (1977) approached citizenship in the form of membership. A citizen member fostered a “recognition of mutual interest with all other members, a sense of shared concern for the welfare of the total community, and a willingness and ability to contribute to the well-being of the community” (p. 134). This viewpoint was similar to the philosophical work of Dewey (1916) and his contention that a community that provided opportunity for all members to participate on equal terms could be deemed a democratic society. Dewey illustrated a democratic admiration, or *Jeffersonian faith*, for the values, opinions and actions of the ordinary citizen (Boyte, 2003). Although some critics dismissed Dewey’s views as naïve (Boyte); many researchers acquiesced that values and behavior were essential to effective citizenship (Ehrlich, 2000; HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998).

Boyte and Kari (2000) contended that three popular approaches to citizenship were intertwined throughout history. These approaches were referred to as the civics view, communitarian view, and the commonwealth view. The civics view represented the political side of democratic citizenship and was grounded in the formal laws of representative government. The government role was considered “for the people” and provided services and guaranteed the rights of citizens. Citizens upheld their duties by voting in elections, following the law, paying taxes, and responding to civic tasks, such as jury duty. The communitarian view embodied the membership aspect of citizenry previously addressed. Community members upheld common civic values and shared a sense of responsibility towards each other and the community. This “of the people” approach to citizenry highlighted the importance of character development in education. The final approach was referred to as the commonwealth viewpoint and depicted the “by the people” attitude of government role. In this approach, the citizens were

considered problem solvers and producers of public goods. Democracy in this citizenship approach was viewed as the effort from the people themselves (Boyte & Kari).

Although the communitarian efforts were designed to complement civic objectives, many argued that the community aspect of citizenship competes with the civic approach and deterred young adults from participating in the political process (Ehrlich, 2000). Some theorists indicted the communitarian efforts for the “de-politicization” of social life and criticized well known authors such as Putman (1995) and Coleman (1988) who elevated the communitarian spirit with their writings about the decline of social capital. In *Bowling Alone*, Putman explored the role of social capital through discussions of civic engagement. In response to Putman’s *path breaking* research, one critic asserted that Putman argued that “America suffers from excessive individualism, an overemphasis on rights and an under-emphasis on responsibilities, and an increasingly litigious culture where citizens seek resolution of conflicts through the courts” (Boyte, 2003). One may question if the national movement of communitarian efforts had negatively impacted the political efforts of civic engagement or if the decline is due to other factors. Later in this section, we will specifically explore the fluctuating trends of college student involvement in civic engagement from both the political and service aspect.

Drawing from political theory and educational programs, the next approach to citizenship discussed by Westheimer and Kane (2004) specifically focused on the participatory expectations of the individual. These approaches discussed the acts of a personally responsible citizen, a participatory citizen, and a justice-oriented citizen. The personally responsible citizen acted responsibly in the community and helped those in need during times of crisis. The participatory citizen took a more active part in the civic affairs and social life of the community at local, state, and national levels. This type of citizen became involved in the planning and implementation of organized efforts to care for those in need or to address an issue that affects the common good.

The justice oriented citizen brought awareness to matters of injustice and to the value of pursuing social justice. The justice oriented citizen evaluated social, political, and economic configurations, pondered collective strategies for change that defy injustice and explored the origin of the problem (Westheimer and Kane).

Examples will help to better understand these concepts. For example, from a service aspect of a food drive, the following types of citizens displayed the subsequent actions: participatory citizen usually organized the food drive; the personally responsible citizen dropped off items at the food drive; and the justice-oriented citizen pondered the underlying reasons for the food drive, explored the root causes of poverty possibly on the local or national level, and then devised strategies to address the problems. From a political aspect, the personally responsible citizen voted in the elections, the participatory citizen campaigned for candidates and the justice-oriented citizen lobbied for policies that had great impact on political decisions that affected the entire county.

Many of the approaches to citizenship development discussed thus far illustrated a participatory characteristic of the individual demonstrating action to implement a desired type of change. Additionally, Lempert and Briggs (1996) also described citizens as individuals negotiating their own needs, as active participants in civic and social activities, as well as citizens as consensus builders. From all of the examples provided, there is the realization that civic skills are necessary in order to carry out the duties of effective citizenry. As with leadership, some individuals have innate characteristics that assist a person to achieve success; however, how can a person acquire skills they may not possess or need to develop further? How do they become knowledgeable about citizenry issues? The next section will explore citizen education programs that were designed to help students develop into citizens who can make a difference.

Citizenship Education

On a broad level, citizenship education can be viewed as a continuum that starts in childhood and continues so that enlightened individuals can participate in decisions that affect society (Cunningham, 1977). In the academic realm, citizenship education was typically addressed in history classes where students learned the functions of government, the political process, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens. The development of citizenship identity was oriented on a national level and students learned respect for their state and nation (Cunningham). Cogan and Derricott (2000) stated that “at one point, when the world was a simpler place, this conceptualization of citizenship may have serviced us well; but this is no longer the case” (p.1). They called for a multidimensional approach that incorporated a collaborative relationship between schools and the communities, as well as an additional aspect of personal development in citizenship education.

Cogan and Derricott’s (2000) statement reflected sentiments of many other scholars; however, early recommendations to revamp the methods in which citizenship was addressed in school began decades before. Cunningham (1977) avowed that citizenship education must provide the knowledge base as well as address personal development in order to provide an ample foundation for citizenship development. He proposed that citizenship education included the following elements: academic disciplines, law-related education, social problems, critical thinking, value clarification, moral development, community involvement, and institutional school reform. His proposed structure was based on knowledge, practice, and values that constantly interacted and built upon the other. Cunningham contented that an experience-based learning model made citizenship education approaches more effective by providing students the ability to connect in-class learning with out of class experiences in the world. Although

Cunningham addressed citizenship education on a K-12 academic level, his model inculcated the essence of participatory program.

Participation programs took on many forms, including but not limited to: academic programs in a school setting, voluntary service with social organizations, leadership programs, community projects, community study, and internships (Brandy, Scholzman, & Verba, 1995; Conrad & Hedin, 1977; Stoneman, 2002). Conrad and Hedin avowed that the central criterion for a participatory program supplied various “conditions for the growth of democratic values and a commitment to act upon those values” (p. 135). Secondary conditions recommended: perform tasks, take on responsibility within projects, have others depend on their actions, work on tasks that challenge their thinking, and reflect their experience (Conrad & Hedin). However, not all students can fulfill these responsibilities without the proper tools and guidance. It is for this reason that civic skill development was an essential requirement for developing responsible citizens (Kirlin, 2003).

The Importance of Civic Skills

To establish a better understanding of the varying viewpoints of civic skill development, an evaluation across several disciplines took place to complete this section. All researchers reviewed acquiesced that civic skills were a vital component of successful civic engagement; however, specific desired skills varied across disciplines. One of the most complete studies conducted from the political science literature was that of Verba, Scholzman, and Brady (1995). Data from 15,000 guided the development of their Civic Voluntarism Model. The researchers contended that civic skills were mostly acquired throughout an entire person’s life that began with pre-adult experiences and concluded with adult institutional involvement. They also made the distinction between political behavior and civic skill. For example, lobbying a political representative was a political behavior; whereas, knowing how to successfully communicate

your opinion was the civic skill. Other skills discussed include competency in English, writing letters, vocabulary, running a meeting, planning initiatives, and presenting a speech (Verba et al., 1995). The Civic Volunteerism Model will be discussed later in this paper when reviewing motivations for civic engagement.

Political science literature depicted communication and organizational abilities as important civic skills; where as, the educational literature identified the importance of cognitive abilities, group involvement, and civic knowledge. Patrick (2003) produced a theoretical framework that presented four components designed to represent citizenship development. These components are civic knowledge, cognitive civic skills, participatory civic skills, and civic dispositions. While this theoretical framework was designed for a K-12 academic program, Patrick (2003) contributed to the overall knowledge base of citizenship education and the desired skills necessary for civic success.

The service learning aspect will be discussed later in the paper, but it is worth noting that several researchers documented the relation of service learning and the development of civic skills. Battistoni (1997) contended that the development of intellectual understanding and civic skills could be advanced through service learning. He stated, “democratic citizenship certainly requires clear thinking about public matters, but it also involves the communication of our thoughts and action, both vertically, to our representatives, and horizontally, with our fellow citizens” (p. 153). Moral dispositions in relation to civic judgment and the ability to take civic action to implement change in the world were also discussed as skills developed through the service learning experience (Battistoni; Morgan & Streb, 2001). Contributing to the experiential literature, Stoneman (2002) argued that young adults were not as civically engaged because they believe they cannot make a difference; however, she asserted that in some cases, “nobody has organized, persuaded, funded, and led them to be involved” (p. 221). Through inner-city youth

programs, students created and implemented projects they cared about using participatory skills and communication skills. They also become more interested in the civic issues that affected the continuance of the work they completed on their project (Stoneman).

As a developmental psychologist, Flanagan (2003) delved perceptively into the issues of the developmental roots of civically engaged students, and concurred with other scholars that experiences of membership in organizations enhance both civic skill and values. Although Flanagan did not use the term “civic skill”, she provided many examples of behaviors that are comparable to what other researchers deemed as civic skills. She reiterated civic disposition and discussed the following proficiencies essential to civic engagement in a group setting: responsibility, contributing effort, accountability, negotiation, compromise, resolving differences, and establishing collective goals. She wrote, “it is through the exercise of rights and the fulfillment of obligations in community organizations that younger generations come to appreciate what citizenship entails” (Flanagan, p. 258.)

Kirlin (2002, 2003) contended that although a plethora of studies had been conducted within the last decades, many scholars either provided theoretical or afforded implausible empirical findings. During a presentation at a conference, Kirlin (2006) stated, “one reason for the weak empirical results relative to civic engagement is that many...programs have failed to sufficiently address the fundamental civic skills” (p. 3). She provided a typology of civic skills that included the importance of communication, organization, critical thinking, and collective decision making.

Through this small but substantial review of the literature on civic skills, we see that many researchers acquiesced that civic skills develop slowly over time with practice. Nearly all scholars believed that curricular and co-curricular experiences provide an opportunity to cultivate acquired and desired skills. The development of these skills is a necessary part of

citizenship development. Research also told us that the development of skills contributed to and interacted with the development of values, understanding and self-concept (Flanagan, 2003; Torney-Purta & Vermeer, 2004).

Formation of Civic Values

Some researchers asseverated that individuals used values as a source for constructing their views on politics and public policy (Ehrlich, 2000), but unfortunately many studies indicated the trammels of civic progress resulting from confusion over values (Cunningham, 1977; Flanagan, 2003). In broad terms, Komives et al., (1998) noted that values are personal beliefs or standards individuals use to judge their own behavior. Whether a person based their values on logic or intuition, the formation of a value system was reported as a fundamental part of character development (Komives et al.). Other scholars expanded that notion and declared value clarification as an essential element of citizenship development (Cunningham, 1977).

Within her data collection, Flanagan (2003) reported two *value clusters* that indicated the degree to which young persons core values either revolved around self interests or public interests. She referred to these value clusters as social responsibility and social vigilance. Social responsibility accentuated compassion, trust, and public interest; whereas, social vigilance epitomized “individualism and guardedness about others getting the upper hand” (p. 259). She promulgated that the two value clusters manifested core value orientations in the American culture. The first placed an emphasis on egalitarian and humanitarian principles; whereas, the other core value emphasized material attainment, self-reliance, and individual autonomy (Flanagan).

Civic and Moral Identity

Barber (1992) called attention to the idea that citizenship is fundamentally tied to identity. In trying to understand this notion, I researched early theories that dealt with self

concept and identity development. Mead (1934) provided early theories in the relationship between citizenship and identity through his concepts of social self. In his perspective, the idea of social self-conception was derived from the responses and reactions of other people. He explained his theory through examples of using the concepts of “I” and “me” and averred that the individual cannot develop a sense of self without the interaction of others (1934). Referring back to the psychosocial development theories, Erikson (1980) and Chickering (1969) stressed the importance of self concept in the formation of identity. More recently, William and Streb (2001) specifically focused on the development of adolescent self concept so that students felt empowered to create change. They maintained the notion that a positive self concept had a direct impact on enhancing political efficacy and social responsibility; ergo, creating a civic identity.

In assessing civic identity, several researchers noted the similarities between the concepts of civic identity and moral identity (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, and Brady, 1995; Youniss & Yates, 1999). Youniss and Yates proposed that in order to develop a moral and civic identity, individuals must look within and establish “transcendent” values. These values impart a sense of self purpose and a willingness to commit to social and political awareness in the community. Consequently, the community engagement afforded the opportunity for the individual to morally reflection on societal issues. Just a few years later, Nasir and Kirshner (2003) proposed a framework that explored the connection between moral and civic identity. They offered a “set of conceptual tools with which to capture and articulate the moment-to-moment social moves and interactions that became intertwined with individual moral selves as they participate in cultural activities in their communities” (p. 138). The theory devised by Kohlberg (1981) should also be noted in the area of moral development. His contributions to morally developing the student had been noted several times

throughout this literature review, both contributing to student development as well as citizenship education.

Some researchers avowed that moral identity holds the individual accountable for his or her decision to action or not to act (Colby et al., 2000). Three common approaches to making decisions concerning moral conduct were discussed by Northouse (2000). The approaches included egoism, utilitarianism, and altruism. Egoism focused on the individual insuring the greatest good for him or herself. This is not to be confused with egalitarian which focuses on the democratic process. The second approach outlined a utilitarian effort that emphasized the best action assisted the most amount of people. “From this viewpoint, the morally correct action is the action that maximizes social benefits while maximizing social costs” (Northouse, p. 303). The third approach that guides moral behavior discussed was altruism. This method epitomized the concern for the common good and social welfare of the community without primary concern for self. These approaches will be reviewed in greater depth in the next section discussing motivations for civic engagement.

Civic Engagement

In order to have a better understanding of civic engagement in the twenty first century, it is beneficial to explore the political and service trends of the twentieth century. Metz and Youniss (2005) discussed the “James-Dewey-Dunn thesis” which focused on a concept that these philosophers introduced to the scholarly literature at the beginning of the twentieth century. Specifically, these three scholars viewed civic engagement to the community “as a means for instilling social responsibility and promoting civic cohesion among diverse persons within our democratic society” (Metz & Youniss, p. 414). Unfortunately the citizens in the first half of the century encountered the strife of World War I, the Great Depression, and World War II. Civic engagement was entwined with military involvement and national hardship.

In the 1950's, in preparation for the Cold War the educational system shunned their role in citizenship development and immersed efforts towards math and science (Phillips, 1999). In the 60's, college campuses were engrossed with political debates and protests as the Baby Boomer generation moved societal norms from conservative values to activism for social change. The revolutionary thinking of the 1960's extended into the early portion of the next decade. Frustration with the government, anti-war protests, and civil rights movements continued on college campuses (Phillips, 1999) By the end of the 1970's and early 1980's, there was a considerable decrease in civic engagement and the students' focus shifted away from political interest and values of social change to a heightened self interest (Phillips). A 1980 study by UCLA and the American Council on Education indicated that entering freshman were more concerned in status, power, and money. The altruist values that blossomed in the 1960's gave way to a growing sense of individualism and materialistic tendencies.

The 1990's, defined by Generation X, was characterized by a continued decrease in political engagement, growing cynicism and lack of trust in fundamental values (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003). Interestingly, during this same time period scholars reported an astonishing escalation of community service, which has continued into the twenty first century. The following sections will discuss the motivation for engaging in civic behaviors as well as delves further into the political and service aspects of civic engagement.

Motivations for Becoming Civically Engaged

Many researchers discussed why individuals become or do not become active in civic engagement activities (Gimble and Gay, 2006; Hart and Atkins, 2002; Torney-Purta, 2002; Verba et al. 1995). Verba, Schlozman, and Brady presented their empirically tested model called the Civic Voluntarism Model. This model consisted of four components which include: resources, psychological engagement, recruitment, and issue engagements. As the first

component, resources were identified as time, money, communication and organization skills that allow the ability to be politically engaged. Researchers (Vepra et al.) noted in this component that people from a higher socioeconomic status are more likely to be involved in politics because of the resources available to them. It is also important to note that education was included in the model as a resource. The second component in the model addressed an individual's psychological engagement with politics. A person with political interests, trusts political leaders, and holds the belief that their involvement can bring about change has a greater likelihood for becoming involved in political activity (Vepra et al.).

The third component discussed the recruitment of friends and colleagues. Researchers contended that people may represent the first two components, but they may still decide not to become politically involved until someone asks them to participate (Verba et al., 1995). They also asserted that a person more involved in other activities, including church, work, or volunteer organizations was more likely to be recruited for political engagement. The fourth and final component of the Civic Volunteerism Model was referred to as issue engagements. This described people who have opinions about specific issues that conflict either affect them personally or are in conflict with their values. These individuals are more likely to become involved in political activity because they want their issue addressed (Vepra et al.)

Although age was not a defying characteristic in the Civic Volunteerism Model, Gimple and Lay (2006) specifically discussed youth at risk for non-participation in civic engagement. Their conclusions supported components of the Civic Volunteerism Model stating that youth who came from poor families and those who lived in single-parent households, coupled with children of the foreign born and those with low educational aspirations were among those least likely to illustrate civic engagement behavior. This finding supported the first socioeconomic component of the Civic Volunteerism Model. Hart and Atkins (2002) specifically researched the

obstacles for at risk urban youth and stated that low civic engagement may be attributed to a “low level of political participation among urban adults, educational failures, and a lack of childhood opportunities to join clubs and teams” (p. 227); ergo, supporting the components of the model presented by Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (1995).

It is also reported that peer (Astin, 1984; Torney-Purta, 2002) and family involvement (Gimble & Lay, 2006; Winniford et al., 1995) had a significant effect on motivating students to participate in civic engagement. Students influenced by their family reported a stronger sense of civic obligation than those students whose parents were not involved (Fitch, 1991). Gimble and Lay supported this claim and reported that participatory or non-participatory attitudes are conveyed *inter-generationally*; however, they reported the difficulty of influencing parents to change their behavior if they did not positively display political interest or acts of social responsibility within their community. In addition to parental influence, Torney-Purta reported that peers also contributed either a positive or negative effect for involvement in civic activities.

Attitudes of Altruism and Individualism

Two important concepts discussed in the literature were attitudes of altruism and individualism. Researchers noted the fluctuations in altruism and individuals over the decades and discussed how these attitudes directly influence civic engagement in the community (Batson, 1991; Berger & Milem, 2002; Fitch, 1991; Serow, 1991; Winniford et al., 1995).

Altruism motivation. In the literature, altruism described a person’s desire to put others first in a selfless manner (Fitch, 1991; Winniford et al., 1995). Researchers attested that this type of motivation was illustrated by students in the 1960’s when student displayed more concern for other rather than themselves (Berger & Milem, 2002; Winniford et al.). Fitch indicated that service organizations usually display more altruistic values than social organizations. This type of altruistic motivation is also seen in the Servant Leadership Model (Greenleaf, 1977) discussed

earlier. In this model, both the leaders and the followers of the organization contributed unconditionally to nurturing the needs of others.

Individualism and egocentrism. The literature also discussed the rise of the individual egocentrism in comparison to the attitudes of students of service to others in the 1960's (Astin et al., 1999; Winniford et al., 1995). Researchers have found that students of today are more concerned about what they gained out of the volunteer experience rather than whom they helped. Boyer (1987) referred to these students as the "Me Generation" and reported that students were primarily concerned with material values. The more well known reference to this population was Generation X (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003; Howe & Strauss, 2000).

Egoistic motivation theories were built on the idea that students became too involved with the goal of increasing their own wellbeing (Batson, 1991). Serrow (1991) reported that 80% of students named sense of satisfaction as important to them and 56% cited their involvement with others in club and organization activities as more significant. Serrow also discussed that although student intentions may have been more service oriented when they first joined the organization, as they became more involved, their loyalties were more towards the affiliation with the organization.

In their ethnographic study, Friedman and Morimoto (2006) specifically explored the "lifeworlds" in which young people resided and their decision making process regarding whether and how to engage in citizenship activities. The most prominent theme that emerged from the data regarding civic behavior was that of resume padding. "While there were often other reasons that they were participating in a youth board or...community service program – helping others create change, having fun with friends – the one consistent theme...was that students needed something to put on their resumes" (Friedman & Morimoto, p. 37). Students faced what these researches described as a heightened awareness of their individualized risk. They go on to say

that “students see their choices and their individual performance as having high stakes. Opportunities may have increased over the past 30 years, but so have their consequences for failure” (p. 45).

Starting in the 1990’s there was an apparent amplification of materialistic values and decreased social trust among young Americans. Interestingly, although many theorists described the overwhelming attitudes of cynicism, as characterized by Generation X, there was very little empirical evidence to support these assumptions in the later half of the decade until that of Blackhurst and Foster (2003). Their research suggested that by 1995 students’ attitudes of cynicism began to shift toward a less apathetic and more optimistic point of view. This gave creditability to Howe and Strauss’s (2000) predictions that a new generation of students characterized by faith and optimism, called the Millennials, were to enter college campuses in the twenty-first century. It was forecasted that Millennials were to rejuvenate public life by illustrating more trust for government and displaying an increased level of social commitment. (Blackhurst & Foster; Howe & Strauss, 2000).

Political Engagement

When describing political participation, Milbrath (1965) differentiated between three types of individuals: apathetic, spectator, and gladiator. The apathetic individual had little concern for civic responsibility and was uninvolved in political activity. Spectators demonstrated minimal interest in political engagement by nominally supporting candidates during election season. Gladiators, on the other hand, exhibited fervent zeal for the political process and were highly engaged in civic activity.

Political Trends

Unfortunately, in recent decades statistics depicted very few gladiators. Statistics showed that the majority of college students fell into the apathetic category, as a downward trend

of political disengagement among young adults plagued the political arena (Levine, 2005). Levine elucidated that “ever since 18-21 year olds had won the right to vote in 1972, their turnout had been lower than their elders” (p. 3). After a noticeable lull of political activity in the 80’s, Levin and Hirsh (1990) predicted that the early 90’s would be the revitalization of student political engagement. There was a surge in 18-24 year olds voting in the 1992 presidential election that notably broke a thirty year downward trend (Levine); nonetheless, interest in political activity did not manifest political engagement as many theorist predicted. In fact, Blackhurst and Foster (2003) promulgated that the 1994 entering class of freshmen were more politically disengaged in comparison to earlier entering freshmen classes. By the end of the 90’s, surveys disclosed an all time low of 26% students reported that being politically informed was an important goal in life (HERI, 2001).

Young voter participation surged again in the 2004 presidential election (Galston, 2006) mainly due to the work of philanthropists and large foundations who contributed millions of dollars to “turn out” the young adult vote in the 2004 election (Beem, 2005). This supported Galston’s contention that students followed political campaigns when there was a competitive nature involved. Results also supported the Civic Volunteerism Model (Verba et al., 1995) which stated people became involved when they there approached and asked to become involved in the political process.

With the high voter turnout in the 2004 election, one would tend to believe that Howe and Strause’s (2000) prediction of the Millennial’s resurgence of political activity would be true. However, according to reports from the Higher Educational Research Institute (2005), the attitudes of college students in regards to political engagement were still unfavorable in 2005.

Wingspread Summit

In 2001, a group of thirty-three students representing colleges and universities across the nation were invited to attend a Wingspread Summit on Student Civic Engagement. At this summit, students stated that young people turned away from what they called “conventional politics” because it “corresponds to an institutional system that [students] view as antiquated and irrelevant to [student] concerns and passions for social justice” (Wingspread, 2001, p. 17). The students referred to conventional politics as inaccessible to college students because the plan for implementing change was typically derived through institutional policy formation beyond their control. These students avowed that college students were not apathetic to their role as citizens, but favored forms of civic engagement through community service initiatives. They also said that some students were involved in forms of political activity, but not in traditional manners that had been studied in the past (Wingspread).

Carnegie and CIRCLE

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) presented a series of reports in 2006 that discussed the most current issues in college students’ participation in civic engagement. One of the concepts discussed in the report provided possible insight as to why college students preferred not to become involved in political activities. Mutz (2006) purported that “politics is a realm of conflict. However, at a young age, children are encouraged to avoid conflict, to defuse it, and if all else fails, to walk away from it” (p. 16). When students grew up with the notion that conflict was equated to a deleterious situation, then Mutz pointed out that it is fathomable as to why students expressed interest in a less conflict oriented setting, such as community service. Students still felt that they were able to implement change; however, were not exposed to an uncomfortable environment. Mutz extended his argument to also state that

students also did not take a stand on political issues because they did not wish to bring up controversial issues with friends who may disagree. The information illustrates the importance of skill development discussed in the last section. The concept of dealing with controversy in a civil manner in order to achieve change is also a component of the conceptual framework used in this study.

Westheimer (2006) contended that some students viewed themselves as politically active, but in support of the reported information from the Wingspread Summit, students were not involved in traditional forms of political engagement. Traditional forms of engagement that students participated in the past may have included voting, lobbying, signing petitions, wearing buttons, conducting debates, campaigning during election season. Individualism and informal networks, coupled with technology, altered the traditional forms of engagement. “Membership in advocacy networks, the regular signing and forwarding of e-mail petitions, and the spontaneous organization of protests and rallies are just a few examples of this phenomenon (Stone, 2006, p. 44). Some contend that there is a new form of student politics (Kahne, 2006); whereas others argued that the Millinreal students have not displayed the optimism in politics that characterized their generation (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003).

Service Engagement

“Community service serves as a vehicle for connecting students to their communities and the larger social good, while at the same time instilling in students values of community and social responsibility” (Neururer, 1998, p. 323). Sax and Astin (1997) avowed that participation in service activities not only enhanced students’ civic responsibility, but also their academic development as well as their life skills. Despite the time and energy spent in service participation, studies indicated that students who participated in community service activities actually spent more time studying than non-participants (Sax & Astin). College students who

participated in community service also reported a connection to the larger community issues, an understanding of the relationship of self and others in relation not only to the concepts of individualism and altruism, but also an understanding of racial differences (Hurtado, 2006). This section will explore the overwhelming development of service in higher education over the past decades.

Service Trends

Research findings indicated that the degree to which students participated in service opportunities varied and research conducted specifically in the late 80's and early 90's produced conflicting information largely because of the methods employed to measure participation (Astin, 1999; Fitch, 1991; Levine & Hirsh, 1990; Winniford et al., 1995). Many researchers compared the changing trends of volunteering to that of the changing characteristics and interests of college students (Blackhurst & Foster, 1995; Fitch; Winniford et al.); however, what started the changing trends?

In 1984 it was reported that 29% of college students had volunteered in community service activities since entering college (Fitch, 1991). By the end of the decade, the number of students engaging in community service had risen to 43% (Blackhurst & Foster, 2003). A recent survey produced by the Civic and Political Health of the Nation (2006) indicated that 54% of the young people prefer to volunteer with community organizations while only 13% volunteered with political organizations. The Higher Education Research Institute (2005) reported an all time high of 83.2% of entering freshmen in Fall 2005 who reported volunteering during their senior year of high school. Another all time record in the history of the survey indicated that 67.3% of the students believed that they will continue their volunteering in college. In addition, the report indicated that current college students also wanted to implement change on different levels, with

41.3% who stated they believed it was essential to influence social values in the community. It should be noted that this was a 3% increase in comparison to the following year (HERI, 2005).

One could debate that students' responses were skewed since students had observed possibly the two most profound natural disasters of their lives thus far which included the Indian Ocean Tsunami and Hurricane Katrina (HERI); however, one cannot argue with the overwhelming increases in the number of students participating in service activities over the past two decades. These monumental figures may cause someone to question what caused the surge in community service participation.

The Surge of Community Service

The growing individualism and emphasis on materialist values in the late 70's and 80's caused universities to reevaluate their role in citizenship development of students and their responsibilities to the local communities (Colby et al., 2000). Many university initiatives took place within the past two decades that highlight university efforts. An example of this is the creation of the Project for Public and Community Service. This was formed in 1985 by a group of college presidents who considered community service an essential component of quality education (Fitch, 1991). The founding of Campus Compact pioneered the beginning efforts of recreating an interest in service involvement. Campus Compact was established in 1985 by the presidents of Brown, Georgetown, and Stanford universities. They were frustrated with the depiction of materialistic and self-absorbed students of the "me generation" and believed that students would once again engage in civic activities if provided with guidance and the fortitude that everyone can make a difference (Compass Compact, 2006). National policy also enhanced recognition and resources for service opportunities among young adults. Under President Clinton's administration, both the National and Community Service Act of 1990 and the National Service Trust Act of 1993 were established (Ehrlich, 2000).

Wingspread Summit

The students at the Wingspread Summit on Student Civic Engagement not only discussed their perspectives on political engagement, but also disclosed their opinions and personal experiences in terms of service engagement. The previous section discussed their discontent with conventional politics and stated that they were more involved in community service because they felt like they could make a difference through acts of service rather than political engagement. One student commented, “We see possibilities for change in our respective communities, and we have seen positive outcomes of working with others. We hope to build bridges between people and the communities” (Wingspread, 2001, p. 2). They argued that service was a form of alternative politics that can lead to social change in their community. The students also proposed a third form of civic engagement, a term they referred to as service politics that served as the bridge between conventional forms political engagement and community service. “Service politics becomes the means through which students can move from community service to political engagement. Those who develop connections to larger systematic issues building upon...community service adopt a framework through which service politics leads to greater social change” (Wingspread, p. 18). They described how community service attends to the immediate needs of the community, where as service politics addressed the issues that create the needs within the community. A large contributor to service politics was the reflective component found in service learning (Wingspread).

Service Learning

The concept and adoption of service learning practices on college campuses has soared within the last decade. An entire study could be dedicated to service learning; therefore, this section will only provide the reader with a familiarity of service learning. The literature from different disciplines described service learning in various manners. Dewey (1916) avowed that

education and service were entwined and the relationship between the two was to bring good to the community. Howard (1998) approached service learning from the academic side where the service complemented the pedagogical model of academic learning. The students from Wingspread (2001) approached service learning similar to Dewey and saw service learning as the reflective mechanism that linked community service to political engagement. Some researchers believed that service learning fostered citizenship development (Clark, Croody, Hayes, & Phillips, 1997; Harkavy & Benson, 1998). Other researchers discussed the skill development and value clarification that accompanies service learning (Battistoni, 1997; Mores, 1998). Morgan and Streb (2001) reported that when students were given real “responsibilities, challenging tasks, and made important decisions, involvement in service learning projects had significant and substantial impacts on students increases in self concept, political engagement, and attitudes towards out-groups” (p. 166). Hence, reports indicated that depending on how the service learning was approached, it could be a positive influence on student identity development, cognitive development, and an effective method of citizenship development.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework guiding this case study is based upon the Social Change Model of Student Leadership Development produced by the Higher Education Research Institute (1996). As noted earlier in providing an overview of understanding for the conceptual framework, many conceptual and theoretical frameworks were reviewed from varying disciplines that included developmental psychology, political science, and education; however, the HERI (1996) Social Change Model of Leadership Development presented from the educational discipline was the most applicable for this study. This model exemplified the post-industrial paradigm of leadership development (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991), in addition it incorporated components of citizenship development that include value

clarification, skill development, and interpersonal dynamics. As discussed throughout the literature review, the post-industrial paradigm embodied the relational and collaborative process that epitomized ethical and moral development and decision making. The paradigm manifested the belief that all students have the potential to become good leaders and model citizens through the development of skill and values (Komives et al.; Rost). The model is also broad enough to relate to varying type of leadership programs regardless of curricular or co-curricular structure (Dugan, 2006a; HERI).

Many important components of citizenship development mirror and complement the post industrial theories. For example, as the literature illustrated, main components of citizenship development included value clarification, the advancement of skill development, resolving conflict through collaboration, and the establishment of common purpose (Flanagan, 2003; Kirlin, 2003; Patrick, 2003; Torney-Purta & Vermeer, 2004; Verba et al., 1995). The Social Change Model also could be used to examine the relationship between values and behavior, two of the measurements of civic engagement (Ehrlich, 2000). As noted through the review of the literature, a primary goal found in both leadership and citizenship theories was the development of students who will make a difference in their community (Astin, 1999; Battistoni, 1997; Komives et al., 1998; Stoneman, 2002). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development was the only model found cross-discipline that addressed the concept of change.

Now that the reasons for selecting the model have been discussed, it is important to comprehend how this model relates to this specific study. A recognition and understanding of the goals of the model, individual components and core values of those components are instrumental in this process. The Social Change Model of Leadership Development promoted two goals. The first goal embraced student learning and development through self knowledge and leadership competence. The second goal created an atmosphere for social change to take

place in the community the group serves. These goals were integrated throughout the three main model components, which explored the individual, the group, and society. In this study, the individual described in this model will be the individual student, the group will primarily represent the organized leadership program, and society will represent the community the individual and group serves (HERI, 1996)

Individual

Each component exhibited values that provided a better understanding of the development process within the model. The core values embedded in the component labeled as individual included consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment. Within this component, the student begins to reflect upon what they believe as an individual. The students develop steady aspects of their personality that contribute to their consciousness of self. According to the Higher Education Research Institute (1996) these aspects can include talents, interests, aspirations, values, concerns, self concept, limitations, and dreams. The students display congruence when their actions are consistent with their beliefs and ethical value system. Congruence and consciousness of self are intertwined in that the level of congruence relies upon the development of consciousness of self. A student whose actions are congruent with personal values has reached a higher level of development than a student who does not display the courage of conviction. This concept is intensified with the degree of commitment. In this model, commitment is defined as “the psychic energy that motivates the individual to serve and that drives the collective effort” (HERI, p. 22). Commitment is described as an essential ingredient to accomplish any form of change in society or the community (HERI).

Group

The second component of the Social Change Model is classified as *group*. In this study, the group will be the group setting of the leadership program. Since this model is known for its

broad application, it can also represent the organization in which the student held an officer position. The core values within the group, as described by the Higher Education Research Institute (1996) included collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility. Collaboration describes the relational process of coming together with open minds, effectively communicating, accepting shared responsibility and working together with a common purpose. In the model, “while common purpose is a group value, it connects individuals to the group because it requires that each individual ultimately embrace a similar concept of what the group is trying to accomplish” (HERI, p. 56).

Controversy with civility discusses the importance of working through conflict in compromising and positive demeanor. “Resolving controversies with civility makes it easier for all group members to be congruent and to work more effectively with one another” (HERI, 1996, p. 59). For example, when conflict arises in the group setting, students at a higher level of skill development will be able to communicate their viewpoint, listen to other opinions, negotiate their stance, and determine a solution that not only enhances their common purpose as a group, but also supports a decision that is amenable to all parties. Although it may seem that “controversy with civility” is an awkward term, the contributing researchers of the model chose not to refer to this concept as conflict because conflict has a negative competing tone. Controversy makes reference to the disagreement, but civility characterizes a safe environment with group members who share the same common purpose (HERI).

Society/Community

Society/Community is the final component of the model and the only one that epitomizes the value of citizenship. Two values were discussed in this component: citizenship and change. As already discussed, citizenship can have many different meanings. In this model, citizenship implied more than just membership, but rather implied “active engagement of the individual and

the leadership group in an effort to serve the community” (p. 65) through acts of social or civic responsibility (HERI, 1996). The model depicted a good citizen as one who works for “positive change on behalf of others and the community” (p. 23).

In the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, the values were referred to as the seven C’s. Change was not included as one of the seven C’s because it was considered the “value hub which gives meaning and purpose to the seven C’s. Change, in other words, is the ultimate goal of the creative process of leadership – to make a better world and a better society for self and others” (HERI, p. 21).

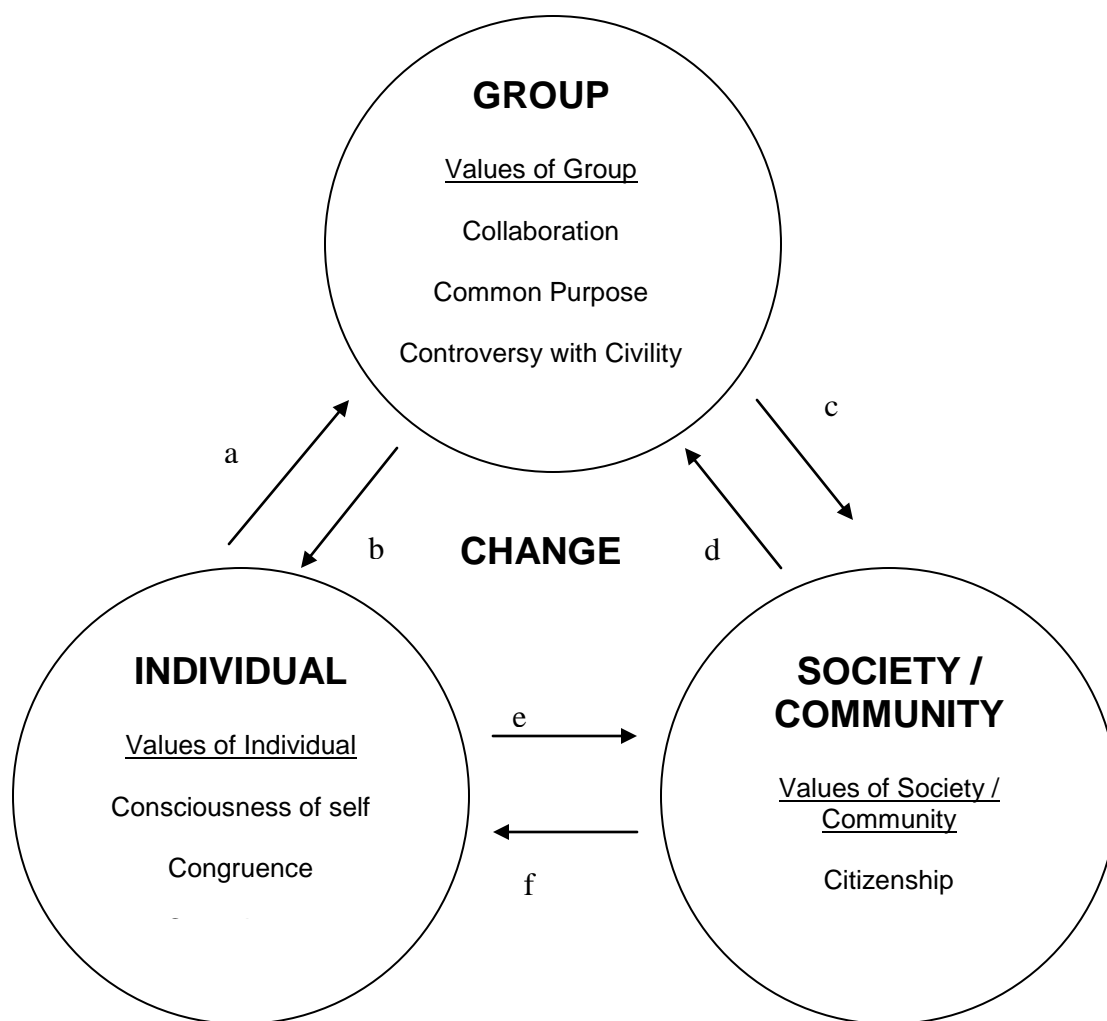
Interaction of Components

Within the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, the contributing researchers described the relationship and illustrated the interaction between the components with the use of the term “feedback loops”. The model, depicted in Figure 1, graphically illustrates the three components and the relationship among them. Arrow “a” represented the qualities that the individual contributed to the leadership development of the group. Arrow “b” indicated the effect of the group back to the individual (HERI, 1996). For example, in a leadership setting, students are at different levels of value clarification and development. When they participate in a group individual values may impact the group effort and be influential in shared goal, as represented in arrow “a”. In the same manner, the group’s values may influence the development of individual values, as represented in arrow “b”. According to the model, arrow “c” represented the effort the group exerted through behavioral engagement, and “d” symbolized the reaction from the community and the affect on the group (HERI, 1996). For example, through collaboration and common purpose, the leadership group may decide to engage in either a political or service activity, as represented with arrow “c”. The reaction from the community, as seen in arrow d, has an impact on the group. If the experience is positive, it may

increase their commitment to civic engagement; however, if the experience is negative, it may decrease their commitment to help the community.

Arrow, “e”, represented the individual’s participation in the service activity, and “f” symbolized how the individual was affected through participation in the service project. It is indicated that “some of the most important community feedback to the individual occurs indirectly, where individual students are able to compare their own direct experience of the service activity with that of the other group members” (HERI, 1996, p. 20).

Figure 1. Model of the conceptual framework to understand the three components in the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (HERI, 1996).



Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to explore how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this study will investigate contrasting leadership programs from a curricular and co-curricular stance and explore citizenship development through the program as well as through the students' perspectives of both students and administration. The results of the study will provide student affairs administrators with empirically based knowledge regarding student values that will offer guidance and recommendations in altering program structure in order to meet the needs of students in regards to citizenship development.

This chapter provided an overview of the literature that informed the conceptual framework. The literature review provided a comprehensive view of all areas relevant to leadership programs and the development of responsible citizens. It was paramount to provide a review of leadership theory, student development, and leadership development in order to adequately discuss leadership programs. This literature included an overview of the evolution of leadership approaches from the industrial paradigm to the relational, value-laden post-industrial paradigm.

The student development literature presented an evolution of how universities addressed the development of the student and provided an overview of core student development theories that can influence the development of the student leader as well as the responsible citizen. The literature on citizenship development reviewed many disciplines in order to obtain perspectives from the areas of developmental psychology, political science and education. From this body of knowledge, many elements such as citizenship education, moral development in civic education, and the trends of civic engagement through political and service participation were discussed. The Theory of Involvement was also reviewed because this theory contributes to the

understanding of student development, participation in leadership programs and behavioral engagement in acts citizenry. Finally, the literature review discussed the Social Change Model of Leadership Development as the conceptual framework for this study. Hence, this study will focus on how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares them for responsible citizenship.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology that was used in answering the research questions presented in this study. Additionally, this chapter explains the rationale for using the qualitative research approach, the rationale for using a case study tradition, discuss my role as a researcher, relay my subjectivities, discuss ethical considerations, explain the data collection and analysis procures for this study.

Research Questions

The primary research question that guided this study was: How does involvement in a leadership development program prepare students for responsible citizenship? The secondary research questions were:

1. What are the differences in approaches to citizenship development in a curricular leadership program in comparison to a co-curricular leadership program?
2. What components make up the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
3. What is the purpose / mission of each of the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
4. How are the leadership programs assessed?
5. To what degree do student leaders' values contribute to citizenship?
6. To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement?
7. To what degree do students' behaviors contribute to citizenship?

8. To what degree do student leaders feel empowered to create change in their communities?

Rationale for Using a Qualitative Research Approach

Qualitative research is an exploratory inquiry process that provides an understanding of social or human problems (Creswell, 1998; Gay & Airasian, 2003). Researchers emphasize the “value-laden” nature of inquiry in order to seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). The reality of the study is that viewed from the perspective of the individuals participating in the research experience (Creswell, 1994). This form of research is useful for describing and answering questions about participants and context in both highly studied areas, as well as research areas where little is known (Gay & Airasian). Qualitative research is collected from the participants through observations, interviews, and documents (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Qualitative research can clarify subject matters and answer questions that cannot be addressed by quantitative methods. (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Quantitative studies approach research from a positivistic viewpoint, seeking out what is real and independent of the researcher (Creswell, 1994). Quantitative research depends on numeric data from participants which may provide evidence to support a pre-determined hypothesis stated at the beginning of the study (Creswell; Gay & Airasian). Unlike the qualitative approach, quantitative research does not focus on the process that provides the understanding in reaching the outcome (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The goal of this qualitative research was not to quantify, but rather to capture the experience, describe the perspective of the participants, compare the programs (Gay & Airasian), and provide the reader with a sense of being in the environment of the participant (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Gay and Airasian (2003) affirm that qualitative research is guided by five general characteristics. The first characteristic describes the sources for qualitative research as a naturalistic approach. This means that researchers study things in their natural settings and attempt to interpret and make sense of the phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). The amount of time in the setting varies according to traditions of qualitative inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Researchers are able to give a more accurate explanation of the findings if they are able to experience the setting as well as observe the participant in that setting (Creswell, 1998). Interviewing the students in their natural setting is very important to my understanding of student experiences in this study. I was able to gain a better understanding of their environment and how it fits into their role as student leaders.

The second characteristic that guides the qualitative approach is the use of description (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Qualitative researchers are more intrigued with “rich” description than numbers. As I reported the findings in this study, I embedded participants’ descriptive quotes in narrative form. Direct quotes not only offered a participant’s story, but also provided substance to the written results.

Thirdly, qualitative research emphasizes a holistic approach that grants equal importance to both the process and the outcome (Creswell, 1994; Gay & Airasian, 2003). Creswell (1998) emphasizes a *complex holistic picture* that enables the researcher to gain a full understanding of the problem and the details connected to the issue. The researcher learns about the participants, the setting, and the interactions. “Without this immersion, the search for interpretation and understanding would elude the qualitative researcher” (Gay & Airasian, p. 169). In this study, the naturalistic setting and the descriptive approach complemented the holistic approach. As a researcher, I immersed myself in the descriptive stories from the participants and enhanced my

understanding of the full picture through extended engagement. This allowed me to gain the information needed for my research.

The fourth characteristic that Gay and Airasian (2003) discuss is that qualitative data are analyzed in an inductive manner. Rather than testing hypotheses in a cause and effect order, as found in quantitative research (Creswell, 1998), the qualitative researcher analyzes data through the patterns and relationships that are developed from collecting or observing multiple specific instances (Creswell, 1994). Qualitative researchers do not impose an organizing structure or make assumptions (Gay & Airasian). Rather, themes emerge from the data and provide *context-bound* information leading to patterns and theories that help explain the phenomenon (Creswell, 1998, p. 7). As a qualitative researcher, I did not make assumptions as to what I thought students would report, nor did I try to have them fit a preconceived mold. Rather, I built a portrait based on all data collected so that the reader can gain a sense of the environment and the sentiments of the participant.

Rationale for a Case Study Approach

There are several types of inquiry methods that a researcher can use when conducting a qualitative study: historical, phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnographic, and case study (Creswell, 1994, 1998; Gay & Airasian, 2003). The selected methodological approach for this research was a multi-case study (Yin, 2003) in order to analyze using a compare and contrast method as well as to address generalizability (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003).

The case study is an exploration of the uniqueness and complexities of a single subject, setting or particular event that is bounded by time and place (Bogdan and Biklen, 2003; Creswell, 1994, 1998; Patton, 2002). Depending on the focus of the study, this type of qualitative inquiry could concentrate on an individual, an activity, a program or a collection of documents (Patton). According to Yin (1989), “a case study is an empirical inquiry that

investigates a contemporary phenomenon with a real life context; when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.” When a researcher decides to study more than one subject, a multi-case study is implemented. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2003), researchers initiate multi-case studies for various reasons. Some researchers start with the intent of a single study, and then follow the original study with a series of case studies. Other times, researchers may include a less intensive study in order to address generalizability. Finally, a multi-case study is sometimes used to compare and contrast the cases in a study (Bogdan & Biklen). Researchers can approach their case study using an exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory strategy (Yin, 1989).

As a researcher, I decided to use the multi-case method of qualitative inquiry for many reasons. First, the case study approach provided a more accurate understanding of the selected leadership development programs that was then compared to theoretical approaches. The information derived from a multi-case design provided more convincing results and the “overall study will be considered more robust” (Yin, 1989, p. 48). The two cases were selected through extreme purposeful sampling in order to show a comparison between curricular and co-curricular leadership programs. Since it was feasible to conduct analysis on the subunits of the leadership program, this type of research is be classified as an embedded multi-case study. Following the traditional characteristics of qualitative inquiry, rich descriptions of the phenomenon understudy were included in the analysis.

The Role of the Researcher

I have always considered myself a “reflective practitioner” (Schon, 1983). As I approached this study, I initiated a reflective practice of my role and abilities as a qualitative researcher. I familiarized myself with the characteristics of a good qualitative researcher and have reflected as to whether I possessed these qualities. The following characteristics were

relevant to my role as a researcher in this qualitative study. The qualitative researcher looks at the subject through the eyes of a philosopher, remembering that he is a learner, exerts patience while investigating how the pieces of the puzzle fit together while being cognizant of the subjectivity that he brings to the research topic.

Role as a philosopher

The naturalistic form of inquiry has deep roots in philosophical perspectives, and the researcher is to return to the traditional tasks of philosophy in the search for wisdom (Creswell, 1998). Having an undergraduate minor in philosophy, I am intrigued with understanding and exploring the essence of a topic. The philosopher focuses on the basic questions arising out of the human experience. Through this training, I have learned to use ambiguity to probe into the deeper meaning of the experience and reflect upon what I have discovered.

Role as a learner

Gay and Airasian (2003) and Glesne (1999) describe the qualitative researcher as a learner. As a learner, the researcher must listen to the participants, observe their nonverbal reactions, reflect on all aspects of the projects, and describe the meaning from the perspective of the participants. This emphasizes the researcher as an active learner who tells the story from the view of the participants rather than that as an “expert” who passes judgment on the participants (Glesne).

I am no longer the expert, but rather an inquisitive pupil learning from the narratives of the participants. As I organized the disarray of findings and conduct my analysis after data collection, my quest for knowledge was strong followed by a desire to learn more about this phenomenon. Glesne (1999) notes, “you are learning more than you can ever deal with...and you are learning great stuff, but do not know where it will lead or how it will all fit together” (p. 43). When I became frustrated with the vast amount of information, I wrote field notes in my

journal that described my bewildered thoughts. This process lead to discovery as I was able to map out how the data fit together and themes emerged. The reflection process played a vital roll and confusion lead to discovery and further exploration.

Role as investigator

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe the qualitative researcher as an investigator who engages in exploratory activities while conducting research. According to Lincoln and Guba, the investigator seeks to find the unknown and pieces acquired information together in order to gain the full picture. As an investigative researcher, I sought to understand rather than make conclusions too quickly. I was patient in waiting for the picture to unfold, but will continuously sought to find the information that will provided meaning to the unknown.

Ethical Considerations

Regardless of the form of inquiry, researchers must be aware of the ethical issues involved in research activity and abide by set criteria (Creswell, 1994, 1998; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Glesne, 1999). Glesne puts forth two major ethical conditions that arise from the inherent differences in qualitative and quantitative research. Whereas quantitative research varies little once the study has begun, qualitative research plans usually evolve as the understanding of the topic becomes more apparent to the researcher. The second difference is that qualitative researchers are engaged with their participants; whereas, quantitative researchers do not share descriptive dialogue with their participants. The relationship that qualitative researchers form with the participants allows the opportunity for thick, rich data, but it may also compromise the objectivity of data analysis if the questions tend to exploit the participants (Glesne).

In order not to compromise the integrity of the study, qualitative researchers should be aware of ethical issues that may arise. The American Anthropological Associations (AAA) offers recommendations to guide qualitative researchers out of unethical situations (Creswell,

1998; Glesne). Glesne outlined five ethical considerations taken from the AAA. The first consideration states that ethical obligations toward the participants supersede all goals of the project. The researcher must discontinue the research if ethical obligations within the study are compromised. Personal character guides the high ethical standards I possess and formal teaching, as well as life experience, has educated me in the importance of ethical decision making. I designed my study in a manner that complements both personal conviction and research guidelines. The second ethical consideration recommends that the researcher is responsible for the safety, dignity, and privacy of the participants (Glesne). Keeping participants from harm by not exposing them to risks is an important part of qualitative research (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Although my study was not of a sensitive nature and should not pose risk to the participants, I was mindful of the manner in which interview questions were asked and data were recorded.

Thirdly, in order to abide by ethical obligations, the qualitative researcher must discuss the level of anonymity with their participants (Glesne, 1999). Prior to each interview, the participant and I carefully reviewed the consent form and I discussed confidentiality and anonymity with the students. I indicated that their real names will not be identified in the research findings, but rather a pseudonym would be given.

The fourth criteria from the AAA Guidelines reports the importance of obtaining informed consent of the participants in the study prior to the start of research (Glesne, 1999). The informed consent is valuable to both the researcher and the participant because it presents the expectations of the research. Participants should know upfront the purpose of the study, their role and the risks involved (Gay & Airasian, 2003). In order to gain access to the site and be granted the opportunity to observe the leadership program, I spent a considerable amount of time discussing the purpose of the study with administration at each site. Once permission was

granted at the university level, all participants to be interviewed received a consent form that discussed the purpose of the study as well as outline the potential risks involved.

The fifth criteria discusses to the relationship between the researcher and the participant. Within qualitative inquiry, it is the researcher's responsibility to insure that ethical obligations are kept throughout the research process even when close friendships or relationships may have developed (Glesne, 1999). Although establishing rapport with the participants is encouraged, my primary role throughout this study was that of a researcher. I was mindful that a relationship may be formed with administration during informal discussions. Although this type of networking is valuable among colleagues, once again, my primary role was that of a researcher.

Sampling Plan for Case Studies

Site Selection

The site selections for this multi-case study were motivated by the extreme purposeful sampling sought in this case study. Purposeful sampling concentrates on selecting "information-rich" cases that will elucidate the questions posed in the study (Patton, 2002). Although most case studies utilize extreme purposeful sampling to compare and contrast intense successes and failures (Patton; Yin, 1989), this study focused on extremely different programs in the comparison and contrast of a curricular leadership development program and a co-curricular leadership program. Although the leadership programs were extremely different, the type of university selected was to be very similar. The criteria established for the potential sites were as follows: four year undergraduate research based urban institution that had the desired leadership program in place. Universities within the *Urban 13* were researched as potential sites for the study. The Urban 13 is a research-sharing association between major urban universities located in major metropolitan cities. Although the Urban 13 has grown to twenty-one participating universities, the name remains the same. For this study, it was important to look at similar

universities in order to decrease limitations due to university resources. It was preferred that the college or university be in the proximity of Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Tennessee and Texas for travel purposes.

Initial research on sites had been collected via websites. Subsequent information was sought from national databases registered with leadership programs; however, this endeavor was not as successful as once hoped. Additional research was conducted via researching university websites. After compiling a list of school that met the leadership program criteria stated earlier and I gained further information by contacting the program director at the school via phone and email and asked for program specifics. This dialogue included a question as to whether the leadership program director welcomed such a study on the leadership program at their institution. From this information, I compiled the final ranked list of universities that met the leadership program criteria as well as the site criteria.

Gaining Access

According to Glesne (1999), access is a process that the researcher must undertake in order to satisfy the intended research purposes. Very rarely is it possible to conduct educational research without the assistance of a number of other people (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The initial contact in this process usually begins with a “gatekeeper” who leads the researcher to the potential participants (Creswell, 1998). As predicted the gatekeeper for all of the universities contacted was an administrator within Student Affairs. It should be noted that I hold a position on the regional leadership with National Association for Campus Activities and am acquainted with many of the institutions’ gatekeepers. This was taken into consideration when selecting a site because my leadership position may or may not have influenced their willingness to participate in this study.

Gatekeepers at seven southern urban universities were sent emails (Appendix A) that requested permission to conduct the study at their institution, and interview students. It also requested suggestions of students who fit the qualified participant criteria as well as an interview with the leadership program administrators. A follow-up phone call was placed to the gatekeeper to discuss the initial email request (Appendix B). If the program administrator was not the same person who granted access, I asked for the person's contact information and sent an email to the Program Administrator(s) and asked them to participate in a semi-structured interview with me to discuss the leadership program from the administrative implementation side (Appendix C).

Two universities responded expressing interest in participating in the study from the curricular aspect and three universities relayed interest in the participation from the co-curricular aspect. Two of the five were universities where I was close to the administrators who oversaw the leadership programs. These two universities were ranked low on my selection list. Final site selections were made based on travel expenses. I also did not select the two universities where I knew the primary administrator over the leadership program.

The first confirmed site was City University, and the focus of study was the four year curricular-based Emerging Leaders program. This program was consistent with McIntire's (1989) description of an academic-focused model that is a combination of academic and co-curricular opportunities. The second site was going to be an urban university in the southwest region. They stated their intentions to participate and this study was to research their co-curricular leadership weekend focused on training for organization leaders. However, due to professional turnover in the office, this university pulled out of the study. I contacted the next university on my list that fit all criteria. The second site selected was Metropolitan University (MU) and focus of the study was the co-curricular leadership program. This program had a very

unique name, so a pseudonym of *Leadership Council* was provided to protect anonymity of the university. The Leadership Council fell into the classification of a student organization within the office of campus involvement at MU. This leadership program structure was consistent with McIntire's description as one of the most traditional co-curricular student affairs models that focuses on the development of student leaders within the campus activities and student organization setting.

The gatekeeper at City University oversaw the leadership program and agreed to participate in the study without delay; however, that was not the case at Metropolitan University. At Metropolitan University, I first contacted the Director of the Involvement Office. He stated that he would have to speak to the two coordinators who oversaw the leadership program. He met with the two coordinators and emailed a few days after my initial contact with him to indicate their interest in participating in the study. He copied the two coordinators in the email and directed me to email them directly. I emailed both of the coordinators. One emailed back and she became my primary administrative contact for Metropolitan University.

Selection of Participants

The primary research focus driving this study was to investigate the leadership programs and explore how, and to what degree, do the programs contribute to citizenship. In order to address the research question, I once again sought purposeful and criterion sampling techniques rather than "relying on the idiosyncrasies of chance" (Maxwell, 2005, p. 89). The eleven student participants selected for this study shared the following aspects: (1) recently participated or currently participating in leadership development training, (2) undergraduate classified at a junior or senior level status, (3) current or past member of a registered student organization on campus.

Once access was granted, I discussed my purposeful criterion participant sampling with the administrator over the leadership program. A list of all past and present participants in the leadership program for the past two years was requested from the university administrator. It was also requested that the administrators indicate which students met the junior/senior level status and organization requirements. The organization participation requirement did not pose a problem because the Leadership Council at Metropolitan University was considered an organization and the Emerging Leaders Program at City University required organization participation as a component of the program.

The administrator provided a list of thirty-eight junior and seniors currently participating in the curricular Emerging Leaders at CU. Due to the structure of the program, the co-curricular Leadership Council was more limiting due to the fact that only fifteen students were on the Executive Board of the Leadership Council each year. The majority of the students on the Council this year were all sophomores, which meant they did not meet the study criteria. Therefore, the administrators had to provide a list of students who served on the Council last year. This list was also rather limiting and included only ten names because the seniors on the Council last year had already graduated. I was aware that identifying five students from the co-curricular program may be more challenging than the curricular program since co-curricular programs have more flexibility in structure.

Contacting Participants

The administrators presented student listing that included the names, mailing addresses, email address, and phone number of the students. I emailed all students on this list and asked for their interest in participating in this study (Appendix D). The email included a description of the study as well as the consent form (Appendix E). The university administrator was also copied on the email to indicate to the student that this researcher was in communication with the proper

university representative. The email also encouraged the student to speak with the administrator if they questioned the validity of the study. One student identified that she did contact the administrator for verification before indicating her interest as a candidate for the study.

If a student did not respond to the email, then I conducted a follow-up phone call with the number provided by the campus administrator (Appendix F). If the student called me over the phone to indicate that they are not interested in participating, I thanked them for their time over the phone (Appendix F). If they emailed that they are not interested, I sent a reply email confirming that I received their email and thanked them for their time (Appendix G). When a student emailed and expressed their interest in participating I sent an email asking for their availability on the dates I would be on their campus (Appendix H). Emails were sent to confirming the date, time, and location of the interview (Appendix I). Additional reminder emails were sent to the participant one week before the interview (Appendix J). A telephone call was placed 24 hours before the interview to serve as a reminder and I asked if there are any last minute questions (Appendix K).

The initial concern was that it would be difficult to secure five student interviews from the co-curricular Leadership Council at Metropolitan University; however, students on the list responded quickly indicating their interest. Communication with the students from MU may have been a smoother process because the administrator followed-up with the students. This will be listed as a limitation because one could argue that the administrator contact with the students may have influenced their participation positively or negatively. If the administrator influenced their decision to participate, they may have felt some obligation to speak highly about the administrator or the program.

Communication was much more difficult with the students at City University because the CU email server was having problems. I sent out emails to all qualified potential participants;

however, one week later started randomly receiving system administrator return emails from the CU webmail server. These emails notified me that there was a system delay on the side of CU webmail server and the emails were returned to me as undeliverable. The technical problem was thought to be fixed when I started receiving responses from the students, but then I only to receive additional return messages later in the process when I was trying to confirm interview dates and times. I called the Administrator from CU and he confirmed that their university was experiencing server problems. It was for this reason that I interviewed six students rather than five at CU. In the final stages, I never received final confirmation from one participant due to the CU webmail server and her cell phone was temporarily out of order, so I scheduled a back-up interview with another student. As it turned out, she did email her final confirmation and she showed up to her originally scheduled interview on time not knowing that I never received her confirmation email. In the end, six students from City University rather than intended five students were interviewed. Five students from Metropolitan University as well as the administrators who oversaw each leadership programs were interviewed. There was one administrator from CU and two administrators from MU interviewed. Appendix O provides a visual representation of the discussed in this section.

Data Collection

Data collection is an essential element in the research process (Creswell, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Considerable deliberation and attention to detail must go into decisions that concern the data collection process (Creswell; Miles & Huberman). There are six primary data collection sources in the case study approach. These include: documents, archival records, interviews, artifacts, direct observation, and participant observation (Yin, 1989). The data collection methods used in this study were interviews and a review of documents including but not limited to training material, reports, statistical profiles, training pictures, and assessment

reports. This section will address the decisions regarding site selection, gaining access to the site, selecting participants and contacting the participants. It will also describe the forms of data collection used in this study as well as discuss the principles of data collection.

Rationale for Selecting Data Collection Methods

As discussed earlier, Yin (1989) summarizes six sources of data collection in case studies. This multi-case study will utilize collected through three primary methods: documents, observation, and interviews (Creswell, 1998). Throughout the data collection period, I employed these methods in order to reach data saturation as well as increase validity of the study. In order to establish construct validity and reliability, Yin stresses the importance of using multiple sources of evidence. By utilizing the data collection methods of document review, and interviewing participants, it decreases the problematic questions that might arise and it also constructs validity.

Case study portfolio

It is recommended that researchers create a system that will organize the data collected throughout the case study (Patton, 2002; Yin, 1989). This type of portfolio will increase reliability of the study because it allows the opportunity for all types of collected documents to be viewed. In this study, my data portfolio included case study notes / field notes, case study documents, materials collected on site, and reflective journal narratives.

Yin (1989) recommends maintaining a chain of evidence during data collection. He contends that the researcher should document all actions and decisions taken in the study so that any interested party would be able to retrace the steps of the researcher. By incorporating the chain of evidence in my research plan, it increased the reliability of the study and also addressed constructive validity. The case study portfolio was instrumental in maintaining my chain of evidence.

Documentation

Collecting documents is a vital part of the case study design and should be well thought out prior to the data collection process (Patton, 2002; Yin, 1989). Documents come in a plethora of forms including personal documents, official documents, and photography (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Novice researchers are reminded that documents should not be used as a sole source for their literal meaning, but be aware that the document may contain inaccuracies and biases (Patton). Yin affirms that the “most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (p. 79). When a researcher reads a document that does not uphold another source, this is a clear indication that the researcher must seek more information to verify consistency. A researcher can also make inferences from reading documents that may assist in data collection; however, sometimes inferences may lead the reader astray (Yin).

Documents played a special role in the data collection process. Throughout this study, I collected official documents, such as agendas, training material, reports, statistical profiles, news clippings, proposals and evaluations. I also requested pictures of training sessions or group work that would have allowed me to gain better understanding of their environment; however, I was limited to pictures that I obtained from the university website. I tried to collect personal documents, such as reflective leadership journals, but was unable to obtain these documents for all participants. Campus newspapers also allowed me to read about the issues that students dealt with on the CU and MU campuses.

Interviews

Gay and Airasian (2003) define an interview as an “oral, in person question and answer session with individual respondents used to collect data” (p. 588). Bogdan and Biklen (2003) define it as a “a purposeful conversation...directed by one in order to get information from the other” (p. 95). The number of interviews needed depends on the type of study selected (Creswell,

1998). The variability lies within the researcher, the participant, the topic, as well as the time and place of the interview (Glesne, 1999). Although the questions may be the same, participants' experiences elicit different responses. The nature of the interaction between the researcher and the participant also change with each new interview (Glesne).

Determining the type of interview that will generate the most useful information to address the research questions is crucial (Creswell, 1998). There are various types of interviews: telephone interview (Creswell), focus group interview, and one-on-one interview (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Creswell; Glesne, 1999). The phone interview allows the researcher to obtain information when meeting in person is not feasible. Drawbacks to this type of interview include the possibility of phone expenses and as well as the missed opportunity of informal observation (Creswell, 2003). Focus group interviews with a group of participants are often used in phenomenological studies because multiple opinions and “forms of reality” can be expressed during one session. The interaction between the participants allows for a much deeper level of understanding for the perceptions of the participants (Vaughm, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996). One-on-one interviews work best when the participant is not reluctant to share opinions and experiences. A reserved or quiet participant may not provide the rich descriptive data desired for qualitative analysis (Creswell, 2003).

It is also important to note that interviews vary in different ways. Researchers can choose between a structured or unstructured interview. In the structured interview, the researcher is prepared with a precise and well thought out list of questions for the participant. In comparison, the unstructured interviews are primarily exploratory as the questions are derived during the interview process (Gay & Airasian, 2003). In this study, I chose to use a semi-structured interview process (Creswell, 1998) that included a list of questions but will develop other

questions if needed. Through this interview process, the researcher guides the interview process, but also has the opportunity to probe deeper into the issues as they arise (Glesne, 1999).

Interview guide. Since all interviews must be conducted in the same manner in order to maintain a consistent data collection process, it is recommended that the researcher use an interview guide (Creswell, 1998; Gay & Airasian, 2003). The interview guide is used as a script to assist the researcher during the actual interview (Creswell; Glesne, 1999). The guide contains the interview questions in the order they are to be asked and enables the reader to write down notes and observations during the interview (Creswell). The guide also helps the researcher organize thoughts. When utilized effectively, the researcher records both descriptive and reflective notes (Glesne, 1999). It is recommended that the researcher be familiar with the interview questions, so the flow of the interview follows more of a conversation than reading the next question on the guide (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Creswell (1998) recommends memorizing the questions so that there is minimal loss of eye contact between the researcher and the participant.

For my study, an interview guide contained prompts of information that all participants needed to hear, such as a description of the study and participant confidentiality information (Appendix D). The main part of the guide was arranged by themes, major topics, and questions in the order that they were asked during the interview. Primarily, the interview questions focused on their experiences with the leadership programs and citizenship development. Specifically, the interview questions asked students to reflect upon their core values in relation to leadership development and their ability to make a difference in the community through civic engagement (Appendix L). Interviews with administrators primarily asked about program structure (Appendix M).

Actual interview. The interviews for this study were scheduled for 60 minutes. Some participants took less time, while others exceeded the time due to their expanded answers. In following the advice of Bogdan and Biklen (2003), I started each interview by building a common ground in order to establish a relationship with the participant. I tried to build upon general references to “break the ice” rather than beginning the interview with the formalities of the consent form (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). This was more of casual conversation for a minute or two at most and will not be asked for the purposes of data collection. We then reviewed the consent form and discuss the purpose of the study, the risks and benefits of participation in the interview, and the level of confidentiality. If the student did not walk in with their signed consent form completed, then the signature was acquired at that time. The interview adhered to a semi-structured format that allowed me to collect comparable data while at the same time still provided the participants the freedom to share their experiences. Probing questions such as, “What do you mean by that?” and “Give me an example of that” allowed me the opportunity to further explore their thoughts or provided clarification when I do not understand the flow of thought.

Tape recording. Tape recording the interview fully captures participants’ responses and allows the researcher to concentrate on the flow of the interview (Glesne, 1999); however, it should not be used as the primary source of chronicling (Creswell, 1998). Taking into consideration Bogdin and Biklen’s (2003) warnings about anticipated malfunctions, I was prepared with back-up supplies. Participants will be asked if they have any objections to being taped and I will explain that the tapes will only be used for data collection and analysis (Glesne, 1999). Prior to each interview, I conducted a voice check with each participant so that they knew how loud they needed to speak. It also allowed me to adjust volume control. I also took field notes on my interview guide that captured my observations and reactions.

The tape recorder had a manual shut-off indicating that it had reached the end of the tape; however, I experienced tape recorder malfunction during one of the interviews when the manual shut-off did not indicate that it had reached the end of the tape. I happen to look down and realized that the recorder was not recording. When I looked down and gasped, the student stopped talking and we took a pause from the interview. I ran the tape back a little to realize that we lost about three minutes of recording. I flipped the tape over and conducted a tape check with the student. She tried to restate her answer; however, it was apparent that she did not include everything that she stated the first time. I memo the things that I remember her saying in her answer the first time and later conducted a member check by emailing what I remembered her saying. She emailed back and verified that my recollection of what she spoke about in those three minutes were correct. This was an important process because she was speaking very passionately and for analysis purposes, I had to make sure that I represented her correctly.

Transcribing. Personally transcribing the interview tapes allows the researcher to become more familiar with the data; however, transcribing the tapes can be a very time consuming and tedious process (Glesne, 1999). In this study, I hired someone to transcribe the tapes verbatim, noting pauses that described reflection in thought. In order to become familiar with the information as well as validate that the transcriptions were accurate, I listened to the tapes while I read through the transcriptions. I continuously listened to all of the tapes and became familiar with emerging themes; however, I did not make any assumptions prior to the data analysis process.

Field Notes

Field notes were used to capture the description of the interviews that were not captured on the audio recordings (Bogdan & Bilken, 2003). This included my observations of the setting

and the participant. During the interview, I wrote quick notes on the interview guide and then later rewrote and expanded on my thoughts in my reflective journal.

Reflective Journal

According to Patton (2002), “reflection and introspection are important parts of field research” (p. 264). In addition to field notes, I also kept a reflective journal. My thoughts, reflections, and description of possible patterns emerging from the data were included. I scheduled the interviews to allow time for me to write notes about the strengths and weakness of the interview so that I could make improvements for the next interview. I also wrote of participant characteristics and moments in the interview that would be helpful when analyzing the data (Bogdan & Bilken, 2003). Furthermore, I also included my personal feelings into my reflective journal. Sometimes writing out my frustrations with data analysis allowed me to work through blockades and find analytical resolution in a manner not expected.

Triangulation

Collecting data through various sources and method, such as document review, observation, interviews and field notes, provided me a better understanding of the issues I explored. Triangulation of sources also contended with validity threats and afforded my conclusions with more credibility (Creswell, 1998; Maxwell, 2005; Patton, 2002). For example, I was able to compare the perspectives of the students to the data I gathered during administration interviews and document review.

Researcher Subjectivity

In order to insure the integrity of the qualitative process, researchers are expected to put aside all personal prejudgments (Creswell, 1998); however, a person’s subjectivity makes them who they are as an individual and is not something that can be easily removed (Glesne, 1999; Peshkin, 1988). It is recommended that the researcher undergo a reflective process to address

personal biases prior to the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Peshkin) and engage in a self monitoring process throughout the entire research process (Glesne). This type of monitoring insures trustworthiness and credibility in the research findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Peskin (1988) encourages all researchers to conduct a reflective “subjectivity audit” in order to identify their own subjectivity through a manner he calls *subjective I’s*. When researchers do not acknowledge their subjectivity, they “insinuate rather than knowingly clarify their personal stakes” (Peshkin, p. 17). He goes on to say that if researchers confess their subjectivity after the fact, it may make them feel better as researchers, but it is not certain how their subjectivities shaped their research outcomes. By drawing attention to a researcher’s subjective-I’s at the beginning of the study, the reader is aware that this is one of the “lenses” through which the researcher interpreted data derived during the study (Peskin; Thomas, 2002). In order to enhance the credibility of my qualitative findings, I will discuss subjectivity in this study by identifying my own subjective I’s.

My Subjective I’s

The results of my “subjectivity audit” include my experiences as a past student leader, a leadership practitioner and a researcher. During this reflective process, I also considered how my subjectivity could equally enable and disable my research process (Peshkin, 1988; Thomas, 2002).

Past student leader-I. In college, I was the overcommitted student leader who juggled academics, work, and organization responsibilities. As president of the programming board and student orientation coordinator, I served my organizations and my university with a passion. The majority of my close friends were presidents of their organizations, so I also supported other organizational activities as well. Due to my experiences, I am empathetic to dedicated student leaders who strive to make a difference through organizational activities. This was an enabler

because it allowed me to understand the student leaders' perspectives through the lens of my personal experiences. It could have been problematic if I judged student leaders who did not describe the same degree of dedication to their student organization; however, since I conducted self-checks on myself throughout the interviews, I did not feel that my experiences as a past student leader influenced the analysis of my research.

Leadership practitioner-I. As a student affairs practitioner, I have been in my profession for over ten years and consider myself knowledgeable in the area of student leadership development. Although I am responsible for conducting various forms of leadership development programs for student leaders, I am cognizant of the fact that I do not know everything there is to know about leadership development. I also bracketed any assumptions or biases favoring forms of leadership programs.

Researcher-I. Based on previous research experience, I have assumed in the past that a large amount of data collected during interviews is more beneficial to my research. I "bracketed" my assumption that more is better. This Subjective-I could have been disabling if I had allowed myself to judge quality of content based on amount of data collected before data analysis had even started.

Storm survivor-I. It should be noted that I am a community member of one of the cities that sustained tremendous damage and devastation from the 2005 Hurricane Season. I did not lose my home due to the breeching levees, nor did I lose friends or family in the rising water. However, I experienced a deep sense of loss that cannot be described to someone who did not endure the storm from the viewpoint as a community member. Due to my experiences, I am empathetic to the students' hardships following the storm as they try to move forward in their lives. This Subjective-I was enabling because I had a shared-experience with the participant if the topic did arise. However, this Subjective-I could have been a disabler if I allowed myself to

engage in the conversation and share my story with the participant. One of the participants in the study indicated that she enrolled in her Metropolitan University following Hurricane Katrina.

Although I wanted to hear her story, I conducted a self-check and kept the conversation on track.

How Topic Intersects with Life

Glesne (1999) encourages researchers to reflect upon how their research topic “intersects” with their life. In order to be a better researcher I reflected upon how my research topic “intersects” with my life. My involvement with leadership development and the involved student leader has been quite lengthy. As an undergraduate student I benefited from the process of leadership development through my involvement in campus organizations. As a graduate student I learned the theories, and now as a student affairs administrator I facilitate and oversee leadership development with involved student leaders. I have a high regard for student leadership and the student development process.

Although the concept of leadership development is taught in scholarly disciplines, I believe the actual facilitation of leadership development takes place outside of the classroom. It is my opinion that academic faculty do not always view the work of Student Affairs administrators very seriously in regards to leadership training. Some faculty do not see the benefit of leadership development through involvement; however, I concur with research of Astin (1984) who deems that the outer class experience complements what is learned in the classroom. Ergo, I bracketed my opinions in order to remain unbiased in this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is an on-going process that begins with the first observation or interaction with the participant and continues through the duration of the study (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Due to the extensive amount of data collected, analysis is lengthy and time consuming (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The large quantity of data may also seem overwhelming to the researcher

until it is organized (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For this reason it is suggested that the qualitative researcher narrow the data and concentrate on significant features (Bogden & Biklen, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman define analysis as consisting of three simultaneous flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. Although Yin (1989) acknowledges Miles and Huberman's (1994) technical analysis, he also recommends relying on theoretical propositions and pattern matching when analyzing data. Prior to analysis, Patton (2002) and Yin both recommend that the researcher compile all raw data collected and compile a comprehensive resource package, called a case record or report. Other forms of data analysis such as cross-case analysis and the use of taxonomies will also be used in this study.

Data Reduction

Data reduction refers to "the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appears in written-up field notes or transcriptions" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 10). This reduction is a process from the beginning when a research question is formulated until the completion of the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A researcher reduces the data by using coding techniques, formulating themes and clusters, as well as writing memos (Creswell, 1998; Glesne, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

I placed all of the interview transcriptions from CU in one binder and the MU transcriptions in another. The transcriptions were separated by dividers with the students' pseudonym. I wanted to complete all coding and initial analysis from one leadership program before I started the second program so that I could become fully engulfed in the leadership program data. Since the interviews for the curricular based City University leadership program took place and I had already started reading transcriptions, it only made sense to continue with all of the CU transcriptions before analyzing the MU data.

Due to the overwhelming amount of information collected in the qualitative research process, the use of coding and assigning codes were essential (Bogdan & Bilken, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Coding refers to the actual analysis of the data; whereas, codes are “tags” or “labels” used for assigning meaning to “chunks” of data collected for easier organization and retrieval (Miles & Huberman, 1994). However, the data retrieved from the interviews, field notes, and document retrieval was overwhelming. When I started coding, it was difficult to determine what was important and how it fit into categories. Guba (1978) referred to this concept as convergence. I started the analysis process by looking for *recurring regularities* in the data. I put things in a somewhat controllable classification system and then coding became easier. When reading the interview transcriptions, I wrote codes on the right side of the margin and wrote remarks and reflections on the left side of the margin. These marginal notes and reflections were then added to my journal and assisted to clarify ideas for final analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). After analyzing for convergence, I implemented what Guba referred to as divergence and looked for patterns of data that did not seem to fit in the already recognized patterns.

All codes from the first CU leadership program were then clustered together for easier analysis and conclusion drawing. Initial coding was done on the paper copies of the transcripts; however, clustering took place in an electronic format. I assigned each participant a color and then changed the color of the ink for each transcript. For instance, Kate was blue, Kristy was orange, etc. The different colors made it easy to track the source when I began arranging quotes into themes (Patton, 2002). After analyzing all of the data from the curricular program, I took a few days to clear my thoughts. Although I was aware of the themes that formed in the first case, I needed to have a fresh perspective when analyzing the data from the second co-curricular case. I proceed to code and categorize the themes as they emerged in the co-curricular case in the same

fashion as the curricular case. After I finished conducting the within-case analysis, I started a cross-case analysis between the two cases. I looked for themes that were similar and grouped accordingly.

Although this was a multi-case study between two very different programs, it was essential not only to compare the program structure, but to also compare the perspectives of the students participating in the leadership program. The cross-case pattern analysis was beneficial because rather than just studying the larger program, I was able to build upon the larger case from the individual student perspective. As Patton (2002) indicates, a researcher can always include the individual perspective into the larger case; however, a researcher cannot break the larger program data and construct individual perspectives.

Data Displays

The second part of data analysis that Miles and Huberman (1994) discuss is the concept of data displays. The most common display of qualitative data is extended text found in the form of field notes. As a characteristic of qualitative research, the data collected is abundant and the use of extended text becomes overwhelming and inefficient (Miles & Huberman, 1994). When using extended text, researchers have a tendency to simplify patterns because of the extensive amounts of data. In order to avoid this occurrence, other forms of data display are recommended which include, but are not limited to matrices, graphs, and charts (Creswell, 1998; Bogden & Biklen, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). These displays are designed to illustrate the key information formulated in the analysis process. I utilized the concept of data display to help organize certain parts of the data and reduced it down to an understandable and easily referenced chart.

Incorporating data displays while using taxonomic analysis greatly helped me understand the structure of the leadership programs. Since taxonomy data display allows the researcher to

see how all of the subcategories, I was able to gain a deeper understanding of how all of the subcategories were related to the whole (Spradley, 1980). I created a taxonomic data display for each of the leadership program based on program structure based on core components and sub-components. I then looked for further ways of analyzing the data and created a taxonomic data display for the Emerging Leaders program structure based on years rather than core components. This allowed me take a closer look at how the leadership components evolved as the student matured over the course of the four year program. There was also much data based on workshops and skill training. For this reason, I recreated additional taxonomic data displays for the Emerging Leaders Program and illustrated the workshops by theory, personal development and skill development. This helped me to understand the different approaches to student leadership development through the training aspect of the program.

The use of cross-case matrices not only enhanced the generalizability of the study, but it also deepened my understanding of the data. I was able to not only see the individuality of each case, but also see the common process that took place across all cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I specifically used partially ordered meta-matrices when analyzing the data regarding citizenship and civic engagement. Meta-matrices divided the data so that the similarities and differences between the cases became clearer. The following partially ordered meta-matrix, as seen in Figure 1. was used when analyzing the student's perspective on political engagement.

Figure 2. Example of partially ordered meta-matrix

Participants	Importance	Emotion	Behavior			Training Prep.
			Current	Post Grad	Create Change	
Participant 1	Participant Opinion	Participant Feeling	Description of Behavior	Prediction of Behavior	Perception	Participant Opinion
Participant 2	Participant Opinion	Participant Feeling	Description of Behavior	Prediction of Behavior	Perception	Participant Opinion

The data included in the partially ordered meta-matrices consisted of short quotes and summarizing phrases. Similar matrices were designed using service engagement and citizenship.

Conclusion Drawing and Verification

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the third part of data analysis is conclusion drawing and verification. As noted earlier, once data collection was initiated, I began forming patterns of emerging themes as they appeared in the data. Although I wrote memos that documented my initial conclusions, I remained open to new themes and new ideas as they occurred. My initial conclusions were then verified as data analysis took place. “Verification can be as brief as a fleeting second thought...during writing...or it may be a thorough and elaborate...with extensive efforts to replicate” the finding (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 10). My final conclusions in this study were not established until the end of the data collection process when they can then be tested for validity and trustworthiness.

Establishing Trustworthiness

Maxwell reminds us that validity is something that must be assessed in the form of a relationship with the components throughout the research design. It is for this reason that approaches to validity have been interwoven throughout the study. Establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research is essential to the validity of the findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Lincoln and Guba (1985) contented that trustworthiness in its simplest form asks, “How can the inquirer persuade his or her audience that the findings of the inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of” (p. 291). In asking this question, Lincoln and Guba present four criteria that establish trustworthiness: credibility, transformability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility

In order to provide evidence that findings are credible, the researcher needs to present the data in a manner that authentically portrays the information provided by the participants (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In this study, member checks were conducted in order to establish credibility. Informal member checks also took place during the interview. When I was unsure of the point the participant was trying to make in the interview, I asked for clarification by asking, “So, what I am hearing” and then asked if my summary clearly represented the intentions of the participant. Member checking, also referred to as respondent validation (Maxwell, 2003) is an important way to rule out misinterpretation that could later alter reliability in the data analysis process. I also conducted post member checks so that participants can affirm that my analysis was accurate (Patton, 2002).

Transferability

The second criterion offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is transferability, which discusses the similarity of the findings to that of the context. For example, qualitative researchers can only express their findings through the thick description of data that consists of time and place. The researcher provides the description, but it is up to the reader to “make the transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be completed as a possibility (Lincoln & Guba). In order to present a better possibility for transferability to take place, I provided thick descriptions from the observations and the interview data (Maxwell, 2003).

Dependability

The third criterion of trustworthiness offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is dependability, which evaluates whether the findings can stand the test of time. Several forms of reliability have been discussed throughout the methodological approach. Patton (2002) and Yin’s suggestion of a case study portfolio helped produce reliable data throughout the data

collection process and maintained dependable and reliable analysis. I actually created two case study portfolios since I had a multi-case study. Each portfolio was an accordion style folder and not only consisted of information on all of my participants, but also held all of my collected documents and field notes from the respected sites.

Lincoln and Guba also indicate that a peer debriefer “keeps the inquirer honest” and provides suggestions as well as new ideas during the process of the study. I had the privilege of not only gaining insight from fellow doctoral students from my doctoral cohort as peer debriefers, but I was also had open dialogue with a professional colleague who received his Ph.D. at another university. I met with two members of my cohort on a regular basis. Since we had taken seminar courses together we were very familiar with each other’s study and the conceptual frameworks. Over dinner we discussed the advancement as well as the difficulties we encountered in all aspects of the process. We read over each others work and provided constructive feedback as well as well as pointed out if biases came out in our writing.

My peer debriefing experience with my professional colleague, Andy, was very different in comparison to that of my fellow doctoral students. We knew each other for years and our involvement in a professional association brought us together for conferences and meetings several times a year. As a colleague in the field of Student Affairs, he was very familiar with the actual implementation of how leadership programs fit in the Social Change Model of Leadership Development as the conceptual framework. Through his experience, he was able to provide feedback from a different perspective.

Confirmability

The fourth and final criterion is confirmability, which evaluates the objectivity of the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). One strategy in testing confirmability is the concept of questioning the researcher subjectivity. As the researcher, I acknowledged my subjectivity

before the process started by reflecting on my Subjective I's. I also conducted subjectivity self checks throughout the process and updated my field notes appropriately. Although I cannot eliminate my subjectivity, the revealing of biases illustrates the "integrity" rather than "indifference" (Maxwell, 2003) in my quest for quality research.

Delimitations

The delimitations used to narrow the exploration (Creswell, 1998) of this qualitative case study will only include two urban institutions. It will be delimited to investigating one leadership program on each campus. One program studied was a curricular leadership program and the other was a co-curricular leadership program. Another delimiting factor is that this study only collected data through observation, document, and interviews. Interviews were delimited to only program coordinators and students participating in the leadership programs. Students participating in the interviews must be a participant in the leadership program, have a junior or senior classification, and must have held or currently hold a leadership position in a student organization recognized by the institution.

Limitations

According to Creswell (1994), limitations recognize possible weaknesses in design of the study. It is important to be open and clear about these weaknesses so that readers know how to interpret your conclusions (Glesne, 1999). There were several limitations that should be identified in this study. The case study method as well as the small sample size decreases the generalizability of the findings. There are many ways to structure a leadership program. The design meets the university and student needs while falling under the auspices of varying university priorities and funding allocations. Time sampling (Patton, 2002) is an important approach because different programs function different ways throughout the year. For instance, in the curricular based Emerging Leaders program, the first and second year classes were

scheduled in the fall semester; however, the third year class scheduled in the spring semester. Since the interviews took place at the end of the fall semester, students had not taken their last curricular class of the program. The students not having completed their final class was a limitation to this study. Another limitation was brought on by the amount of contact the Leadership Council advisor had with the potential candidates prior to the study. Although she was just trying to help, her contact with them may have influenced their participation positively or negatively. If the administrator influenced their decision to participate, they may have felt some obligation to speak highly about the administrator or the program.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results and Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this study concentrated on the differences between how curricular and co-curricular leadership programs approach citizenship development and explored the students' perspectives and experiences as a way of knowing how value clarification and skill development were applied to civic behavior.

The primary research question that guided this study was: How does involvement in a leadership development program prepare students for responsible citizenship? The secondary research questions were:

1. What are the differences in approaches to citizenship development in a curricular leadership program in comparison to a co-curricular leadership program?
2. What components make up the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
3. What is the purpose / mission of each of the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
4. How are the leadership programs assessed?
5. To what degree do student leaders' values contribute to citizenship?
6. To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement?
7. To what degree do students' behaviors contribute to citizenship?

8. To what degree do student leaders feel empowered to create change in their communities?

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides demographic information related to the institutions as well as participant descriptions presented in the form of a descriptive narrative. The second section will provide a comparison of the co-curricular and curricular structure. The third section will provide major themes that emerged through data analysis. The data reported in this study was derived from information obtained from documents collected, interview transcripts, reflective journal, memos, and peer debriefing.

City University Institutional Description

City University (CU) was founded in the early 1900's and is located on a park-like campus in a large southern urban city. With an enrollment of over 20,000 students, this public research intense university offers over 3,000 bachelor, masters, doctoral, specialist, and Juris Doctor degrees annually. According to collected documents, CU focuses on the development of the *whole student* and offers programs and services that enhance individual growth and success through curricular and co-curricular opportunities. With nearly seventy percent of the student body reported as full-time status, CU has a healthy campus life with 17 intercollegiate sports teams and over 150 organizations. Although City University offers many involvement and leadership programs to their students, this study focused on the curricular-based Emerging Leaders Program.

Metropolitan University Institutional Description

Within the past seventy years, Metropolitan University (MU) has grown from an academic extension into a thriving autonomous southern urban research university. MU awards degrees at the baccalaureate, masters, specialist, and doctoral levels. University documents indicate an annual enrollment exceeding 16,000, with 90% of the student body listed as in-state

residents. Although MU primarily serves the needs of commuter students with approximately one percent of the students living on campus, the university has an established student life program designed to meet the needs of commuters and residents. The university has seventeen intercollegiate sports teams and over 130 campus organizations. Although MU offers many co-curricular leadership opportunities for the students, this study primarily looks at the Leadership Council. The Leadership Council is a co-curricular leadership program what was classified as a student organization within the Office of Student Involvement.

Participants

Data were collected from eleven student participants and three administrative participants during the fall of 2007. The participants from MU included five students and two administrators. The participants from CU included six students and one administrator. The student participants in this study were held all of the following criteria: (1) recently participated or currently participating in leadership development training, (2) undergraduate classified at a junior or senior level status, (3) current or past member of a registered student organization on campus. Three of the student participants were male and eight were females. The administrative participants in this study were respectively the coordinators / advisors for each leadership program. Two of the administrative participants were male and one was female. Pseudonyms have been given to all participants in order to ensure anonymity (Bogden & Bilken, 1992; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Glesene, 1999). An annotated narrative will be provided in order to introduce the participants and tables will describe participant characteristics.

City University Participants: Annotated Narratives

Michael is 20 year old junior double majoring in psychology and anthropology. He can be described as philosophical in his critical thinking as he sometimes answered questions in an abstract mannerism. Michael noted that he is most proud of his participation in the Boy Scouts

of America. After earning his Eagle Scout ranking, he now spends his time training eleven year old scouts. He proudly stated that at least five of his scouts in the past two years and told him they “are going for their Eagle”. When describing what motivates him, Michael commented:

I usually don’t look for any sort of rewards. I actually try not to be awarded sometimes because...partially I have gotten so many of them through scouting, but I want to just see everything go well...and that other people who are trying to do the same thing will later have an easier time doing it because it is left a little better than when it was found.

When away from his scouting responsibilities, Michael has many extra-curricular responsibilities on campus. He is the Mentor Chairman for the Honors Student Council, the Chair and Treasurer for the Peer Mentors, and the Vice President for the psychology honors society PSI CHI. Michael is also a member of the Environmental Action Club, the International Student Organization, and part of the University Honors Program.

Kim described herself a goal-oriented, but not a very task oriented person. “If I don’t know where I am going, then I am not going anywhere.” She went on to explain, “But if I know where I am going and I know where I am taking the people I’m leading, then I’m always remembering the big picture, the end goal, and not get frustrated with all of the details.” She also described her faith as being very important to her.

As a 21 years old senior majoring in English as a second language with a minor in Spanish, after graduation she plans to combine her education with her Christian values, and teach overseas in a ministry program. She noted that she likes to be involved and she likes to be active in the community. As a fourth year Emerging Leader, she noted cutting back her extracurricular activities to focus on graduating. She was in the Student Government Association as well as the planning committee for Up ‘Til Dawn; however, now she is only a Resident Hall Advisor and

holds what would be classified as a presidents position in the Campus Outreach Ministry program on campus. Her described her “end-goal” right now as focusing on graduation.

Holly described herself as bubbly and creative, but this researcher observed her to be a straight-talking, no-nonsense, task oriented individual in both personal and academic life. In the middle of the interview, she asked if she could take a five minute break to check on her organization across the hall to determine if they were keeping on track with their assigned responsibilities in her absence. As a junior political science major, the 20 year old noted that she received her internship at the U.S. Attorney’s Office by going up to him at a function, and introducing herself as an Emerging Leader at [name of University] and she is interested in following in his political footsteps.

Holly is from a small town 150 miles north of the university. She initially did not want to apply to CU and had no interest in the Emerging Leaders program; however, her mother encouraged her to look close at the opportunities CU may bring. When asked how she felt about her decision, she said, “It is a blessing most definitely. I feel like if I would have made any other decision that it would have been the wrong decision.” The decision to apply to CU also brought her many co-curricular opportunities. In addition to her internship at the U.S. Attorney’s Office, Holly is the Technology Committee Chair for the Student Government Association, the Fashion Show Committee Chair for the Black Student Association, the Campus Activities Chair for Students Advocating Service and a Freshman Tutor.

Kristy is an energetic 20 year old junior who speaks with great passion and enthusiasm about her involvement in organizations and service to the community. She also noted her closeness to her family. Her family moved around a great deal when she was younger, and she chose CU to stay close to her parents, who at the time lived only an hour away. She regretfully

stated that her parents just moved again six hours away; however, she does not regret her decision to come to CU because it has afforded her so many opportunities.

Kristy is currently the Special Events Chair on the Student Activities Council, as well as the Patient Relations Chair in the Up 'Til Dawn program. She joined SAC last year because her friends were involved in the organization; however, she realized that she love the marketing and promotions side of event planning that she changed her major to marketing.

Natalie is an outgoing and extremely articulate 20 year old who forms her answers in a well thought out manner. She grew up in a small town located in the Southern Bible Belt. As an only child, her parents placed a great deal of responsibility on her shoulders. She noted that she would not be the person she is today if it had not been for her environment at home. She shared, “my parents were...very supportive and encouraged me to be my own woman and take my own route and do my own thing.” As a junior music business major, Natalie wants to be an entertainment attorney. “My goal in life is just to be a successful business woman, but to also have a family.” She continued, “...and I know that it will be hard to combine those two worlds.” She spoke of the glass ceiling that women in leadership sometimes encounter, but stated her training from the leadership program has empowered her to “bust through and shatter” the glass so that she can reach her goals.

Natalie’s extra curricular and curricular life keeps her quite busy. Academically, Natalie is in the choir as a requirement for her music scholarship as well as in the Emerging Leaders Program. From the co-curricular side, Natalie is on the executive board for Frosh Camp, and a recruiting ambassador for the university in a program called Tiger Elite. She is also a member of a sorority, the university record label called Blues Tom Records, the Music and Entertainment Industry Student Association, and helps with a program called Up Till Dawn that raises money for the St. Jude Foundation. When reflecting about her involvement, she noted, “I do have my

favorite organizations, my more involved organizations, but all of them are so important and have good aspects of giving back to the community.”

Kate is a 20 year old, junior majoring in health and human performance with a concentration in exercise and sports science. She said her aspiration is to be an athletic trainer. Similar to Natalie and Holly, Kate is from a small town. She described, “we had like one major street.” Wearing her University Color Guard jacket to the interview, she proudly shared, “I was in Color Guard all through high school – Color Guard Captain my senior year.” Kate made the City University Color Guard as well; however, she described how her mother lost her job and Kate had to get a job so they would not have to relocate. In addition to her curricular and co-curricular activities, Kate also works in the University Dean’s office during the day and FedEx at night.

She admitted, “I do take initiative. If something is not being done, I’m the type of person to be like, ‘oh well, I’ll do it.’ Sometimes that gets me in trouble...I do too many things. But I have always been like that.” Not only is Kate an Emerging Leader, but she has also taken on a full load of extra-curricular activities. In addition to being an Emerging Leader, Kate is the Corresponding Secretary and Philanthropy Chair for the Black Scholars Unlimited, as well as holds membership positions in the Resident Hall Association, the Black Student Association, and a female empowerment organization called P.A.U.S.E.

Charles has been the Associate Dean at City University for approximately four years. Among many of his responsibilities in Student Affairs, Charles primarily oversees the Emerging Leaders Program. He is involved in several Student Affairs professional associations and has served in many leadership positions within those organizations.

Metropolitan University Participants: Annotated Narratives

Laura is a 21 year old, senior, English major and is one of the two Co-Chairs for the MU Leadership Council. She noted that she is from a small town in a southern portion of the state. “I only graduated [high school] with 34 people, so coming to [name of university] was a huge culture shock with lots of people everywhere.” She noted that she was very involved in high school and she new she also wanted to be active in college. She shared that her involvement in student life has been an important part of her college career.

Her freshman year, Laura was in many different activities including Undergraduate Student Government Association, Spring Fest Committee, and Entertainment Committee. She noted, “I was busy all the time and pretty much just ran myself crazy trying to be involved in everything.” As a senior she wanted to relax a little more and limited her activities to her Resident Hall Assistant responsibilities and her position on the Leadership Council.

Barry is senior majoring in music technology / recording engineering. He would like to take his musical talents and be a business owner in the near future. When asked to provide a little background about himself, he commented, “my age? It’s cool. I can tell you. I’ve been here for a minute. My age is 25.” He grew up in the heart of the urban city, but now stays in a neighboring city. He described himself as a doer. “I just do stuff that needs to be done. I help maintain my grandmother’s yard and the churches’ yard because I know that it is something that must be taken care of.” However, Barry admitted before he changed his life around, he was doing things for the wrong reasons. Heavily involved in gang activity, he realized he had to escape the destructive lifestyle before it was too late. He became involved with his church as well as with various activities on campus. Barry noted his involvement with the Spring Fest committee as the Music Chair as well as the Leadership Foundation program. He was a member of the Leadership Council last year and held the position of On-Going Services Chair.

Keith can be described as a reserved, concise, to the point 22 year old graduating senior. Although a political science major, he actually has intentions of going into medical school out of college and then running for a political office later in life. Similar to Laura, Keith downgraded his level of involvement on campus because it became too hectic. He was a member of the Undergraduate Student Government Association, a member of Circle K International as well as a past Into the Streets Chair for the Leadership Council; however, currently he is serving his fourth year as a Resident Hall Assistant and has kept his involvement in the Greek system as a member of Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Incorporated.

Shawna is a 22 year old, senior education major. After graduation, she would like to train to be a nurse manager. From the confidence in her voice, she will reach her goal because she stated she does not let anything stand in her way. She described her speech when she ran for sorority president. "I told them I can move the world...I can make the earth move and that's what really got them confident in me because I am confident. Like, I can do anything."

As a transfer student, Shawna applied to be an Orientation Leader because she felt the need to get involved and meet people. That first step led to an easy path to involvement as she not only continued her Orientation experience for three more years, but she also became involved in Leadership Foundations, the Leadership Council, and Delta Sigma Theta sorority. Her Executive Board position on the Leadership Council ended last year. She stated that she misses her position on the Leadership Council; however, it was for the best because she must dedicate a great deal of time to being president of her sorority. In regards to her involvement, she commented, "I just like to be involved. I like to be busy, which is why I basically have been on everything. You can look at my resume..."

Rebecca is a 21 year old senior graduating in May. As a psychology major, she started her interview in a very guarded manner, providing limited access to her private thoughts;

however, she soon loosened up and was more casual with her thoughts. Throughout her undergraduate career, she was very involved with University Programming, Undergraduate Student Government Association and an emerging leaders program; however, she reflected her desire to combine her programming background with her interest in leadership and service. She is currently one of the two C-Chairs on the Executive Board of the Leadership Council.

Anthony is one of two Student Affairs administrators at Metropolitan University who serves as advisor to the Leadership Council. As a Coordinator in the Office of Student Involvement, he oversees not only oversees the leadership initiatives of the Leadership Council, but he also facilitates many other co-curricular leadership opportunities designed to meet the needs of a diverse student body. Prior to his work in Student Affairs, he worked in admissions, as well as in the non-profit sector coordinating service programs for high school students. Anthony is a graduate of Metropolitan University.

Wendy is the second Student Affairs administrator who advises the Leadership Council. Within her role at the Metropolitan University, she not only assists with the service initiatives of the Leadership Council, but she also oversees the fraternities and sororities on campus. She has worked at MU for the past three years.

Table 1
Student Participants

Name	University	Age	Classification	Major
Michael	City Univ.	20	Junior	Psychology & Anthropology
Kim	City Univ.	21	Senior	English as a Second Language
Holly	City Univ.	20	Junior	Political Science
Kristy	City Univ.	20	Junior	Marketing
Natalie	City Univ.	20	Junior	Music Business
Kate	City Univ.	20	Junior	Health & Human Performance

Table 1
(Continued)

Laura	Metropolitan Univ.	21	Senior	English
Barry	Metropolitan Univ.	25	Senior	Music Technology & Recording
Keith	Metropolitan Univ.	22	Senior	Political Science
Shawna	Metropolitan Univ.	22	Senior	Education
Rebecca	Metropolitan Univ.	21	Senior	Psychology

Table 2
Administrator Participants

Name	University	Professional Level
Charles	City Univ.	Associate Dean
Anthony	Metropolitan Univ.	Coordinator
Wendy	Metropolitan Univ.	Coordinator

City University Curricular Leadership Program

The Emerging Leaders Program at City University (CU) is a four year curricular-based leadership program and is consistent with McIntire's (1989) description of an academic-focused model that is a combination of academic and co-curricular opportunities. Associate Dean of Student Affairs, Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) primarily oversees the program with the assistance of a Leadership Coordinator and a graduate assistant. He noted, "The term Emerging Leaders is fairly generic in regards to leadership programs that are primarily targeted toward freshman and university engagement. He went on to explain, "However, the Emerging Leaders Program at [name of university] is a fairly unique program and I have not found many programs

like it across the country.” According to documents retrieved, the program focuses on developing personal leadership skills (Kouzes & Posner, 1987), ethical and moral development (Kohlberg, 1981; Perry, 1968), and instilling social awareness and responsibility in the community (Astin & Astin, 2002; Ehrlich, 2000; HERI, 1996). The promotional material was also very specific in providing the message that participation in the program would prepare students for leadership and career success after graduation. As a four year renewable scholarship program, the students enroll in academic coursework, participate in workshops, speaker programs, and community engagement. Students are also required to live on Leadership Learning floors in the residence hall and purchase a meal plan their first year in the program.

Established over thirty years ago, the Emerging Leaders program has gone through many modifications and has reached a level of prestige, receiving national recognition as a program that fosters student character development. Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) commented, “...this program has become sort of a beacon piece for the [university] president. She has really latched onto it and feels it is a strong recruitment and retention tool.” University support not only came in the form of recognition, but also recently came in the form of professional support of an additional staff person assisting with the leadership program (CAS, 2003). Charles noted, “...that is pretty significant to me in Student Affairs, because we are not necessarily on a priority list for staff members.” He also noted that he is satisfied with the monetary support for the program, but noted that he was researching additional private fundraising initiatives for the leadership program.

Student Affairs administration works closely with high school counselors in recruiting qualified candidates for the program. Eligible students submit a letter of recommendation as well as complete the three-page application that discusses their background in leadership and involvement in high school. Applicants must also have a 3.0 high school GPA or a minimum

ACT of 21/980 SAT in order to apply. Applications are due in the middle of January, and interviews take place in February. Charles indicated they try to have their entire process completed by March for the following reasons: "...we try to get pretty bright students and we know that we are competing with other institutions with regards to funds and scholarship offers." Approximately 30 students are selected each Fall for the Emerging Leaders program and receive a scholarship that covers base tuition all four years, pending they meet expected criteria: 2.75 GPA, maintain enrollment of full-time status in the fall and spring semesters, and meet the requirements of the leadership program as outlined each Fall semester. Depending on the severity, students who do not fulfill the requirements will either receive probation, suspension, or dismissal from the program.

Program Components

There are five components to the Emerging Leaders program which include: workshop attendance, speaker series attendance, organization involvement, service in the community, and the academic class component. Within the class setting, learning outcomes are addressed, leadership discussions and interactive exercises take place, and reflection portfolios are submitted. The curricular aspect adds the element of reflection and critical thinking to the class environment.

Class Component

In order to satisfy the curricular aspect of the program, students are required to attend classes three of their four years as an Emerging Leader. Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) noted some concerns he had regarding the curricular component when he accepted the position at CU. He explained, "We made some modifications with the learning outcomes that were within the course, and the texts that were used, as well as just making sure that students were getting

broad skill-based training through discussion and interactive exercises.” Charles also noted his personal reflection in regards to the class component:

The course work really allows me and some of the other staff members to have conversations with students in a structured, focused atmosphere that you probably just do not have in other leadership programs. We can also place expectations for leadership education that you may not be able to get with another leadership program.

The first year class serves not only as an introduction to the university, but also fosters a reflective component that encourages students to evaluate their abilities as leaders and their personal beliefs and values. The second year focuses on relationship building, communication skills, ethical practices and team development. Students are challenged to think ethically and critically, integrate leadership theory into practical experiences, and explore different belief systems. In class, they used the book *Leadership: A Communication Perspective* (Hackman & Johnson, 2004) as well *Leadership Theory and Practice* (Northhouse, 2007). The syllabus for this class indicated that one of the most important aspects of the course was student ability to apply theory and techniques learned to day-to-day experience. In order to accomplish this task, students were asked to respond to weekly discussion questions posted for them. They also had to submit research abstracts that corresponded with their in-class group presentations. By the third year, students are confronted with community building, initiating change through leadership, project effectiveness, and critical thinking. Students learn how to cope with complexity and conflicting perspectives, learn how to build relationships from people with different backgrounds, and address the relationship between power and leadership. The class syllabus identified discussion and exercises based on the Social Change Model and the citizen leader. Their class text included *Soul of the Citizen: Living with Conviction in a Cynical Time* (Loeb, 1999) and students were required to complete critical reflections, papers, and class projects.

Students from the Emerging Leaders program spoke of how they benefitted from the weekly class structure and described their favorite leadership theories and how they were able to turn the theories into practical applications for personal development or skill building techniques. Although there were many topics discussed in the classroom setting, students spoke of topics such as: gender leadership styles, community empowerment, leadership and the misuse of power, ethics and moral decision making, communicating effectively, and the importance of good leaders and good followers in a team setting.

Holly commented that coming from a small town, “the Emerging Leaders program exposed me the fact that there are different people out there who are attracted to different leadership styles.” Other students described the discussion and reflective activities that challenged their current thinking and helped them to reach higher levels of critical thinking. Kristy commented, “All us really like talking about leadership because if you don’t discuss it, then you are not learning.”

Workshop & Speaker Series

Emerging Leaders are required to attend two leadership skill workshops per semester for the duration of the four year program. These workshops are facilitated by the Student Affairs administrators, graduate assistants, and past Emerging Leaders who have already completed the program. The workshops are designed to offer skill based leadership training (Komives et al., 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 1987) at different stages of student leadership development. Workshops are identified as beginning and advanced levels. On average, fifteen workshops are presented throughout the semester at various times and on differing days in order to meet the needs of busy student schedules.

Students are also required to attend two leadership speakers per semester. Program administrators provide students with a schedule of on campus and off campus speaker schedules

and, similar to the workshops, students select a topic according to their interest. Charles explained the topics usually follow the themes of “leadership, change, social awareness, issues addressing conflict and diversity...the sort of subjects that fit under the umbrella of leadership.” If the suggested topics do not fit the students’ schedule or interest, they are allowed to research and submit a speaker for approval by program administration.

Figure 3. Taxonomy Data Display
Curricular Leadership Program Workshop Topics

Emerging Leaders Workshops	Leadership Theory	The Leadership Challenge
		Ethics in Leadership
	Personal Development	Life After College: Personal Goal Setting
		Developing a Personal Leadership Philosophy
		Personal Development
		Etiquette
		How to Implement the Leadership Challenge
	Skill Development	Retreat Planning
		Group Facilitation
		Conflict Mediation
		Working with Your Advisor
		Setting Organization Goals
		Fostering Creativity

Organization Involvement

Co-Curricular campus involvement is a very important aspect of this program that compliments the in-class learning experience (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Astin, 1984; Kuh, 1995). The co-curricular campus organizations allow students to put into practice the knowledge and skills they learn from coursework. Organization involvement requirements increase with each year in the program. During the first and second year, Emerging Leaders are required to become an active member in at least two student organizations. Student organizations are defined as a group officially registered with the university, hold regular meetings, and has at least one program each semester. By the third year of the program, Emerging Leaders are expected to

hold leadership positions in two organizations, and by the fourth year, they are to hold an executive position in one organization and a leadership position in another. Charles (Administrator, Curricular, CU) noted that sometimes executive leadership positions for students come before their senior year. When this happens, it is reviewed and taken into account by administration on a case-by-case basis.

Individual Service & Class Service Projects

The service component is a vital aspect of the Emerging Leaders program that aids students in community building and social responsibility. Students are required to complete both individual service learning hours as well as service projects that are to be completed as a group project. Both individual service and class projects must be submitted and approved by program administration. As the administrator of the Emerging Leaders program, Charles noted, “We approve service initiatives that help students get a greater appreciation of community issues and how individual citizens can be instruments of change to help resolve those issues.”

The Emerging Leader must complete a total of ten hours of individual service each semester through the duration of the four years; however, the first year, three of the ten hours must be done as a class. In addition to the individual service hours, students in their third and fourth year of the program must complete service projects as a class. In the third year, the initiative must be a University related service project, and the service project in the fourth year must be a project that helps the community. The service component of this program is discussed in length in later sections of this document.

Reflection Portfolio

Students are required to submit reflection papers at the end of each semester based on intended program outcomes. The collection of reflection papers make a portfolio the students receive at the end of the Emerging Leaders program. This portfolio provides an overview of

their personal development, leadership development, university involvement, and community initiatives through reflective essays. Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) noted that the Emerging Leaders program used learning outcomes to guide the program in student learning and student portfolios and reflection papers were used as assessment to gauge both cognitive and affective learning. Charles also noted that a Leadership and Community Qualitative Survey was conducted to explore if the intended program outcomes of community building in the program, but had done little evaluation in aspects of the program (CAS, 2006).

**Figure 4. Taxonomy Data Display
Curricular Leadership Program by Components (CU)**

Emerging Leaders Program	Class	ADAC 1100 - Exploring Leadership	
		COMM 3342 – Leadership & Communication	
		COMM 3341 – Leadership Theory	
	Organization Involvement	Become active member in two organizations	
		Obtain leadership position in two organizations	
		Obtain executive leadership position in one	
		organization and maintain leadership position in another	
	Workshops	Attend two workshops per semester	Skill Building
			Advanced
	Projects	Class Project each year	Service Project on Campus
			Service Project in Community
	Speaker Series	Attend two speakers per semester	
	Service	10 hours of service per semester	
	Reflection Portfolio	Due at then end of each semester	

Metropolitan University Co-Curricular Leadership Program

The Leadership Council at Metropolitan University (MU) is a co-curricular leadership program and is classified as a student organization within the Office of Student Involvement. This leadership program structure is consistent with McIntire's (1989) description as one of the most traditional co-curricular student affairs models that focuses on the development of student leaders within the campus activities and student organization setting.

According to documents collected, the Leadership Council promotes leadership development and involvement to the MU community by hosting leadership activities and service related opportunities for the entire student body. Students are encouraged to become involved in the various levels of organization membership if they are interested in further enhancing their personal leadership development and exploring the value of service. Although the Leadership Council is structured as a student organization, it does not have strict autonomy as some student initiated groups. Two professional staff members within the Office of Student Involvement are university designated advisors for this leadership program and not only facilitate student development, but also guide the Leadership Council in the intended direction set forth by university standards.

According to Program Coordinators, Anthony (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU) and Wendy (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU), the Leadership Council in the current form of a student organization is a relatively new structure within the past five years. Anthony stated many of the programs the Leadership Council coordinates have been long standing traditions under the direction of the Division of Student Affairs. He explained, “A couple of students really wanted to establish something on campus to where students could combine their leadership and service passions into a group, and so they came up with the [actual name of the Leadership Council].” He commented on the hesitation from MU administration because as noted, some of the traditional leadership programs had been in existence for over twenty years. However, upper administration has been satisfied with the progress of the Leadership Council and has supported the program with adequate monetary and professional advisor staffing. Many student organizations do not have personal office space at MU; however, the Leadership Council is housed in the Office of Student Involvement and therefore has received adequate office space, supplies, and technological resources needed to be successful in their leadership endeavors

(CAS, 1997). In regards to program evaluation, administrators noted evaluations were conducted following all leadership and service activities, but there had been no formal assessment of the leadership program itself. All members on the Executive Board participated in mid year performance evaluations and exit interviews; however, no assessment of student development took place.

Program Structure

Membership Structure

The activities provided by the Leadership Council are planned for the entire MU student body; however, there are many tiers of non-positional student leadership (Dugan, 2006b) opportunities available for students who want to further develop their individual and leadership development. Membership levels include: Chief Executive Board, Executive Board Committee Chair, and Associate.

Students interested in an Executive Board on the Council must go through an essay application and interview process. Applicants must be full-time student and must have a 2.5 GPA prior to the time of the application. Letters of recommendation are also required from two individuals who can address the applicant's leadership potential, commitment, work ethic, and integrity. Qualified students are interviewed before a panel of university administration and past Leadership Council Executive Board members. Once accepted, students serve a one year term on the Leadership Council.

There are fifteen positions on the Executive Council. Two of those positions are held for the Chief Executive Board Members. The Chief Executive Board Members are individuals who served on the Board the previous year and are in place to provide guidance and direction to the incoming Executive Board. One could compare their positions to what most organizations would call Co-Presidents; however, they are referred to as Co-Chairs of the Leadership Council.

Once students serve their one-year term as on the Executive Board, they are not allowed to re-apply unless they are interested in one of the Executive Co-Chair positions. They may however, return as committee members. The Executive Board Committee Chairs are assigned committees and responsible for the planning and implementation of activities.

All Executive Board members must: sign a contract to uphold their responsibilities, attend the regional leadership institute and Council training retreat, attend all regularly scheduled general and committee meetings, provide updates of forthcoming committee events, meet with Advisors and Co-Chairs on a bi-weekly basis, undergo peer evaluation at the end of the fall semester by fellow Executive Board Members, and attend an exit interview with Advisors upon concluding leadership position. Students who wish to be involved in the Leadership Council, but do not have the proper amount of time to dedicate or do not feel ready to apply for an Executive Board position, may become an Associate Member and serve on a committee of their choice.

Committee Structure

The Leadership Council consists of the following six committees: Leadership Retreats, Into the Streets, Ongoing Services, Monthly Volunteer Services, Social Change, and Marketing. Members of the Executive Board facilitate the planning and implementation of the activities, and advisors provide direction and facilitate overall student development in the process.

Leadership retreats. Two Executive Board Committee Chairs oversee the Leadership Retreat committee. They plan and implement two of the traditional MU leadership programs which include the Fall Leadership Conference and the Winter Leadership Retreat. The Fall Leadership Retreat is a one-day conference held on the MU campus designed to provide an overview of personal leadership and skill development. Students arrive in the morning, listen to a key-note speaker, and then attend three different seminars from a list of varying topics.

Students select which sessions are most applicable to their individual need and interest. After the sessions, students receive lunch and a free t-shirt.

The Winter Leadership Retreat is a three-day weekend experience. On average, seventy students register and board buses to a camp-like retreat center a mile outside of the city.

Although the Committee Chairs plan the retreat, a qualified leadership speaker is hired to facilitate the leadership workshop sessions and group activities. The entire Leadership Council Executive Board also assists in the implementation of the weekend by serving as small group leaders facilitating leadership discussions. There are many team building activities and leadership discussions throughout the weekend.

Into the Streets. This committee oversees the largest volunteer opportunity at Metropolitan University. Into the Streets is the bi-annual service day that has been taking place for over thirty years and is a well established tradition in the MU community. Three Executive Board Committee Chairs oversee this committee and their responsibilities are divided into volunteer site coordination, fundraising and student volunteers and site leaders. Volunteers meet on campus at 8am to sign up at various volunteer projects around the city. After a morning of service in the community, all volunteers report back to the campus for festivities that include free food, music, and a free t-shirt.

Ongoing volunteer services. Two Executive Board Committee Chairs oversee the ongoing volunteer services opportunities for MU students. This committee offers students the chance to participate in weekly service activities. The projects are available at different locations on various days and times to fit students' schedules. Various projects have included volunteering at the Salvation Army Soup Kitchen, working with the mentally and/or physically challenged, tutoring at local elementary schools, youth projects, and Habitat for Humanity,

Monthly volunteer services. This committee is responsible for coordinating one-day service projects every month for larger groups of students at MU. Two Executive Board Chairs oversee the Monthly Service Committee. Examples of past activities implemented by this committee include volunteering at the zoo, mentoring, and outreach programs with local elementary schools.

Social change. The Social Change Committee is the newest committee under the Leadership Council. Two Executive Board Committee members oversee activities designed to provide opportunities for awareness and action for the MU students to learn more about current issues and to act on creating change in the community. This year, this committee sponsored a university-wide canned food drive competition with a rival university, a hunger banquet open to all students with the intent to promote awareness of different socio-economic classes, as well as a campus wide recycling program that provided awareness in conservation and sustainability.

Marketing. Four Executive Board Committee members are responsible for the publicity and marketing to the Leadership Council. One member is responsible for website maintenance and serving as the secretary at all Council meetings. The other three Committee Chairs are responsible for the coordinating all marketing of leadership and service programs as well as enhancing the overall awareness of the Council. The committee works with all of the other committees to ensure a well-organized marketing plan. While conducting the interviews on the Metropolitan University campus, this researcher noticed numerous signs posted in academic buildings and banners that hung in the University Center advertising the Winter Leadership Retreat.

Training

All new Executive Board Members are required to attend a week-long regional leadership institute funded by the university. The leadership institute is designed to help with personal

leadership skill development, value clarification, and behavior patterns. Anthony (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU) noted that by attending the summer leadership institute, students learn how to take passions and develop them into visions, how to create change in the community, how to learn more about themselves as individuals and lead with integrity. Students participating in this study spoke of the leadership institute with great passion, stating it was a great experience. Laura commented, “Out of everything I have done, it taught me the most about who I am and the way I can use my skills and leadership talents.” Students also spoke of diversity exercises, leadership personality profiles, conflict management, goal setting, and group dynamics. Team building activities and simulations were also part of the week-long training. Barry commented on his participation in a trust fall activity. He shared, “It was only six feet off the ground, but I really had to challenge myself and allow myself to fall. I didn’t know if they would catch me or not – but they did.” He commented that it would have been more beneficial if the other students on the Leadership Council were in his trust fall group so they could experience it as a group, but he noted it was great personal development. Unfortunately, students are only allowed to attend the regional leadership institute once. This means that the Committee Chairs attend training as a group; however, since the Co-Chairs attended the institute the previous year, they do not have the same bonding experience with executive board.

After attending the summer regional leadership institute, all members of the Executive Board attend a retreat facilitated by the Co-Chairs of the Council and the advisors. At this time they discuss their personal experiences at the leadership institute and reflect upon how those experiences can be applied to their leadership role on the Council. They brainstorm committee projects and develop their group vision for the upcoming year. Co-Chairs Laura and Rebecca noted the importance of this retreat not only as the opportunity to develop shared groups goals, but also to build cohesion within the group dynamic. Some students on the executive board

commented that they wished that the Leadership Council retreat included more training on how to be successful in their individual positions once they return to campus.

Figure 5. Taxonomy Display: Co-Curricular Leadership Program by Components (MU)

Leadership Council	Membership	Executive Board	2 Executive Co-Chairs		Oversees Council
			15 Executive Member		Chairs Committees
		Associate Members	Serve on the Committees		
		General Members	Campus Student Body		
	Committees	Retreats	Fall Leadership Conference		
			Winter Leadership Retreat		
		Social Change	Sustainability Awareness		Recycling
					Energy Conservation
			Hunger Awareness		Hunger Banquet
					Food Drive
		Into the Streets	Fall Program - 30 volunteer sites around city		
			Spring Program - 30 volunteer sites around city		
		On-Going Services	Salvation Army Soup Kitchen		
			Habitat for Humanity		
			Tutoring		
		Monthly Volunteer	City Zoo		
			Mentor Programs		
		Services Marketing	Outreach with elementary schools		
			Website Maintenance		
			Coordinating marketing of all events		
			Marketing plan for organization		
	Training	Formal	Regional Leadership Institute		
			Retreats		
		Informal	Act of Implementing the programs		

Individual

Through descriptive dialogue, the participants shared individual qualities and values that embraced one of the core components of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development

(HERI, 1996). These individual qualities and values embody consciousness of self, commitment, as well as congruence between conviction and behavior.

Consciousness of Self

Past studies reveal that self development is a reflective process (Hass & Tamarkin, 1992; HERI, 1996; Senge et al., 1994), and an individual's understanding of their own value structure is vital to leadership development (HERI, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1987). The descriptive data from this study illustrated that the participants developed steady aspects of their personality that contributed to their consciousness of self. Consciousness of self simply means that a student is aware of who they are as an individual. According to the Higher Education Research Institute (1996) consciousness of self includes awareness of one's talents, interests, aspirations, values, concerns, self concept, limitations, and dreams. Participants in this study spoke of their own talents, interests, values, concerns, and self-concept. Very few participants spoke of personal limitations and the majority combined dreams with aspirations (HERI, 1996). When discussing the individual consciousness of self, participants provided a description dialogue addressing priorities, personal values, and the influences that helped to form those values.

Priorities

All eleven of the student participants expressed family, friends, and school as being important aspects at this point in their lives. Over half of students from both of the leadership programs included their involvement in campus organizations in their listing of priorities. Natalie (Curricular CU) commented, "I would definitely say family, school work, friends, and organizations, although my parents would disagree and say that I put my social life before my academics." Many of the participants included religion as a priority, and in doing so, stated that religious beliefs were the most important influence in their life. An example of this was illustrated in a reflection from Barry (Co-Curricular MU). After turning away from previous

involvement in gang activity, it was apparent that Barry's consciousness of self is now greatly embedded in his religious beliefs. "A lot of my priorities in my life center around making sure I am living a lifestyle that is a testimony to others. So, God is first in my life and my family is second." Two participants from the curricular based leadership program shared different approaches to future ambition and success. Holly (Curricular CU) spoke of future career aspirations of going into politics:

My priorities most definitely are my future. Every decision I make now is going to decide who I am in the future. And the people that I hang out with, the places I choose to go, who people see me around, the jobs I take, that is all going to affect who I am in the future. And I want to be a prosperous person. I want to make a difference. So, most definitely, that my focus now – my future.

Kristy (Curricular CU) also spoke of aspirations, but had a different view on success:

I want to be successful, but it's not about wealth to me, but it is actually about giving something back to people. But I also want to take care of my family. So as much as I can grow and develop into a better leader, a better person, I feel that I am bettering my family by doing that. So, it's really like, that's what I am working for, is to make sure that one day I can take care of everybody who is taking care of me. That's all I want to do.

Personal Values

Although the formation of a value system was reported as a fundamental part of character development (Komives et al., 1998) data from this study supported the notion that students struggle with value clarification (Cunning, 1977; Flanagan, 2003). Although it was apparent through dialogue that the students lived by core beliefs that molded their value structure, a majority of the students from both leadership programs had a difficult time articulating their

values. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) asked for clarification of the interview question, stumbled over her words and took long pauses to collect her thoughts:

Wow, this is hard...I don't know. Integrity, definitely, integrity is one of my values.

(long pause) I guess everything I've...(pause to collect her thoughts). So, you know,

like honesty, integrity. (another long pause). I am having a hard time with this question.

I have values, it is just hard to...articulate them. I value a whole lot. I value community service. Family. I don't really know.

Kim (Curricular CU) stated very quickly that she valued a "Christ-like character and all that it entails, which is a lot." However, when asked to clarify those Christ-like values, she had a difficult time expanding her initial answer. After taking a moment to collect her thoughts, she provided the values of humility and integrity. Referring back to his scouting experience, Michael (Curricular CU) proudly recited the Scout Law. "A Scout is always trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly, courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrift, brave, clean, and reverent." He tired to give further clarification, but more so transitioned into overall value systems rather than his own personal beliefs:

Most people think that it is a cliché, that it is kind of a cop out answer. They have said 'that is something that you have had to memorize since you were ten years old', but I truly do believe that those twelve values embody most value systems as well.

Kristy (Curricular CU) also struggled through her thoughts; however, she leaned over and whispered as if to place a disclaimer on her answer, "I love the word 'values' but I always get confused on what to say." Overall, honesty, respect, and religious values were the most commonly stated values amongst the participants. Other answers included strength, family values, love, giving back, sincerity, wisdom, courage, hard work,

Influence in the Formation of Values

The data revealed that other individuals contributed the most to the establishment of the student participants' value system. Student participants listed peers (Astin, 1984) and high school counselors as influencing individuals (Ehrlich, 2000), but commented more on the influences of family and athletic coaches in the formation of their values (Shadley, 1989). Some participants in this study spoke of parental expectation. Kate (Curricular CU) stated, "My mom...was so determined that I would be a...good person. She set the standards so high, so in turn, I took on her aspect of thinking." Other participants spoke about how family members instilled core values through modeling behavior. Keith (Co-Curricular MU) stated:

My parents influenced my values more than anyone. They have always strived, and they have always taught me the value of hard work and the value of having good relationships with people, whether it be girlfriends, or friendships in general, teachers, you know, any superior you may have. And strive at making goals and strive toward reaching the top. Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) noted many of the women her life served as important influencing individuals. Specifically, Shawna shared her admiration for her great aunt who served as role model of behavior for her and demonstrated her courage of convictions:

She told me to hold education high, which I do. She got me involved, I mean, she did everything. She showed me how you are supposed to go after something. Whenever she had her mind set to something, she went out and did it. She contacted anybody she had to in order to get it done and that's how I am too. And I don't take no. You know, if you tell me no, I'm like who else can I talk to? How else can I get around this?

Both Michael (Curricular CU) and Natalie (Curricular CU) described their high school athletic coaches as mentors and how participation in sports taught them a great deal about ethical and moral value development (Kolberg, 1981; Perry, 1968). Natalie shared, "I had some really great

coaches that really taught me some life-long values that I hold dear.” Research indicates that identification with people of admiration influences students moral development through the reflection of ideal self values (Ehrlich, 2000). Changes in identity take place over time as the student evaluates and alters the ideal values to represent actual self values (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Although many participants expressed family as influencing in the formation of their values, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) expressed the opposite sentiment. She described her family as modeling the values that she did not wish to accept as her own:

My family is kind of different from me. Like I’m kind of like the oddball of the family. They are very, very traditional with traditional values. I have developed liberal values – I am a women studies minor. A lot of my values don’t really have a lot to do with what they believe. A lot of my values, like as far as like putting family first and schoolwork, that does come from my family. But my personal values, and like what I am going to look for in a husband or what I want to do with my life, those kinds of values, I learned when I came to college. So, I guess just from my own life experiences, I’ve built my values and not what I learned from my family.

Although many students had trouble articulating their value system, there is evidence that the participants have an understanding of the aspects that make up their personality and their values. The data revealed that students reached a level of purpose and had developed varying degrees of self-awareness and consciousness of self (Chickering & Reiser, 1993).

Congruence

Many researchers indicated that individuals must have a strong consciousness of self in order to experience congruence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; HERI, 1996; Rogers, 1980) and that leadership includes a congruency between what is believed and the actions individuals

perform (Komives et al., 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002; Northouse, 2004). Through their dialogue, the participants shared varying levels of self awareness through active observation of their own behavior as an individual as well as their role as a leader. This supports Rogers' (1980) belief that individuals can become more aware of their values by taking a moment to examine feelings, thoughts and experiences while conducting the act of behavior.

Congruence as a Leader

Many studies accentuated the congruency in the behavior of leaders and highlighted the importance of helping leaders reach levels of higher values and ethical ambition (Burns, 1978; Komives et al., 1998; Yukl, 1989). In this study, student participants reflected on their personal value system, congruent behavior as a leader, and the ethical decision making process (Kohlberg, 1981; Perry, 1968). Michael (Curricular CU) noted the significance of establishing a core belief system, but referred to values as “just morals” and “words we find value in”. Rather, he placed more emphasis on the ethical decision making process and stressed the importance of congruent behavior as an essential part of leadership:

You have to have those things you hold dear, but you also have to have the ethical decision making because high ideals are great. They are wonderful. But in the end, values are words that we believe in - they are words on a piece of paper that we can talk about. They must be followed through in behavior, through that ethical decision-making process. The ethical decision making for a leader is the most important part because...the All student participants agreed that congruent behavior is vital in upholding the standards of leadership, the obligations to the group and the expectations of others. Holly (Curricular CU) provided an example that holds the individual leader accountable for actions taken:

When you are placed in a leadership role, your values reflect who you are. And as a leader, you don't want to be shown in a negative light. I can sit here and tell you that I am an honest person all day, but my actions speak louder than words.

Kim (Curricular CU) and Laura (Co-Curricular MU) spoke of congruent behavior from the group perspective. Kim commented, "in your group...if you are asking people to live by certain standards, then you, too, need to live by those standards." Laura (Co-Curricular MU) recognized the fact that personal values may not always represent group values or may not be in line with individual values:

Mostly, I try to make a decision that is going to be best for the group whether or not it is something that maybe I would personally value myself. You can't always get something you are morally bounded in. It may not be what's best for the whole group.

Laura reflected on the struggle of making decisions that will affect the group:

A large majority of the student participants reported the significance of leading with integrity (Komives et al., 1998) and attributed their congruent behavior to leadership training. Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) reflected on her leadership training and referred to congruent behavior as a balancing act:

One of the things...leadership training has taught us was integrity and leading with integrity and being sure that everything you do is in line with what you think or at least try to do that. Like, it's really hard to... because, you know, life is just going to come up that you weren't planning on dealing with or you can't make a rational choice on. And so, it is kind of a balancing act. I definitely feel getting training on that and being more aware is vital...but I think as humans, we're all going to be a little incongruent.

Participants confirm that congruent behavior and integrity is an essential part of building leadership character (HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998).

Effects of Incongruent Behavior

All participants reported that they currently try to model behavior congruent with their core values; however, many described encountering past internal struggle which ultimately altered their actions. Speaking at times in the third person, Barry explained how he changed his life around after being involved in gang activity.

I kind of ventured out into doing things that Barry wanted to do, which was living a bad lifestyle at one point at an early age and I saw other...teenagers doing the same thing. And it's been through a transitional stage where a lot of wild stuff happen in my life and being blessed to still live here and tell the story, but yet seeing so many of my friends is not here anymore, not being able to say, 'well, I lived this life'. But I was able to change. He stated that he not only watches over his younger cousins and tries to be a role model so that they will not be enticed into the lures of gang activity, but also encourages older cousins to overcome what he referred to as 'setbacks'. With a confident, but reflective nod of the head, he stated, "Just look at me as a young man that's now trying to do positive things."

Both Kate (Curricular CU) and Kristy (Curricular CU) spoke about how they changed their behavior, not because of the consequences to them, but rather to that of their family. Kate feared how her actions would emotionally hurt her mother and brother as well as others who had an influence in the development of her value structure:

I think of what consequences would it cause for Mom and John or anyone else who thinks highly of me. It effects your decision making when you have to think about the people who help you set those values. And then what would they think about the decision you are about to make?

In her attempts to establish independence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), Kristy (Curricular CU) described herself as a headstrong wild child her freshman year, and stated that she used to make

hasty decisions because she felt she knew what was right. She also positively altered her behavior to not only avoid consequence but to also illustrate a sense of responsibility towards her family those who depend on her:

My freshman year, I did what I wanted and then all of a sudden I got a slap in the face when I realized that doing that, I'm going to—I might lose a lot of stuff that benefits me. Realizing, too, that I might lose things that benefit other people, like my family. Like this scholarship helps them out a lot. It doesn't just help me. Or if I mess up now, there's a lot of people that count on what I do and it is effecting them.

Expected Leadership Standards

Consistent with previous studies (Burns, 1978; Komives et al., 1987; Northhouse, 2004), the post industrial paradigm of leadership development exemplifies value based decision making and encourages student leaders to lead by example. Many students from the curricular based Emerging Leaders program stated they were not only held to established ethical standards in the Emerging Leaders program, but in other organizations as well (Toeffler, 1986). Natalie (Curricular CU) stated, “In my sorority, we have certain standards and if you don't live up to those standards, you get in trouble.” She went on to describe how the Emerging Leader program helped to guide her behavior through expected standards:

Being an Emerging Leader, you're held to a higher standard..., so you do have to live up to certain values. It gets to the point where you transition from 'I have to do this' to 'I want to do this', to 'I want to be a good person', not just because I have Emerging Leader attached to my name, I want to be a good person because that is what I need to be successful.

Kristy (Curricular CU) remarked that it was a scary feeling when she was first accepted into the Emerging Leaders program. She noted:

“...you go to the university and [administration] is like ‘You are a leader. You are an Emerging Leader.’ And everyone is like, ‘I don’t know what that means.’ So, we got to talk about what that means, how we felt and what they expect of Emerging Leaders.”

Holly (Curricular CU) emotionally spoke of a time when she was pulled over for speeding at a time her license was suspended and she was arrested on the spot. “It was a misdemeanor citation, so I didn’t have to go to jail. But I was petrified.” She went on to say that her advisor from the Emerging Leaders program called her a few days later to discuss the incident:

My heart just dropped like, he knows that I got arrested...and now it is reflecting on me. What am I going to do now? When you say you are an Emerging Leader, they don’t expect you to get arrested. They don’t expect you to be the one at the parties supplying all the booze. They expect you to be the one to lead your friends to do the right thing. So, I would most definitely say that it does lead me to portray that positive behavior that administration expects the mature students on campus to do.

Commitment

The students in this study spoke significantly about the time and energy put forth toward their commitments and the ability, or inability, to find balance in the endeavors (Astin, 1994; HERI, 1994). They spoke of their internal drive and what motivates them to take action. Specifically, the participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program displayed an exhausting side of over-commitment and discussed the importance of prioritizing commitments.

Internal Drive

Findings in this study correlate with HERI’s (1996) belief that “true commitment springs from an inner sense of self” and originates from within. Participants spoke of an inner motivation that advanced their individual commitment. Students from both leadership programs used the word “passion” in describing the activities or causes they decide to participate in or not

to participate in depending on their individual degree of commitment. The description of passion is consistent with the research of Kouzes and Posner (1997, 2002) which noted passion as key component to creating change through caring. In this study, students exhibited their inner drive through their dialogue on individual characteristics, the sense of responsibility in giving back to the community or to their organization, and the ambition to achieve self imposed goals.

Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) described her internal drive as a personal characteristic or an interest. Shawna explained:

I've just always been like that. I'm not one who sits back if I have a problem. If I have a problem with something, I want to, instead of complain, fix it. Be part of the change. Be the person who is going to fix it

Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) shared Shawna's (Co-Curricular MU) sentiments by stating:

There's a niche that needs to be filled and someone's got to do the job and I really enjoy doing it. I enjoy planning activities and working with other people and seeing them get excited about something that I was excited about last year. So, it's fun to kind of pass the torch and help get people riled up about their stuff.

Other participants spoke about their passion to give back to the community. Laura noted:

I couldn't feel good about myself if I weren't being proactive and doing something to volunteer to help. I just feel like going through life without being involved in like making the best out of everything would just kind of be a waste of time.

Keith (Co-Curricular MU) shared his feelings of responsibilities since he was afforded educational opportunities. He stated, "It's an honor to go to college. And it's something that you can't take lightly because there are a lot of people who don't get a college education. I feel responsible to share with others.

Whereas, many of the participants from the co-curricular Leadership Council spoke of their inner drive from a personal and giving back side, the student participants from the Curricular Emerging Leaders program spoke of their inner drive in relation to ambition to achieve personal goals (Howe & Strauss, 2000). (Michael, Curricular CU) shared:

In school, I am motivated because I have goals...and I am honestly ambitious. There are certain ambitions...that I want to reach no matter what. And sometimes that means I have to change the way I am getting there abruptly. Sometimes that's not the way I wanted to go with it, but that is the way that it has to be done.

When I came to this university, I was going to graduate in four year and no one was going to stop me. So I was taking eighteen hours a semester. This past semester, I started taking twenty-one hours and I quickly learned that I need to drop that down just a little bit to nineteen. (Natalie, Curricular CU)

Kate (Curricular CU) shared that people of influence always had high expectations of her and in turn, she adapted those beliefs as her own (Howe & Strauss, 2000). This thinking influenced her individual commitment because she "always sets the bar a little higher" for herself in reaching the goals that she would like to achieve. Kate referred to this as an ambitious form of thinking in pushing herself. She stated, "Just always living with that, you're always like, 'Man, I could have done better on that.' It's positive because you're always trying to be better, always trying to do more."

Over-Commitment and Prioritizing

Whereas achieving purposeful goals through individual commitment can be fulfilling, many of the participants spoke of the negative and exhausting side of commitment. Data revealed that the student participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program were extremely stressed out and over-committed in both their academic endeavors and co-curricular

activities. All seven student participants from the Emerging Leaders used the following words to describe their collegiate lives: super involved, over-loaded, pressed for time, over-committed, spread too thin, all over the place, full load, constant pressure. Kate (Curricular CU) jokingly compared herself to “kind of a superwoman”. She went on to explain, “I am sometimes amazed at how much I take on. Like a lot of times, I joke with my friends and like after college, I am just going to pass out”. Kim (Curricular CU) described a time when she realized when she was over involved. “I was super involved with a lot of different things. I was spread too thin. I cannot even remember all the things I did.”

When Emerging Leaders spoke of their commitments, they described full class loads, organizational responsibilities, outside internships and employment positions. Michael (Curricular CU) referred to his commitments as constant pressure. He commented, “There is always work that needs to be done...even if it is in the back of your mind, this is coming up, or I need to start that or planning this out even though there are a lot of other things going on.” Students from both the curricular and the co-curricular leadership programs spoke of both the importance of academics when prioritizing commitments; however, the participants approached their commitments from two varied positions. Since the Emerging Leaders received scholarships for their participation in the program, they viewed program assignments as scholastic requirements and obligations. Natalie (Curricular CU) explained how the scholarship obligations came in the form of class work.

With the scholarships that I have, including the Emerging Leaders, we have to do class requirements. Like my music-based scholarship, I have to do certain choirs and certain voice lessons. So half of my course load every semester is devoted to scholarship requirements and the other half is devoted to getting my degree.

The students on the co-curricular leadership program spoke of the pressure they felt in meeting their academic requirements as well as their co-curricular responsibilities. As a Co-Chair of the Leadership Council, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) explained:

School work has always come first and the only problem I've ever had is like having...time management issues because being [a campus leader] is very demanding of your time. And this year, with being Chair of the Council, sometimes I feel torn between which is my more important priority.

Group

According to the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, the ability to function as a group is essential not only in the development of values, but also in the ability to create change (HERI, 1996). This section discusses the participants' perceptions and interactions regarding the group experiences within their leadership programs. They described the collaborative atmosphere (HERI; Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002) within the group setting and the importance of settling controversy with civility (HERI). It should be noted that the individual skills and values contributed to the success and functions of the group (HERI).

Collaboration

Fostering collaboration is vital to leadership and the success of the group (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002). The Post-Industrial view on leadership as a relational process is evident in the responses of the student participants. Students placed significant value in establishing relationships with their peers (Astin, 1984, Chickering & Reiser, 1993) and discussed how group development fostered trust building (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002) and individual development (Chickering & Reiser, 1993; HERI, 1996). Although both leadership programs achieved varying levels of collaboration among the students, the data revealed very different means in achieving the desired outcome. The data affirmed that

collaboration is not a win or lose competition (Kohn, 1992), but rather the coming together of people with mutual goals (HERI; Kouzes & Posner), who will accept shared responsibility (Chrislip & Larson) and work toward the completion of the end result (HERI; Komives et al., 1998).

Building Relationships & Establishing Cohesion

The student participants expressed unanimity in their belief that leadership is a relational process (Komives et al., 1998); however, evidence illustrated varying levels of cohesion. The participants also described building relationships through different program structures. The participants in the curricular Emerging Leaders program were required to live in the residence hall their freshman year. The participants in the co-curricular leadership program were required to attend regional leadership conferences and planning retreats.

Required Residence Hall Component. As indicated previously in the curricular Emerging Leader program description, all students were required to live in the residence hall their first year in the program. This requirement was a recent development in the program and there was skepticism from viewpoint of both the students and administrators. Michael (Curricular CU), Kristy (Curricular CU), Natalie (Curricular CU), Holly (Curricular CU), and Natalie (Curricular CU) were among the first group of Emerging Leaders to live in the resident hall their freshman year in 2005. Natalie commented that she did not know one person coming into the program her freshman year. She reflected, “Although [the residence halls] were not the most upscale accommodations, I would not have given anything for that time...because a lot of my friends that are involved with Emerging Leaders are now some of my best friends.” She also commented on the value of living in close proximity when working on their assigned group projects.

Holly shared how she not grew as an individual through the process of living in the residence hall, but also learned how to work out differences with her Emerging Leaders classmates:

Living together most definitely taught me to separate business and pleasure. Living together, yes, we are involved with each other personally every day, but when it comes time to do a project and it comes time to submit your work, it not about who left the bathroom light on last night.

Holly (Curricular CU) went on to say that living with the other Emerging Leaders promoted individual development as well as learning how to work through adversity. When describing a time she and her suitemate had a personal disagreement, but had to complete a project together, she commented, “it actually forces you to grow up and understand you may have a personal complication a day ago, but today we are handling business. And we need to separate that.”

Kristy (Curricular CU) also reflected on the building of relationships and the development of the individual. As part of their program, the Emerging Leaders were also required to become involved in campus organizations. Kristy commented on how many of them *cliqued up* and joined the same organizations their freshman year; however, by their junior year they followed their own interests. Kate, Holly, and Kristy all believed that their enhanced cohesion is attributed to their residence hall experience. Kim, who is part of the 2004 incoming Emerging Leaders class, said she noticed the increased level of cohesion in the 2005 class in comparison to her 2004 class.

From the collected data, it is evident that students encountered many challenging situations that aided in the process of individual psychosocial identity development, specifically developing competence, managing emotions, developing interdependence, and developing mature relationships (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Required leadership conferences and retreats. Participants in the co-curricular program described a similar mandatory component in their program; however, data illustrated contention as to the efficacy of the desired outcome when it came to building group cohesion. Once participants were selected for the Leadership Council, they were required to go to both a regional leadership institute as well as a Council retreat. Barry (Co-Curricular MU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) both remarked how the group bonded during the institute and the retreat. Keith commented:

You know, everybody might just spread out during the school year because we had classes and different schedules. But [name of leadership institute], since we were all required to go, we all got to know each other better. So, we got to know each other then because we were all complete strangers. But after that retreat, we all became real close and real good friends.

Keith (Co-Curricular MU) went on to say that the bond at the beginning of the year provided a foundation of support for the rest of the year.

I think the way we were split up in the many different groups, Into the Streets, Ongoing Services, etc. We were cohesive in our individual efforts – I guess in our group efforts and then it came out to the bigger group, the Council as a whole. That relationship kind of helped us stay cohesive.

On the other hand, Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) felt that the group did not have the bond that others described.

There were some problems. I just felt like most of the time, I was doing most of the work. And I mean, some of the committees didn't really get together. We were together, we know about each other. We had a retreat, and...we went to [name of regional leadership conference] so we knew basically how each other acted, but...in my

opinion, it was just like separation. Everybody did their thing. So the only time we really came together was for our meetings and stuff.

Due to the structure of the program, the new Leadership Council members attended the leadership institute together, but the Chairs did not attend since they attended as new members the previous year. Both Laura and Rebecca commented that it made it rather difficult at the beginning because the new Council members came back from the leadership conference as a unified group and then the Chairs had to try to establish a bond with the group. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) both discussed the planned socials, but also reported the socials were rather challenging due to the Council's busy schedules. Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) noted:

We try to have social activities, but with schedules, it's really hard to do. So, a lot of it ends up happening when you have an ice fight at the end of Into the Streets or you all go out and rake leaves together for Down the Alley. So, we try to bond at some of our events, but even then, it gets hard to do with 16 to 60 people sometimes.

Laura confirmed Rebecca's sentiments and stated the majority of the relationship building takes place during the bi-weekly meetings when the Council comes together to report on their committee work.

Shared Responsibility

All of the participants of this study reported the importance of shared responsibility in order to reach goals and objectives set within the leadership program (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; HERI, 1996). Kate (Curricular, CU) explained that individuals were more likely to feel a sense of shared responsibility if they were part of the brainstorming and planning process. She referred to this aspect of collaboration as *hectic*.

I think that collaboration is awesome just because you have so many ideas, but it can also be hectic at the same time. You have so many ideas that you just have to focus. But I think that when you go with fifteen to twenty ideas versus one, I think that it is always going to be better with more people.

She concluded her thoughts by saying that it was beneficial to have more individuals involved in the process because they not only felt a sense of ownership with the overall project, but there was also shared responsibility in the actual implementation of project (HERI).

Although Kate (Curricular CU) described collaborative process of generating ideas and fulfilling obligations, both Kristy (Curricular CU) and Laura (Co-Curricular MU) described a journey filled with strife that eventually led to both individual and group collaboration. Kristy (Curricular CU) explained:

Freshman year, I was like, ‘this is my opinion, and this is how I work, and if you don’t like it. Tough. I’ll get it done. I was very loud and to the point. But now I think, working with people who I view as my equals now, helps me to want their opinion and input more. I feel like when I work in a group, everyone had equal input and I am just not taking over. And I don’t feel like I need to because people are just as capable as I am.

Laura (Co-Curricular MU) also shared the same sentiment from the co-curricular group stance.

You could see us growing as a group and kind of learning [each others’ style] more and more. Because at the beginning, it was more of a *I want to be right attitude*. But we really learned and once we got more familiar with each other, it was easier to do that.

In regards to shared responsibility on the group level, all of the student participants also spoke of the importance of dividing the responsibilities. When referring to one of their largest community programs called Into the Streets, Barry (Co-Curricular MU) stated, “We’ve got to have collaboration or we wouldn’t be able to get anything done.” He explained how the committee

divided the project into three parts. One person was in charge of securing the service sites, the second person oversaw donations, and the third person worked with student volunteers and site leaders. Rebecca's (Co-Curricular MU) discussion of the committee work further described how they approached the Into the Streets community project.

If all of [the responsibilities were] one person, that would not have come off. And if the three of us hadn't been talking to each other, then it wouldn't have been a success either because we would have all been going in three totally different directions and not really unifying.

She further noted the importance of communication with all parties during the collaborative process (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; HERI, 1996).

The student participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program approached their Junior Class Service project in the same manner as the students from the co-curricular Leadership Council. In planning a week of events, they too, separated the tasks into days and everyone was responsible for planning an activity that day. Michael explained,

It gave us the freedom to figure out what we want to do and to be able to use leadership techniques that we have learned in our classes: gathering information, getting people to decide as a team, and getting people...to accomplish tasks.

Common Purpose

Participants spoke of common purpose in the terms of shared vision (HERI, 1996), but approached the concept from varied viewpoints due to the structure of the leadership program. The students in the co-curricular leadership program described a sense of ownership in what they were trying to achieve as a group; whereas, the student participants from the curricular program described a shared vision in the form of an academic requirement.

Shared Vision

The participants from the co-curricular leadership program discussed the importance of shared vision as well as the barriers that hinder desired results. Consistent with the review of documents, participants acknowledged the defined purpose of the leadership program as noted in the organization constitution; however, they also spoke of the importance of creating a sense of ownership and tailoring the already defined purpose into a shared vision with team goals (HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998). Shawna (Co-Curricular MU), Barry (Co-Curricular MU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) all discussed attending the Council retreat and creating their vision for the year; however, as Chairs of the Council, Rebecca (Co-Curricular) and Laura (Co-Curricular) shared a unique insight. Rebecca spoke of the importance of ownership in the vision set forth by the group:

You have got to make sure that people has the same vision and everybody believes in that vision. Because if you just give them a vision and say, ‘oh, this is what we are all about’, but don’t give them a chance to put themselves into that vision, then they are not going to internalize it. It is not going to mean as much to them.

These findings are consistent with the research of Chrislip and Larson (1994) and Kouzes and Posner (2002) which noted the significance of all group participants be part of the process in determining the direction of the shared vision even if a defined purpose already exists.

Laura spoke of how the group created their shared vision, but also noted the reality of individual commitment due to busy schedules and stressful situations.

I think that sometimes people get caught up in a lot of different things. I think that we start off with a really good shared vision. Because we go on a retreat and like we spell it out and everybody is really excited about it. But I think that it is hard to keep people motivated for that shared vision because they realize all the work that goes into some of

the stuff that we do. But I think the time when we lose it is like when things get really busy and we get caught up in every single detail of the event. But I think really at the end of the day, like after we've done something...we realize what we're doing this for. And so, yeah, I think we have shared vision. It is just that sometimes, we need to be reminded of it.

Laura's depiction illustrates the significance of the motivational aspect of transformational leadership in encouraging the group to reach shared goals (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2004) as well as reiterates the notion that varying levels of individual commitment has effects on the implementation of group goals (HERI, 1996).

Required Shared Vision

Compared to the data collected from the students in the co-curricular leadership program, the student participants in the curricular program did speak of shared vision, but approached the concept as a requirement for the program in order to receive an academic grade and retain their scholarship. Kristy (Curricular CU) described a situation when the group was trying to create a shared vision on how they wanted to approach their service project.

When we are in our organizations, we get to express ourselves. But when it comes to the program, we have something that we have to do. So, let's figure out what the majority can agree on doing, the rest of you who don't like it, just try to get along.

Kim (Curricular CU) stated that many times the students displayed a bad attitude when it came to implementing the project if they did not embrace the vision. She explained that it was apparent that some Emerging Leaders were only there because they had to be there or they would lose their scholarship. Rather than focusing on a specific requirement, Kate (Curricular CU) took an interesting approach and explained shared vision from a long term positive perspective. She

noted that although the group may not have displayed the same shared vision for their service projects, they all displayed the same desired goal in the future.

I think that we have more of a shared vision within the leadership program because...we are all working toward the same goal. We want to complete the program. We want to be successful leaders in the community.

Kate (Curricular CU) noted that their shared vision was not related to how they wanted to approach their service projects, but rather they all shared the common vision of being agents of change in the community upon the completion of the leadership program. This data correlates with Chrislip and Larson's (1994) study which notes that an individual's goals and self interests can be obtained through group achievement.

Controversy with Civility

The data revealed that even collaborative groups encounter controversy (Tjosvold, 1993); however, controversy can be dealt with civility as long as individuals showed respect for differing opinions and remained focused on common goals (HERI, 1996; Avruch & Scimecca, 1991). The participants described managing their emotions (Kouzes & Pousner, 1997 & 2002), communicating with each other and establishing a productive manner to facilitate the decision making process in the group setting (Komives et al., 1998).

Varying Personalities

The data revealed distinct personality differences between the co-curricular and curricular student participants. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) noted that the Council currently had a varying level of leadership experience. As a graduating senior, she described the majority of the leaders on the Council as "young and inexperienced". She went on say:

I wish there was more of them that were, you know, putting forth more assertion. It's like...we have to do more hand-holding and getting them to actually participate and do

what they know that they can do. Like, it's hard. And they need more encouragement and that sort of thing.

Laura (Co-Curricular, MU) also noted her difficulty in dealing with the differing personalities.

“This group has a lot of passive aggressiveness, which is really hard to deal with because I am not passive aggressive at all, so I don't understand it.”

In comparison, all of the student participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program entered the program at the same time their freshman year and were approximately the same age. Kate (Curricular CU) described her classmates as individuals “who are positive and want to do well”; however, bluntly stated with a sly grin as to prepare anyone who was not familiar with these individuals, “our class is made up of some strong personalities.” Natalie (Curricular CU) affirmed Kate's (Curricular CU) assessment by stating, “We are a class full of opinionated, very strong-willed, hard-headed people. And we like to hear our own voices.” Holly (Curricular CU) used one word to describe her classmates: “stubborn”. Kristy (Curricular CU) recalled group interaction during their freshman year.

Our first year, there was a lot of bickering and people really didn't know how to approach each other. People were like, ‘this is my point of view, I have done this before’ and then they would just start spilling off their resume.

Varying Opinions

From the data collected, it was evident that due to program structure, the participants encountered the exchange of varying opinions in different atmospheres. The students from the co-curricular Leadership Council reported expressing varying opinions in a more controlled setting during meetings in the presence of two advisors or in their individual committee meetings; whereas, the student participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program reported encountering conflict when they were planning group projects outside of the classroom.

Three of the five co-curricular participants reported handling varying opinions through discussion, mediation, and finding a common ground. All of these are consistent with relational leadership methods characteristic of the Post Industrial paradigm (Komives et al., 1998). Laura (Co-Curricular MU) spoke about how shared vision and common purpose helped the Council overcome adversity when varying opinions arose.

There were times that people would argue and stuff, but we never made it to the point where people like attacked each other and got angry. I don't know if it was out of respect, or what. Everyone pretty much had in mind what we're doing as a Council is really important and that was always more important than somebody being right all the time.

Barry (Co-Curricular MU) commented on compromise:

...we would honestly just go to the person, not disrespectful at all, but just, say look at it this way. Let's handle it this way. We feel that it'd be better. You give reason for that; you just don't throw it there. And usually they were willing to compromise...

However, Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) both reported that conflict more often took place in the individual committees, rather than in Council meetings. Shawna stated that at Council meetings, they reported more than discussed:

We really didn't have much have discussions on stuff. If you had an idea, if the rest of the group didn't think it was a good idea, they would just go to the next idea and when they found one, they were just like, 'oh that sounds good.'

Participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program described a tumultuous beginning when they came together their freshman year. However, the personalities and differences of opinion that brought on such a difficult beginning not only facilitated group development, but also promoted learning and development on an individual level as well

(Chickering & Reisser, 1993). As Natalie (Curricular CU) described millennial personality characteristics (Howe & Strauss, 2000) were one of the first hurdles to overcome when they came together their first year in the leadership program. She reflected:

Freshman year, it was hard to adapt to each other because we were all coming from different places where we were probably the big fish in the little pond, and we're coming into a group of people that have the same if not better talents in one area or another and competing with that...it was challenging to be confronted with that.

Holly (Curricular CU) also noted the difficulty and the controversy they faced when trying to reach a group decision, but rather than becoming overly frustrated with the situation, she observed behavior and adjusted her leadership approach.

I have come to realize that when you are working with nothing but leaders who think that they are always right and that their leadership style is always the best, it is always going to be a different tactic as to how to approach the situation.

Kate (Curricular CU) affirmed the difficulty they confronted their freshman year when faced with varying opinion. Whereas Natalie and Holly spoke of individual's competitive and confident nature, Kate described how differences facilitated a growing experience for the individual that later fostered group development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Komives et al., 1998). When asked to describe how they approached disagreement, she responded:

We fought. We argued at times. I think that's all about leadership and growing as a person just because we are so diverse. People come from so many different realms of how we were brought up. Like I am from a small town...and you have some people in the program that come from big cities and they had so many different aspects of elements that they grew up with that people are just like, 'how do you think like that?' or 'why do you say that?' and I am just like, 'that's me.' So, we have our fair share of fights and

arguments and debates, but at the end of the day, it is a growing experience and that is just how it is.

When asked to compare the dynamic in how they approached varying opinion in their junior year compared to three years earlier, the student participants spoke of a more civilized method grounded in the fundamentals of a collaborative group process (Bass, 1995; Chrislip & Larson, 1994; HERI, 1996). Holly (Curricular CU) noted how each individual on the team learned to work with each other, even if it meant adjusting her own leadership style “At the end of the day, you want to be a good leader. And being a good leader means not only leading those who are following, but leading those who are right beside you as well.”

Natalie (Curricular CU) noted that through the years, as a group, they learned to utilize each other’s skills for the good of the team in the accomplishment of the group goal. “We work with each other’s strengths and weakness and know when this person needs to step up and when this person needs to step aside.” Bluntly she commented, “Sometimes, you’ve just got to learn when to shut up and let other people talk and know when you need to speak your mind.” Their arguments turned more into democratic debates, with a demonstrated appreciation of what their fellow group member can contribute to the cause. Natalie noted that their strong personality characteristics were still present in the group setting, however, she described an emphasis on team collaboration. She concluded her thoughts by saying, “We have really grown as a class and as individuals.”

Kristy (Curricular CU) stated their freshman year, they were unwilling to hear others’ opinions (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; HERI, 1996); however, after spending three years together, they still disagreed with each other at times, but the individualist undertones were less present. As a group, they looked for resolution that would be satisfying to all, and used problem solving skills until resolution took place.

Now I am more welcoming of disagreements and differing opinions because so often we are taught that arguing is not good, but now working with this group has changed my mind. We will argue with each other, but we all know that we are respecting each others' opinions and that we are very passionate about what we are talking about, but there is a sense of respect among the group.

Findings in this study describe how the group process facilitated individual development (Chrislip & Larson). The participants experiences described two components of the Relational Leadership Model (Komives et al., 1998). In an inclusive manner, individuals were willing to understand both self and others, have an appreciation for differing opinions, and build coalition through communicative efforts. The data also described students engaging in a process of group dynamics that enabled them to work out differences of varying degrees.

Training Preparation

From the collected data, all participants noted the significance in acquiring the necessary personal skills needed to reach a level of agreement within a group setting (Bass, 1995; Northouse, 2004; Patrick, 2003); however, as to whether they received proper training to reach an amenable resolution varied between the programs. All of the participants from the curricular leadership program spoke of enhancing their conflict resolution skills through workshops, class discussions, and role playing in simulation activities. Michael (Curricular CU) specifically addressed the importance of reflection and how it helped him look at the situation from a different perspective. According to cognitive development theories (Perry, 1968), the reflective aspect indicates a higher level of critical thinking and assists students in their personal development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

When asked the same question as to whether training from the leadership program prepared the individual to effectively address and resolve conflict, the participants from the co-

curricular displayed varying answers. Barry (Co-Curricular MU) stated that they received training during the regional leadership institute. Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) concurred with Barry by stating:

At the different workshops that we attended, we learned about personality types and how you can recognize a person like this or that and how to approach them when you ask them something to avoid conflict and how to respond to them.

Both Laura (Co-Curricular MU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) contended that they did not necessarily receive conflict resolution training from the leadership program, but rather from involvement in other leadership training. As Chair of the Council, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) commented, “I don’t think enough emphasis is really put on conflict resolution in the program. I think I am pretty good at resolving conflict because I am an RA and we have to do that constantly.” Keith (Co-Curricular MU) stated, “I wouldn’t say that Council training covered conflict resolution. I would say that my leadership training just all together has shown me conflict resolution.”

Society / Community

The participants in this study discussed how their individual or group values make a difference in the community. Based on individual preference, community was personally defined as either the university community or society in general. This data supports the third component of the Social Change Model for Leadership Development (HERI, 1996). This next section explains the descriptive findings related to citizenship and civic engagement in the forms of politics and service.

Citizenship Education

Since research regards citizenship preparation and training as a central purpose of leadership programs (Astin & Astin, 2000; Bell, 1994; Freeman et al., 1996; Roberts & Ullom,

1989; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart, 1999); this study addressed participants ability to discuss the citizenship preparation they received from their leadership program.

Defining Citizenship

The majority of the student participants from both the co-curricular and curricular leadership programs defined citizenship in terms of taking an active role in the community, promoting change and being part of the greater good. By wishing to be part of the process, the student participants surpassed what Nic, Junn, and Stehlik Berry (1996) referred to as the enlightened citizen and excelled to the engaged citizen by wishing to be part of the process. These findings are also consistent with the research of Cogan and Derricott (2000) by indicating their desire to bring about change.

All of the participants from the co-curricular program approached citizenship from a communitarian viewpoint (Boyte & Kari, 2000) and spoke of membership in the community, as well as a shared responsibility toward the community. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) described citizenship in terms of being an active member of the community, being conscious of community issues, and the ability to play a role in implementing change. She stated, “It’s your job to do something about something that you see that’s going wrong or participate in something that you can do to make your world or your surroundings a little better.” In her comments, she allowed individuals to define their concept of world by stating, “The world as big or as small as you want to make it.”

Barry (Co-Curricular MU) spoke about citizenship as taking pride in the community and defined a citizen was “one what would speak up and try to make a difference.” In order to provide an example of his statement, Barry spoke of his grandma and her pride for her community.

I think about my grandma. You'll say something like, 'oh, the community is going bad or we stay in the ghetto.' And she is like, 'no, I don't stay in the ghetto. Now the people that comes in a community might be ghetto, but this is my community and this is not a ghetto.' She...and some of the other neighbors do what it takes to keep their community up.

The responses from the co-curricular student participants on the Leadership Council were very similar in the fact that all spoke of making a difference in the community; however, when asked the same question, answers varied from the curricular Emerging Leader program participants. Kim (Curricular CU) provided a response comparable to the co-curricular student participants that included the importance of being an active member of the community and "playing an active role in furthering the community's well being." Kristy (Curricular CU) provided similar sentiments of active involvement in the community, but then concluded her answer with a civic tone:

Like, I am a citizen of the United States, but I hope at one point, I'll be able to be an active national citizen. Right now I am definitely a citizen or resident of [state], but I'm trying to start having an active role in our government, our politics and our community as a whole, like the other people who are involved in the [name of city] community.

Kristy's (Curricular CU) depiction of an active role in both community and governmental issues represented the commonwealth viewpoint. Boyte and Kari (2000) contended the commonwealth viewpoint as a "by the people" approach form of citizenship, viewed as the effort from the people themselves.

Two of the students from the curricular leadership program included ethics and values in their discussion of citizenship. Michael (Curricular CU) noted that in his perspective, "citizenship is very similar to leadership. It is a balancing act of obligation, duty, rights...and

privileges.” When speaking of citizenship, he also noted the significance of both individual values as well as the overall value system accepted by society. Holly (Curricular CU) described citizenship from an ethical point of view illustrating the relationship between congruent behavior and personal values:

To me, to uphold the characteristics of the word ‘citizenship’, I feel like you need to be a trustworthy, honest, ethical person. To me, it does not get any simpler than that. It is ethical. It is like what is morally correct. It is not what would you do as a citizen of the United States, but what would you do in the presence of your parents? What would you do in front of your children? What would you do in front of your friends? To me, if it is something that you would not do in front of your mom or would not do in front of your grandparents, it does not portray citizenship.

Holly (Curricular CU) and Michael’s (Curricular CU) responses are supported by the current literature of many researchers who agreed that behavior and values were essential to effective citizenship (Erllich, 2000; HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998). These findings also support the research on the development of individual civic and moral identity (Barber, 1992; Flannagan, 2003; Mead, 1934; William & Streb, 2001).

It should be noted that although all participants from both leadership programs were able to discuss the concept of citizenship to varying degrees, over half of them struggled with their thoughts, paused for long periods of time, asked for clarification, and noted the difficulty of the question. After the question was asked, Natalie (Curricular CU) let out a stressful “uggh” and sat back in her chair for a moment as she collected her thoughts. She eventually provided a similar answer to the others: supporting one’s own community. Whereas others paused in silence as they struggled to collect their thoughts, Kate (Curricular CU) verbally expressed her process of thinking:

I think citizenship is just, I don't know. I don't know. I think of being a citizen of the United States or...wherever you are from, I just think that it is abiding by – you can be a citizen and not abide the laws. Somebody who votes; somebody who doesn't. Okay. I don't know. What is a citizen? Somebody. I don't know.

Program Preparation for Citizenship

When asked to discuss if and how participation in the leadership programs prepared them for active citizenship, students from both leadership programs discussed the benefits of personal development and skill development to varying degrees. The students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program reported linking reflective classroom discussion to their actual service in the community. A majority of students from the co-curricular program did not associate their development as a citizen directly with their training on the Council, but rather their overall involvement in extracurricular activities.

Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) and Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) both discussed how they have grown as individuals. Shawna stated she learned a great deal about herself through the participation in the leadership program, as well as how to work with other people. Rebecca commented, "I think I have grown a lot through my leadership experience because I am a very different person now than when I got here." Kate (Curricular, CU) noted she also reached higher levels of identity development and cognitive reasoning through her experiences with different types of people. She stated how her experience in the Emerging Leaders program enlightened her perspective on citizenship:

Where I come from is a small town and I am not saying that everybody thinks alike, but you have got a lot of country bumpkins...they just don't have the same goals. And I think that the leadership program has opened my mind up to so many new people and so many new ideas. Just the whole thinking process of how I view life and citizenship and

different goals and stuff that I set. It's just all different from when I first started. Like I can really tell the difference of being around a lot of diverse people.

The participants presented evidence that leadership training assisted with individual development (Chickering & Reiser, 1993) and intellectual and ethical development (Perry, 1968). Many researchers contented that citizenship development is fundamentally tied to personal development (Barber, 1992; Mead, 1934; William & Streb, 2001).

Barry (Co-Curricular MU) expressed his interest in utilizing acquired skills to start a high school leadership program for the community. "I gained all of [these skills] at the end of my college career. What if high schools can get this early? Not only that, but hopefully...the leadership program would encourage them to go to college." He went on to state that it was his desire to provide a program that would benefit youth, get them involved and provide them an outlet of support so that they would not "get hooked up with the wrong crowd". Barry's intention to start an inner-city young leadership program is consistent with Stoneman's (2002) belief that inner-city programs not only provide an outlet to at-risk youth, but also instill in them the conviction that they can create change in their neighborhoods.

Laura (Co-Curricular MU) shared that participation in the leadership program not only provided personal development, but also raised self-awareness (Westheimer & Kane, 2004) in how she can be an active citizen following graduation.

We work with so many different places in [name of city] and like it has raised my awareness of things that are going on that I think...I will know better ways of being a good citizen after I go on from college. We do a lot of things with [name of a local non-profit group]. And even when I am not involved with [name of school], I will still do stuff with that organization and I would have never known about it except for through the

Council. And so, it is definitely opened my eyes to different ways to be involved and different things to do in the city.

Kristy (Curricular, CU) described how through the leadership training she had grown in a structured environment that helped her progress to more advanced stages of personal development. In a reflective manner, she also noted how the skills she acquired will be helpful in playing an active role as an engaged citizen. “Like everyone knows you need to be an effective communicator. I take a class that teaches me to do that.” She described her ability to properly identify the most successful technique when speaking to people or how she can change her approach if it seemed to be unsuccessful. These findings concur with many researchers who noted communication as an important civic skill and associated civic skill development as a significant part of citizenship development (Kirlin, 2003; Patrick, 2003; Verba et al., 1995).

According to Michael (Curricular CU) the Emerging Leaders program challenged students to clarify their values and discussed how they can make a difference in the community through their fundamental convictions (Cunningham, 1977; Ehrlich, 2000; Nasir & Kirshner, 2003; William & Streb, 2001). “It is very hard to teach someone a value. It is much easier to teach how to use those values, and...how to adapt those values when appropriate.”

Kim (Curricular CU) described how they connected the service projects to citizenship discussions in class. She noted these discussions “have helped us to see the impact that we make in the neighborhoods.” Natalie (Curricular CU) confirmed Kim’s statement by sharing the following:

Our new GA has really shed a lot of light on the fact that it is not just doing the community service. It is to learn what the needs of the community are. It is to offer your best gifts and talents to help the community. Because if there are not people like

emerging leaders or just volunteers, then the community can just go downhill and nobody will care.

This data supports the research of Cunningham (1977), who contended an experience based learning model made citizenship education approaches more effective by providing students the ability to connect in-class learning with out-of-class experiences in the world. It also is consistent with Conrad and Hedin (1977), who urged educators to challenge students thinking and reflect upon their experience.

Keith (Co-Curricular MU) stated that in his opinion, the Leadership Program did not solely prepare him for active citizenship, but rather attributed his involvement in leadership activities as a whole. He stated his involvement in the university community provided skills and instilled in him the belief that all students can make a difference through active citizenry. He shared:

Students actually have a greater influence than they think. And you get to learn about that if you are involved in student government and things of that nature. And to me, that is what being involved in college is, a microcosm of society. And in society, you have the government elected by the citizens. And if you are an active citizen, then you will see the results of your activity.

Political Engagement

All student participants in this study concurred that politics is important to them; however, the majority of the students admit to very little or no involvement in political engagement. In fact, many of the students expressed distrust in the political system. Whereas some believed they could make a difference through local or national political involvement, others either devalued their influence or expressed no desire to become involved in aspect of political engagement.

Politically Informed

All student participants expressed the importance of being politically informed. Michael (Curricular CU) stated the importance for “any kind of general populous, whether it be a university, an organization or a nation.” He went on to state: “I think it is important for them to keep as active as possible...with those current events.” Keith (Co-Curricular MU) expressed his belief that all citizens of this country should take an active role in “learning how the government works” and acquiring the necessary skills to make a difference in the political system. Barry (Co-Curricular MU) addressed the importance of electing politicians with compatible beliefs and a congruent value system so that individuals can reach out to their elected officials. He boldly expressed, “they should at least be somewhere near your values [so when] something...needs to be done, you should be bold enough to be able to contact them in some form or fashion to try to get them to address the situation.”

Kristy (Curricular CU) also discussed political leaders and stated it was their behavior that awakened her out of her political malaise. She expressed:

I am starting to pay more attention to politics. Honestly, because of the city mayor. I think that he is one of the worst leaders I have ever heard in my life. Before, I was really apathetic. I was like, ‘politics – they don’t really do anything, they don’t effect me, they effect me, but I can’t effect them. But now, I’m looking at it more towards, I need to figure out these issues because a lot of people are making decisions about issues that I am directly involved in and I am not saying anything, so I want to know more information about what is going on.

Holly (Curricular CU) stated in a passionate tone, her view on the importance of political awareness and described citizens with political apathy and mislead by media:

I think that the awareness of politics in your community and outside of your community is very important. It is vital. People complain about this, that, and the other. Well, you know, what do you know? Okay, you are complaining about the roads being bad, but did you know that [name of city] does not have any money to put into the roads? People only see the surface. A lot of people that do know or claim that they do know about politics, they only see the outside. Like they only see what is covered in the media. They do not see what goes on behind closed doors. They do not go to City Council meetings. They do not engage in campaigns and stuff like that. So, I think that it is very important. It is very serious. A lot of people do not take it seriously because the media portrays it as a joke. But it is a very serious issue that needs to be taken very seriously. And it is very important. Politics – it depicts your life.

Charles (Administrator Curricular CU) concurred that he too was concerned that students equate political leadership with what they see in the local media and students equated political leadership with the inability to find compromise and progress. He stated, "...so we try to look at other leadership efforts in the community and really demonstrate to students they have to look beyond local media."

Reasons for Non-Involvement.

Consistent with the research of Verba, Scholzman, and Brady (1995), the majority of the students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program reported lack of political engagement due to time constraints. Michael (Curricular CU) admitted drawbacks to being significantly committed to academic and extra-curricular demands, "There is a drawback to being overexerted. I do not keep up with many of the current events that someone would consider to be very essential. It is not that I am purposely ignorant to them...I just do not have time." He went on to say that he usually catches up on political information "while standing in food court

lines on campus because they usually have CNN playing.” Natalie (Curricular CU) proudly reported she once interned for the mayoral campaign, but admitted the occurrence was a rare situation with all of her present commitments. “I do not stay on top of [political issues] like I should. I’ll catch some news every now and then on the internet, but I guess I just have too much on my plate to worry about that.” Kristy (Curricular CU) shared similar sentiments:

I feel like I am focused on school and trying to get internships and jobs and student involvement. So after college I think that I will get way more into politics because right now I don’t feel like I can dedicate as much time as I would like because I feel like I would be spreading myself too thin if I do too much..

Kate confessed, “[It is] just not a priority right now because I have other things to think about. It is not my focus, and maybe it should be.”

Not Passionate About Politics

Student participants in both leadership programs discussed their lack of passion and interest for politics (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002; Verba et al., 1995). Laura (Co-Curricular MU) stated that although her friends had tried to enamour her interest in politics (Gimble & Gay, 2006; Verba et al., 1995; Winniford et al., 1995), she admitted with a voice inflection as if to apologize for her upcoming statement:

I’m not passionate about politics. But I do think that as a citizen, you should know what’s going on with the people that are leading your country. But not so much as where I’m going to obsess over, you know, all the small stuff.”

In her last sentence, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) stressed the word small as if to de-magnify politics. Kate (Curricular CU) shared practically the same sentiments, stating she gained insight from one of her friends who has political aspirations; however, admitted more boisterous than Laura:

...just knowing...that there is debate today or there is this or that. I really don't keep up with that as much. I just kind of form my own perception of the people. Government and politics just hasn't really been a passion of mine. And I think that I need to be more well-rounded, but still I tend to follow my passion and not really care about it. I mean, I care, but I'm just not in the element where I really focus on politics. Nobody really does really.

Kim (Curricular CU), Shawna (Co-Curricular MU), and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) all discussed their disinterest and lack of awareness in political issues, but acknowledged they will put forth some effort towards learning the issues since it is an election year. Similar to Laura (Co-Curricular MU), when speaking about her lack of interest and effort in political engagement, she somewhat sounded apologetic. "I get mad at myself... I am just making excuses. I think it is very important, but I am not making an effort. But I know that with this next election, I am convinced that I've got to figure it out." Shawna stated that with the upcoming elections, she planned to keep up with the issues that she "cared about". Laura (Co-Curricular MU) candidly admitted, "...the different platforms of people running for president in 2008 – I don't have the slightest clue. I know I'll get the information in time to make a decision." These findings are consistent with the fourth component of Civic Volunteerism Model (Verba et al., 1995) indicating people will become interested in political issues when it affects them personally.

Lacks Trust in Political System

Half of the student participants expressed a lack of trust in the political system. As Kristy (Curricular CU) noted earlier, her distrust in the leadership of the mayor was actually the fuse that ignited her interest in political issues; however, other students reported overwhelming negative perspectives of the overall political system guided by their intense feelings of distrust and disgust of political leadership. Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) commented that she becomes

frustrated with the structure of the political system, so she just ignores it until she has “time to deal with it.” She went on to comment: “I think the political realm is too biased and people are too mistrusting of people with reasons for doing things. And I know that I am mistrusting of politician’s reasons for doing things.” Kate (Curricular CU) also articulated her mistrust and frustration with politics (Verba et al., 1995).

I just think they are all a bunch of crooks. I guess because I get such a negative vibe, that I’m just kind of honed in on that negative aspect, when they do a lot of positive things, I just think that the system is already so messed up right now that the positive things don’t matter. So, I guess that is why I am just so tuned out with politics. I just have a negative perception of it.

Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) stated with the upcoming presidential election, it concerned him when he heard students say they liked or disliked a political candidate, but the student really could not articulate their reasoning. He noted that he was thinking of leading a class discussion about leadership and how it developed student’s interest in politics. He disclaimed, “...in no way trying to change people’s political views, all that is very personal. But only asking students to really sort of qualify the reasons for what they believe.

Influence Change

A majority of the students interviewed spoke of how college student devalue their influence in political engagement. Laura (Co-Curricular MU), Barry (Co-Curricular MU) and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) spoke of how people lessen the importance of their vote in the election process. Barry described how people take away their ability to create change when they do not participate in the election process.

A lot of people don’t think that one vote matters, but it matters a lot. You can either help elect somebody that you want in office that you think will be beneficial for you

individually or your family or your community. Or you don't have to vote and maybe you'll...be disgusted or upset with the person and how they run the office, but you didn't take the opportunity to vote, so you really don't have a have a say-so now.

Rebecca explained that many of her peers say that they did not vote in the last election because they believed their one vote was not going to matter. She further explained, "...but their one vote is still exercising the right to vote and therefore keeping the right to vote."

Other participants described how college students devalue their ability to make a difference through political engagement. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) commented how college students do not care about political issues.

I think people my age...have a lot more influence than any of us realize because we are such a big group of college aged people. I think that if more of us cared about being aware of what was going on in the issues, we would have a lot more influence with our peers. Like...more people need to care about what is going on in the world.

Keith (Co-Curricular MU) stated it frustrated him when college students fail to recognize how much influence they have as a collective voice. He commented:

Political candidates do come to college campuses. And we are educated students and we are going to be future educated members of society. Mostly those who have the most education are most involved in the political process and so those candidates look for ideas, information, how to reach others through involvement in school and involvement in your community. Those political participants will come to us.

Keith's perception that college educated individuals are most involved in the political process substantiates the research of Verba, Scholzman, and Brady (1995) who contended that people from a higher economic status are more likely to be involved in politics because of the resources available to them. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) described how a lack of caring prohibits students'

belief that they can create change in the political community. Research indicates that caring is an intrinsic motivation attributed to individual values and the level of commitment on is willing to exert. Caring is also an important characteristic of citizenship development (HERI, 1996; Kouzes and Posner, 1987, 2002).

When asked if she felt she had influence to create change in the political system, Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) stated that she would never chose to be active in politics and Kim (Curricular CU) bluntly stated that she neither had the interest nor did she believe she had the skills to make an impact. Shawna stated that she did not have the money and therefore her voice will not be heard (Verba et al., 1995).

I think that if I were to be part of an organization that really had some money to back any political candidate to get my voice heard, then yeah, I would think that I had a bit of an influence. But this grassroots stuff, in my opinion, sometimes never works. You are just shouting, shouting, shouting until you are out of breath. If you don't have money, they are not listening to you. So I don't think that I have much influence right now.

Data from this study also indicates the belief that a portion of college students show no interest in civic issues or are pessimistic towards the entire political process, which is inconsistent with the research of Howe and Strauss (2000) who predicted an increased level of optimism for public life in Millennial students.

Post Graduation Involvement

Data from this study suggested a majority of participants will participate in the political process in varying degrees following graduation from college. Four out of six students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program were more confident in their political involvement after they graduate. One student stated she had no interest and the other indicated possibilities of involvement.

Kristy (Curricular CU) stated that she wanted to become involved in political issues following graduation so she could influence others' involvement (Astin, 1984; Gimble & Gay, 2006; Torney-Purta, 2002; Verba et al. 1995):

I want to be able to do something. I mean, even if it's just voting. I don't think I'm going to be anything huge in politics, but I do want to support people and have somebody that I am voting for and be involved with the community atmosphere to influence votes. To do something like that because people don't pay attention and I think the more that I am starting to pay attention, the more I want others to start to pay attention.

Holly (Curricular CU) and Natalie (Curricular CU) depicted political post graduation involvement due to career choices. Holly stated her intentions to run for a political office. Natalie stated that as a lawyer, she believed her career will involved her with the political issues.

Student participants from the co-curricular Leadership Council provided similar answers regarding political involvements. Four participants stated positive intentions, and one student bluntly stated that she has no interest in becoming involved in politics. Keith (Co-Curricular MU) indicated his intentions to run for senate later in life, Barry (Co-Curricular MU) shared his plan of being a business owner and stated "I know that has a lot to do with politics."

It should be noted that students from the co-curricular Leadership Council who expressed positive intentions of political involvement were not confident in the answers they provided, but used disclaiming phrases such as: "I would like to think", "hopefully", "probably". Shawna was one of the students participants who expressed interest in political involvement; however, she believed her future involvement will be based on her socio-economic status (Verba et al., 1995):

...right now as a college student, they don't really care about us. Not for real. But once I get some money, and you know, start investing my money in different things, then they will listen to me. But right now, I have nothing, so like the government is like 'shut up

and just wait until you graduate and then we'll listen to you. Get some weight on you, we'll listen to you then.

Program Training Preparation

All participants stated neither the curricular nor the co-curricular leadership program sufficiently prepared them for political engagement. Natalie (Curricular, CU) stated advisors encouraged them to get involved with campaigns and elections, but not a lot of class time was devoted to making a difference in the community through political engagement. Laura (Co-Curricular MU) commented that as a Leadership Council, the only thing they had done politically were voter registration drives. She went on to state that the regional leadership training institute encouraged conventional political involvement (Westheimer, 2006), such as writing congressmen; however, Laura explained, "I don't think any [training] I have done has really given a good way of how to associate...leadership with the political issue." She went on to say that she did not know how to transfer her leadership abilities to political engagement.

Kristy (Curricular CU) believed students in the Emerging Leaders program would benefit from class discussion regarding political issues because she was starting to question her family influenced conservative beliefs and others might be struggling with similar issues as well. She commented sharing experiences may be beneficial. Coming from a small town, she stated being around the diverse group of people in the Emerging Leaders program had influenced her to open her mind to new thoughts and opinions (Gimble & Lay, 2006; HERI, 1996; Winniford et al., 1995). However she disclaimed her reasoning for why the leadership program did not address political issues, "...but you know, politics is one of those things that you don't want to really want to hit on." When probed to clarify her answer, she continued:

...because it is a touchy subject. Because as opinionated as we are, I think that all of us would get way more opinionated if we started talking about politics. And you don't want to mess up the relationships that you are already building.

Kristy's (Curricular CU) association with political discussion and conflict is consistent with the research of Mutz (2006), who purported Millennial children were "encouraged to avoid conflict, to defuse it, and if all else fails, to walk away from it" (p. 16). Mutz stated that students did not take a stand on political issues because they did not wish to bring up controversial issues with friends.

Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) suggested it was not only students who avoid issues with potential political conflict, but university administration as well. She spoke of a time when her organization wanted to take a stand on a political issue in the community. In disgust, Shawna explained:

[Name of university] shies away from that and [discourages] student leaders from doing stuff like that. They are just like, 'Oh, you can't do that. We don't want any ramifications.' Because of that everybody is so afraid to touch it and I am just like, 'Why can't we touch it?' So administrators are just scared, in my opinion, to say something...they really can't take a hit.

Although not at Shawna's university, Charles (Administrator, Curricular CU) did state that as an administrator at City University, "we try to shy away from politics here...because [name of city] is fairly diverse as it relates to politics." Anthony (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU) and Wendy (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU) also noted that as advisors, they really had not incorporated political leadership discussions into training nor community projects; however, noted that with the upcoming election, the Council will be conducting more voter registration drives.

Service Engagement

The experiences of all student participants revealed increased levels of service engagement while participating in the leadership programs. They reported a connection to larger community issues (Hurtado, 2006) as well as an understanding of the relationship of self and others (HERI, 1996). The student participants from the co-curricular program described planning and participating in a vast range of service activities; whereas, the data obtained from the curricular participants identified a focus on children. All participants unanimously proclaimed their intentions to continue their service following graduation (HERI, 2005). The student participants from the curricular leadership program also discussed poor attitudes that sometimes were associated with required service (Colby et al., 2000).

Service Initiatives

Data from documents retrieved, validated by participant interviews, indicated that the co-curricular Leadership Council provided leadership and service opportunities for the entire student body. As Co-Chair of the Council, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) indicated that although certain service projects were long standing university traditions, other programs were brainstormed within the committee and then proposed to the Council for approval during the bi-weekly meetings. She referenced the large student population at MU and noted that as a Leadership Council, they planned the projects to fit the interests of the student body; however, the projects were initially proposed to meet the needs of the community (HERI, 1996).

The advisors of the co-curricular leadership program referenced the activities under the new Social Change Committee. Under this committee, the Council hosted a Hunger Banquet for university students and then planned an all encompassing university wide food drive. This food was to be distributed to the local food bank during the holidays. The co-curricular student participants primarily spoke of service initiatives under the standing committee, On-Going

Services. Under this committee, they made reference to the following volunteer activities: volunteering at the Ronald McDonald House and Salvation Army Food Kitchen, tutoring at a near by elementary school, providing services for a dinner outreach care program, working with special need adults and teenagers providing social and recreational activities, pre-dental and pre-medical student outreach programs to elementary schools.

As indicated in the structure of the curricular Emerging Leaders program, service to the community was listed as requirement. The students were expected to participate in both individual and group service projects. Group projects were discussed by the entire class and submitted for approval by the advisor. As their junior class project, the student participants in this study describe an awareness week that covered the following topic: mental health, physical health, children, and disabilities.

When describing individual service projects, the data obtained from the curricular program participants indicated a focus on serving children in the community. Holly (Curricular CU) commented, "I have a passion for children. I contemplated being an education major, but then decide that was not for me. I wanted to work with children, but I wanted to work with them on a different level. So, I decided to be an advocate for children." Kim (Curricular CU) commented on how she volunteered at two different schools as a tutor for high school aged students and young Spanish children at the same time. She stated, "I could not maintain that anymore. So I had to give one up. I felt like I was going and was not really able to give my whole heart to that. I was just kind of divided." The passion was apparent through the inflection in her voice when spoke of working with the younger children. "I like just love them. They are so precious. I like the relationships that I can make in a little bit of time." Kate (Curricular CU) spoke of the emotion she felt when working with the children at the Ronald McDonald House made on her. She noted that volunteering at this particular site was an eye opening experience

and deepened her awareness and her appreciation for what they do for the children and their families. Kate also volunteered at the local food bank, particularly in a program that packed food for kids on the weekend. She reflected, “Some kids do not have food for the weekend. They just kind of fend for themselves, and it is just a joy of knowing that you are helping somebody else.”

Natalie (Curricular CU) spoke of the group project, “Our group is trying to raise money for the on-campus preschool for different playground equipment to encourage more activity for the children so that maybe to prevent or avoid obesity for those children.” Michael (Curricular CU) spoke of his involvement with the Boy Scouts: “I teach eleven year old boy scouts. That is kind of a specialization that I love to do.” Both Kristy (Curricular CU) and Kate (Curricular CU) explained why they focus on children. Kate stated that children in the community were overlooked most of the time and Kristy commented, “The kids – they are the ones who are going to take over one day. We should focus on that more.”

Personal Response to Service

The participants from both leadership programs spoke of service with passion and great feeling, in both words and with the expression of emotion when talking. They spoke of how it made them feel as individuals making a difference in people’s lives and instituting change in the community. The participants shared both their positive and negative service experiences and discussed the effect it had on their involvement in future service initiatives.

When describing service, Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) stated, “It is like an emotional high because it is helping other people and it is knowing that you brightened someone else’s day or you put a smile on their face. And knowing they did the same for you.” Laura also spoke of the emotional rewards of volunteering:

I am very passionate about community service. I think that everybody should be involved in it. I think that it’s more rewarding than people would actually think. And I

think people are just like, 'I don't have the time' ...but you get so much more out of it than you put in. Like, whether it is getting dirty or something, I think that the personal satisfaction that you get from just knowing that you helped do something, it is like why wouldn't people want to do community service?

Both Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) spoke of the sense of worth and accomplishment they received from the volunteer experience. Shawna shared, "I always like to do for somebody else before I do for myself...so, just helping somebody else makes me feel good. It makes me feel like I am worth something." Keith explained how volunteering helped put things into perspective for him as an individual.

It's a great feeling. Like doing Habitat for Humanity...it is like, wow, I just helped put on a roof or going to a Firehouse Shelter and say, I just helped serve a meal to somebody who otherwise may have not been able to eat. So that is a great feeling. You know it makes me feel, it makes me think about how blessed I am and not to take everything for granted because it could all be taken away just the same.

Holly (Curricular, CU) described how giving of her time now can affect lives in the future.

You are giving your time for free, but in the end it is what you are getting back. If I am volunteering my time at an inner city school in [name of city] teaching these children whose parents are incarcerated and been exposed to drugs, whatever. My influence in my community service could turn -- when these children grow up and may become doctors and lawyers. That hour that I gave for free changed someone's life, changed a lifetime. So community service to me is priceless. It doesn't get much better than community service.

Kristy (Curricular CU) described how service brings people together as a community.

I think that it takes one person to activate something, so as long as one person says, ‘we could do something about this, other people would want to do something. And I feel that you can bring people together by doing service. And it doesn’t necessarily have to be, ‘I am helping the underprivileged, or I’m helping the old’, you are just helping. You are just being a friend. You are just being a member of a society. And I love that...like, I will definitely will keep doing that forever.

Sharing Kristy’s sentiments, Michael (Curricular, CU) spoke of selfless service (Berger & Milem, 2002; Fitch, 1991; Greenleaf, 1977; Winniford et al., 1995) and described how an individual’s decision to act can influence continuous change.

Selfless service has no benefit or no personal gain necessarily –no monetary reward, no patch, no anything—just to go out and do it even if it feels weird, especially at first.

Through that person, while they may never know your name, they may never remember your face, they will remember that somebody was there to help them. And the next time, they’re going to help somebody else. That is at least the ideal. It doesn’t always work out. But eventually, if you have served enough people, at least one of those is going to help someone else. And through that you’re a person who has been able, through their selfless service, to influence another to do good.

Although the majority of the participants spoke of good service experiences, three of eleven spoke of negative service experiences. Kate (Curricular CU) described a time when she volunteered to work at the local humane society and she described her personal experience as horrible. She stated, “I was like, oh my gosh, if this is community service...I am hating myself right now.” Although she understood that it was considered community service, she noted it was not the right service initiative for her as an individual. She reflected, “...I don’t relate

community service with helping the community when you are not passionate about it.” Co-Chairs for the Leadership Council also shared bad experience when a volunteer activity went awry. Both Laura (Co-Curricular MU) and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) shared their perspective from the planning side. Laura expounded:

We had the wrong directions to a [volunteer site] and people got lost and it was complete craziness. And so by the time we actually got there, no one wanted to help because we had just been lost for hours. And so that was probably one of the times that I really didn't care about making a difference. I just wanted to go home. It was one of the days that we were cleaning up the school and...I just wanted to go hide in a corner and not do anything.

Whereas Kate (Curricular, CU) described an experience that affected her volunteer experience as an individual, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) described a situation that had an impact on the overall group experience. Although it did not prevent her from volunteering again, she wondered if the MU students who attended this event would volunteer again at a Leadership Council activity.

Community Response to Service

The participants from both programs spoke of how service participation affected them as individuals, but they also provided their perspective as to how service affected the community. From their perspective, Natalie (Curricular CU) and Kate (Curricular CU) described the happiness their actions brought to people. Natalie commented the elderly were very receptive and warm welcoming when they spent the afternoon at the nursing home. In the same manner, Kate stated the children she tutored were genuinely happy when they took the time to take the girls to a college basketball game. Kate went on to say that she made it a point to ask the little girl where she wanted to go to college. “Just to implant the thinking of going to college...because a lot of them don't think about it...they just think up to high school.”

Keith (Co-Curricular MU) and Barry (Co-Curricular MU) also discussed how they felt people were appreciative to the service and also reflected on the humanizing aspect in reaching out to the homeless. Keith reflected:

I think they are appreciative of you taking the time out to spend with them. Because, you know, I guess many homeless people are people who are less fortunate...I think they are very appreciative of it. Because you know, we're all people; we're all humans. We all need each other. No one is self reliant; no one is self-dependent. And so we all need each other.

Barry's (Co-Curricular MU) comment complimented Keith's (Co-Curricular MU) humanizing statement when he reflected upon the homeless people he met at the Soup Kitchen:

"...everybody's not a drug dealer; everybody's not an ex-gang member. It's like, you got lawyers and former bankers and it's like married people, they have families. It's like, what happened?"

Both Kim (Curricular CU) and Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) discussed a different perspective and commented that not all people want to be recipients of service. Kim stated, "You always have your people who don't want help or would rather do it themselves." Shawna remarked, "Sometimes, people are people and they turn away a helping hand because of pride." Rather than charity, Kristy (Co-Curricular, CU) recommended engaging the community recipients in the project so they felt as sense of ownership. She described a time when she and friends were cleaning up a community park. Although the middle school children grabbed sponges and trash bags to help in the process, she stated the parents and the high school teenagers just sat and watched. Kristy described how she successfully engaged them in helping with the project. She shared:

...and then some of the parents got up and the high school students who didn't think they were too cool, started grabbing trash bags and sponges. I felt like it created some type of ownership. That is wasn't just us coming from a different community and trying to help this underprivileged community, but from the little kids, like they saw what we were doing, so the older people started taking ownership of what was going on.

Kim (Curricular, CU) also spoke of a community service park project and noted it was a good group team builder, but she wished they had involved the people in the neighborhood. She stated that although the project helped to build up the community, she wondered if the project enhanced the neighbor's community spirit and ownership.

Required Service

Participants from both leadership programs discussed required service in many different aspects. Some spoke of their impression of the mandated service hours to fulfill high school requirements (HERI, 2005) and other participants spoke of students completing service hours for the goal of increasing their own well being (Baston, 1991; Friedman & Morimoto, 2006; Serrow, 1991).

Impressions from high school service. In this study, mandated high school service hours were discussed from varying points of view. Both Natalie (Curricular CU) and Kristy (Curricular CU) discussed how their mandated high school service hours negatively impacted their impression of community service on the collegiate level. Natalie was very passionate in her words and described how she used to hate community service because of her high school experiences. Although they both had negative experiences, Kristy and Natalie now shared a different outlook on service and helping the community. They attributed their change of heart to the Emerging Leaders program that connected reflective classroom discussion to meaningful community service. They both stated they wished the high schools would have approached the

mandatory service with a discussion and educational aspect, rather than just a mark on a graduation checklist.

Barry (Co-Curricular MU) spoke of the required service hours as a necessity for the public school students as early as junior high. He explained his reasoning:

I think that it should be mandatory in public school system at an early age. Honestly, like junior high. You cannot pass to the next level. Because, I mean, if people come with an open heart or open mind, they really get a sense of community service being needed and how beneficial it is to the community. I know a lot of people do it because they might need it for a resume or something later on in life, but if they could understand it in the beginning then, you know, community service, they will see how it will truly change a community and benefit a community for the better part of it.

The recommendations of the participants are consistent with citizenship educational approaches that incorporate a classroom discussion with experiential learning (Cunningham, 1977), as well as the additional aspects of personal development (Cogan & Derricott, 2000) and value development (Conrad & Hedin, 1977) in citizenship education.

Service for the wrong reasons. When discussing required service, participants from both programs discussed how some college students engage in service activities for the wrong reasons, usually accompanied by the wrong dispositions. Participants from the curricular Emerging Leaders program stated how it upset them when some of their fellow classmates were merely participating in the service projects for individual gain. Michael (Curricular CU) noted, "...there are people who really weren't into it – you could tell the difference between those who were really in it because they wanted to serve and the people who were there because it was a requirement." Kate (Curricular CU) also shared her sentiments:

Community service is not community service if you are regretting being there. It is not community service unless you are really engaged in what you are doing and actually feel that sense of pride for what you're doing, knowing that you are helping someone else.

Just showing up because you have to do 10 hours of community service isn't sufficient.

Data from the study was consistent with the research of Serrow's (1991) research that indicated some students may have service oriented intentions, but in the end, the experience was more intrinsically motivated. This was apparent in a quote from Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) describing helping the community with the undertone of egoistic motivation (Boyer, 1987) after a successful service project:

Everybody wants to be a rock star now-a-days. We feel like a rock star when you're at an event and something goes right. You just feel like you are on top of the world. That's a good outcome, feeling like you are a rock star. And you change things definitely if it's like a community action program. You get things done. You get the attention that you want.

Rebecca (Co-Curricular, MU) described from her perspective, many college students are engaged in service activities; however, she does not believe they are engaged in service activities for the right reasons.

I know my generation is supposed to be the one that holds the most community service hours, but whatever. I don't think we're doing it for the right reasons. I think we're doing it to get into college or get into grad school and to feel better about ourselves, but not really remembering that it's supposed to be about making other people feel better too. So, I think that while my generation is doing community service, I don't think that we are doing it for the right reasons, and I think it will catch up with us eventually.

These findings are consistent with some researchers' beliefs that students of today are more concerned about what they gained out the volunteer experience rather than whom they helped (Astin et al., 1999; Winniford et al., 1995). Much of the participant's descriptions of resume padding were also similar to findings of studies claiming students have become too involved with the goal of increasing their own wellbeing when engaging in citizenship activities (Batson, 1991; Friedman and Morimoto, 2006). Data concurred with Howe and Strauss (2000), illustrating students of this generation with goal-driven characteristics; however, there is evidence that altruistic student motivations are declining.

Service Post Graduation

All student participants from both leadership programs expressed their interest in continuing involvement in service to the community following graduation. Five of six students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program referred to their future service involvement as a way of life. Michael (Curricular, CU) stated:

I will probably by that point call it a side hobby—go and do some kind of conservation work or humanitarian work, some form of service to others. I think I would find it to be an essential part of my health, my over all being.

Both Holly (Curricular CU) and Kim (Curricular CU) noted their service initiatives will be part of their everyday life because Holly stated her intentions to join the Peace Corp and Kim shared her plans to continue her service through ministry. Kim stated, "I just think that my service won't be like, 'oh, it's community service time'. It will be more of a lifestyle, like how I spend my time with the people I am around."

All students from the co-curricular Leadership Council also spoke of their service intentions following graduation. Shawna (Co-Curricular MU) and Laura (Co-Curricular MU) spoke of their intense feelings towards service initiatives. Laura shared, "I just don't think that I

could not do service. I don't want to say that it is addictive, but it is something that I have to do and really enjoy doing." Compared to the curricular student participants, many of the co-curricular students also described it as a way of life, but additionally addressed family involvement. Keith (Co-Curricular MU) expressed:

Hopefully, when I get older and have a family...my kids will get involved in it as well.

So that is something I take very seriously just because it is something I have been involved with growing up through high school and college. It is something that I want to do in the future.

Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) expressed the realistic concern of time constraints due to graduate work, but also discussed her long term intentions of making service a family initiative:

It will probably decrease while I am in grad school because I do not anticipate having very much time. But it is something that I think will remain part of my life. It is something my family did not do growing up. But I have seen so many families so service together...and I think that it brings them closer together as a family and it is a really good thing to instill in children from an early age. So I definitely plan on continuing it, especially when I have a family.

Keith's statement regarding family influence in service engagements is consistent with Gimble and Lay's (2006) claim that participatory attitudes are conveyed inter-generationally, but Laura's statement contradicts Fitch's (1991) belief that students influenced by family reported a stronger sense of civic obligation than whose parents were not involved.

Service Over Politics

Ten out of eleven student participants in this study indicated service over politics as their preferred civic engagement behavior. Students favored service because they noted the

immediate difference they made in the community. Barry (Co-Curricular MU) stated, that in his perspective, service comes first. He shared:

I think you make an impact with service more so than you do with politics. With politics, you can say a lot, but never get to that agenda. It's like, what [is] the purpose of saying that? But with service, you actually have the opportunity to make that difference.

Both Michael (Curricular CU) and Keith (Co-Curricular MU) shared the same sentiments, stating they cannot deny the long-term benefits political initiatives may bring, but they both prefer engaging in service opportunities. Keith further expanded his reasoning: "...service initiatives [come] first...because that happens on a local level and it is something that happens like right in the neighborhoods and community, so it is something that is effective and can be put into effect immediately." He went on to explain, "Whereas in the political arena, you have to go through the bureaucrats...to accomplish your goal through legislation, which can take weeks, months, and maybe years. So through volunteerism, you can have an effective change and an effective result immediately."

Both Kim (Curricular CU) and Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) stated they preferred service over politics because of their lack of trust in the political system. Kim noted that service makes sense to her because she can see immediate change. She noted her dismay with the political system, "...it is hard to see hope...when I have not seen a lot of change through politics."

Continuing her personal beliefs about politics and service, Rebecca also shared:

In the political realm...people are too mistrusting of people with reasons for doing things. But on the service level, it is a lot harder to misconstrue intentions. And things seem to be...clear cut and it's easy to say this person or this group of people need winter jackets. Let's do a coat drive and get winter jackets to give to these people. I think it is easier to see the immediate effects of your job.

Rebecca's (Co-Curricular MU) example is consistent with Westheimer and Kane's (2004) description of a participatory citizen as who identifies a problem and taking a proactive approach to address the needs that affects the common good

Both Shawna (Co-Curricular, MU) and Kristy (Curricular, CU) believed that service and politics were associated. Shawna noted that although she preferred service over politics involvement, she revealed that service sometimes lead to the awareness of political issues. Kristy (Curricular CU) also shared the same sentiment: "When you have the service opportunity, you start to see things in a different way and then [you] start looking at politics." She referred to this revelation as a *growth process* that helps the individual develop a level of awareness and a conviction to personal belief in turns of political issues. She provided service examples such as working with conservation / beautification projects or assisting with the elderly and noted there were political implications in all of her examples. Wendy (Administrator, Co-Curricular MU) concurred that when doing service projects in the community, students unintentionally learn about political issues and policies. This data is consistent with the information proposed at the Wingspread Summit (2001) introducing service politics as a third form of civic engagement. The concept proposed a relationship between service and politics where students move from community service to a deeper awareness and appreciation for political engagement.

Holly (Curricular CU) was the only participant who preferred politics over service because she felt many times community service only affected a small group of people. She explained that she when she volunteered her time for projects like Habitat for Humanity; however, her work was only for the family receiving the home. Whereas, if she were a politician, she could address the underlying reasons dealing with economics and housing issues that would benefit a larger group of people and make a greater long-term impact for the

community. Holly's example of pursuing social justice is consistent with Westheimer and Kane's (2004) description of a justice-oriented citizen.

Conclusion

This study explored how student involvement in a leadership program prepared students for responsible citizenship. Using a multi-case study methodology, this study compared two extremely different programs, based on curricular and co-curricular structure. The two programs were discussed in regards to mission, structure, university support and assessment. Three themes in support of the conceptual framework emerged from the data, which include Individual Values, Group Values, and Society/Community Values. A myriad of subthemes were also identified and discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

Analysis and Conclusions

Introduction

This study investigated how student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Using a multi-case approach in the qualitative tradition, this study explored citizenship development through two varying curricular and co-curricular leadership programs at large urban research universities in the south. Eleven student participants were invited to share their experiences from the two extremely different leadership programs and three administrators discussed program overview and structure. Students provided descriptive dialogue that demonstrated not only their varying levels of citizenship development, but also perceptions of their ability to make a difference through civic behavior. This chapter will provide an overview of the study, a discussion of the findings, as well as addresses the research questions that guided this study. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research as well as implications for practice.

Overview of Study

Theorists contend that the primary purpose of leadership training and programs is to develop students to be change agents through acts of responsible citizenry (Astin & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999); however, among college students there have been fluctuating degrees of involvement in civic engagement (Astin et al., 1999; Ehrlich, 2000). The findings of this study affirmed the flux in civic engagement and provided an enlightening exploration into the primary research question that guided this qualitative exploration: How does involvement in a leadership development program prepare students for responsible citizenship?

The secondary research questions were:

1. What are the differences in approaches to citizenship development in a curricular leadership program in comparison to a co-curricular leadership program?
2. What components make up the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
3. What is the purpose / mission of each of the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study?
4. How are the leadership programs assessed?
5. To what degree do student leaders' values contribute to citizenship?
6. To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement?
7. To what degree do students' behaviors contribute to citizenship?
8. To what degree do student leaders feel empowered to create change in their communities?

Discussion of Findings

This study explored how student involvement in a leadership program prepared students for responsible citizenship. Using a multi-case study methodology, this study compared two different programs, based on curricular and co-curricular structure. The two programs were discussed in regards to mission, structure, university support and assessment. Although the two leadership programs studied were vastly different in structure, the programs prepared students for citizenship development by focusing on leadership development and providing opportunities to practice learned skills through community initiatives. By experiencing the group process, students encountered situations that challenged their beliefs and abilities. In turn, these encounters promoted individual growth and development, further enhancing the qualities and

values needed for citizenship development. Student learning and citizenship development also took place through a behavioral display of individual and group values exhibited toward implementing change in the community. Since the majority of the data was collected from students (Individuals) discussing their leadership program (Group), regarding their involvement in the community (Society), the themes emerged and fell in line with the conceptual framework. A myriad of subthemes were also identified and discussed. Within the conceptual framework, the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (HERI, 1996), researchers contended that the individual students, the group in which they belong, and the community they serve have influence on each other. Consistent with previous studies (Dugan, 2006a, 2006b), this study found that these three elements do influence each other.

Individual

Individual represented the student leader involved in the leadership program and described the individual's consciousness of self, congruent behavior, and commitment. While discussing their *Consciousness of Self* (HERI, 1996), students spoke of priorities, personal values, and the influence in formation of values. Students from both programs identified family, academic requirements, involvement responsibilities, and friends as priorities in their lives. For those who listed religion, it superseded all other noted priorities. Although it was apparent that students from both leadership programs had a personal value system (Komives et al., 1998), a majority of participants from both leadership programs had difficulty in articulating their values (Cunningham, 1977; Flanagan, 2003). While discussing their consciousness of self, students also spoke of individuals who influenced their formation of values (Ehrlich, 2000). The data displayed similar results with students from both programs and students identified family, peers, high school counselors, athletic coaches as individuals who had an influence in the formation of their values (Astin, 1984; Ehrlich).

Individual Congruence looked at whether student actions were consistent with their value system (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; HERI, 1996; Rogers, 1980). Congruence as a leader and effects of incongruent behavior emerged from the data. Leading with integrity was important to students from both leadership programs (Komives et al., 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002; Northouse, 2004), however, the curricular students referred to congruent behavior more from an individual stand point and the students from the co-curricular leadership program discussed how individual values and behavior must be also be congruent with group behavior. Students from the curricular leadership program spoke in great detail about the effects of incongruent behavior; however, students from the curricular leadership program also addressed expected leadership standards placed on the by university administration (Toeffler, 1986).

Students from both programs discussed an internal drive that advanced *Individual Commitment*. Students from the co-curricular leadership program expressed an inner drive, or a passion (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002) through individual characteristics and a sense of responsibility to the shared vision of their group; whereas, the students in the curricular leadership program displayed an internal drive related to ambition and personal goals (Howe & Strauss, 2000). The importance of prioritizing was apparent from students in both leadership programs; however, data revealed students from the curricular leadership program were extremely stressed out due to being over-committed (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Group

Group, the second major theme in this study, represented the collective unit of individuals in their leadership program and described collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility in the group setting (HERI, 1996). *Group Collaboration* and the building of relationships and shared vision differed between programs. The students in the curricular program were required to live in the residence hall their first year which allowed a

deeper bond to develop between the students. Students in the co-curricular program were required to attend leadership training conferences and Council retreats, but data revealed a deeper cohesion between the students in the curricular program which allowed for deeper levels of group development (Komives et al., 1998). Students from both programs stressed the importance of shared responsibility in order to reach their group goals and objectives (Chrislip & Larson, 1994, HERI, 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002).

Participants from both leadership programs discussed the *Group Common Purpose* in the form a shared vision (HERI, 1996), however, data revealed varying approaches to shared vision. The students from the co-curricular program passionately expressed the same shared vision for their group (Chrislip & Lasron, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002); however, data revealed the students in the curricular leadership program expressed shared vision as a requirement in order to earn their academic credit.

Due to varying personalities and varying opinions, students from both leadership programs discussed *Group Controversy with Civility* (HERI, 1996). Data revealed the students in the curricular leadership program had far greater dominating personalities than the students in the co-curricular program. The students in the co-curricular program described working through varying opinions through discussion, mediation, and finding common ground (HERI; Avruch & Scimecca, 1991). Students in the curricular program described tumultuous arguments in their first year of the program, but reported learning to work through differences by showing respect for varying opinions (Chrislip & Larson, 1994) and by incorporating skill based training (Bass, 1995; Northouse, 2004; Patrick, 2003) obtained through the leadership program.

Society / Community

The third and final theme to emerge from the data was the concept of *Society/Community*. This theme incorporated citizenship education, political engagement, and service engagement.

In both leadership programs, student participants struggled to articulate their definition of *Citizenship* (Cunningham, 1977). In doing so, all students from the co-curricular leadership program described citizenship from the communitarian view of responsibility to the community (Boyte & Kari, 2000). Students from the curricular program presented varied definitions including the communitarian viewpoint, but also included the discussion of ethics (Perry, 1968) and value clarification. These findings were supported by the current literature of many researchers who agreed that behavior and values were essential to effective citizenship (Erllich, 2000; HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998). A majority of the students from the curricular leadership program associated reflective classroom discussion to their actual service in the community (Cunningham). In comparison, a majority of the students in the co-curricular program did not associate their development as a citizen directly with their training, but rather their overall involvement in extracurricular activities.

Data revealed all students from both programs felt it was important to be politically aware, but most noted they were not *politically engaged* (Wingspread, 2001). Overwhelmingly, students from the curricular leadership program stated their primary reason for political non-involvement was over-commitment (Astin, 1984; Dugan & Komives, 2007). A majority of students from both programs also expressed they did not feel passionate about politics (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002; Verba et al., 1995) and half of the total students articulated a lack of trust for political leaders and the overall political system (Verba et al.). Students from both programs revealed their general perspective that college students devalue their ability to make a difference in the political system. Whereas, some students interviewed expressed no interest in political engagement, data revealed the majority of students from both leadership programs participating in varying forms of political engagement following graduation. Data revealed that participants

from both programs did not feel leadership training prepared them to be politically engaged citizens.

Participants in the study identified with making a difference in society through *Service Engagement*. The majority of students from both leadership programs spoke of their service to the community with a passion (Wingspread, 2001). Through the data, it was not only apparent the students in this study personally felt their service initiatives made a difference within the community, but believed they could be agents of change by increasing awareness of social responsibility. However, student participants did note many college students take part in community service for the purpose of self achievement rather than displaying altruistic motivations (Berger & Milem, 2002; Fitch, 1991; Greenleaf, 1977; Winniford et al., 1995). Participants from both leadership programs discussed how their leadership training prepared them to be active service engaged citizens and expressed their intentions to continue their service involvement following graduation. Participants in this study overwhelmingly acknowledged their preference of service engagement over political engagement; however, some noted involvement in service had enlightened their awareness of political issues (Wingspread)

Primary Research Question

Primary Research Question: How does involvement in a leadership program prepare students for responsible citizenship? Since research regards citizen preparation and training as a central purpose of leadership programs (Astin, & Astin, 2000; Bell, 1994; Freeman et al., 1996; Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart, 1999), it was essential to this study to find out how exactly do leadership programs prepare students to be responsible citizens. Findings in this study showed that involvement in a leadership development program prepared students for responsible citizenship through leadership skill development and individual personal development. These findings support researchers claim that skill development (Kirlin, 2003;

Patrick, 2003; Verba et al., 1995) and student development (Barber, 1992; Mead, 1934, William & Streb, 2001) advance responsible citizenship and the ability create change in the community (HERI, 1996)

Skill Development Advances Behavioral Aspects of Citizenship Development

This section supports the primary leadership question by addressing how the obtainment of skill development through participation in the leadership program advances behavioral aspects of citizenship. Although participants from both leadership programs had a difficult time defining citizenship, their descriptive dialogue portrayed behavioral aspects that illustrated advances in citizenship development. Participants from both programs experienced varying forms of skill based leadership training. Students in the curricular Emerging Leaders program received skill training that was designed for the changing levels of student development with each year of the program. They received skill training through class exercises and discussion, as well as through workshop presentations. The Emerging Leaders were then able to put their skills into practice through organization involvement and class service projects. The students on the co-curricular Leadership Council received training by means of the week long regional leadership training institute. They also put their skills into practice by planning and implementing the leadership and service activities for the university student body.

Through their organization involvement and implementation of service projects, students from both programs behaviorally demonstrated the use of many skills that are considered important civic skills in relation to citizenship development. When planning a project or a community initiative, the students demonstrated the civic skills of assuming responsibilities, accepting challenging tasks, planning strategies, and implementing decisions (Morgan & Streb, 2001). When working in the collaborative group setting, the students described listening to varying opinions, using persuasive speech to clarify their point of view, and finding an amenable

solution through collective decision making (Kirlin, 2006; Patrick, 2003). Students also used civic skills in the form of critical thinking when pondering the needs of the community, exploring options for service projects, and thinking about how their actions can make a difference in the community (Kirlin; Patrick).

Students from both programs provided numerous examples of reaching advanced levels of citizenship behavior as a result of their skill training. Students from the Leadership Council did not describe actions of mere *personally responsible citizens* of dropping off canned goods at a holiday food drive, rather these were the students who were acting as *participatory citizens* by utilizing their skills to help plan the food drive. They advanced to the next level of *justice oriented citizens* when they hosted a Hunger Banquet that brought awareness to world hunger issues based on socio-economic class (Westheimer & Kahne, 2002). Ironically, a majority of the students on the Leadership Council did not attribute their citizenship development to their participation in the leadership program, even though they indirectly described acquiring skills and performing citizenship behaviors.

Student Development Enhances Citizenship Development

This section supports the primary research question by addressing how involvement in the leadership program enhanced student development and prepared students for responsible citizenship. Involvement in leadership programs enhance many facets of student development (Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Foubert & Grainer, 2006; Hernandez et al., 1999; Kuh, 1995; Martin, 2000; Pacarella & Terenzini, 1991; Terenzini, 1996), and provide the basis for citizenship development (Barber, 1992; Colby et al., 2000; Mead, 1934; Verba et al., 1995; Youniss & Yates, 1999). In this study, participants provided evidence that citizenship was not only fundamentally tied to psychosocial development, but students also cultivated deeper levels of moral development as they critically reflected on civic issues in the community (Barber, 1992;

Colby et al., 2000; Mead, 1934). All students participating in the study demonstrated advances in individual growth and development through means of their participation in the leadership program; however, data illustrated more opportunity for student development for participants in the Emerging Leaders program. This was attributed to the class component as well as the duration of the program. This does not conclude that students in the Emerging Leadership program will be better citizens in the community, it only affords the opportunity for further citizenship development through the curricular program.

Student Psychosocial Development

Students experienced many of the interacting vectors of identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1969; 1993) as they became involved in curricular and extracurricular campus involvement. Specifically, the participants provided examples of developing competency and learning how to manage their emotions, as well as the development of individual purpose while learning how to lead with integrity.

Developing competency. Students encountered both interpersonal and intellectual competence in this study (Chickering & Reisser, 1969, 1993). Students from both leadership programs described the following civic skills: working with people, planning events, organizing projects, communicating with others, and making decisions. Students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program also described developing their intellectual competence through their academic class component. The Emerging Leaders described class discussions that not only challenged their intellectual reasoning, but also helped them to delve into more profound levels of critical thinking.

Managing emotions. Although all participants spoke of how their group managed conflict to varying degrees, the participants from the Emerging Leaders program described emotional disagreements when discussing class projects. Interpersonal competency as well as

reflective critical thinking brought the students in the Emerging Leaders program to new levels of development. In an interpersonal manner, the students learned to control their emotions and communicate thoughts in an amenable manner (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Their tumultuous beginning of emotional disputes led to a journey of self-discovery. According to researchers, individuals who are able to manage their emotions, achieve compromise, and solve problems when conflict occurs illustrate citizenship abilities (Kirlin, 2002, 2003, 2006; Patrick, 2003)

Development of self concept & purpose. Students from both programs spoke in detail of their self concept by discussing priorities, personal values, and the influencing individuals in the formation of those values (Ehrlich, 2000). Although it was apparent that students had established varying degrees of an individual value system, data supported Cunningham's (1977) notion that students struggle with value clarification. Kristy (Curricular CU) substantiated this claim when she quietly commented, "I love the word *values*, but I always get confused as what to say." Many students expressed the same sentiments, but also described how an appreciation for others' values helped them either to reinforce or reevaluate their own beliefs.

Developing integrity. Although core value formation and development of self concept was described as a growth process starting in childhood, many of the student participants discussed how participation in the leadership program helped them to behaviorally lead with integrity (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002). Congruent behavior aligned with self concept helped to facilitate the students' decisions to act in a manner that complimented leadership values (Komives et al, 1998). As part of the program expectations, Emerging Leaders were held to higher leadership standards (Burns, 1978; Northhouse, 2004). The students displayed an internal commitment which served as a motivation to act upon causes and beliefs congruent with their values. This commitment and passion empowered them to believe they can create change in their community; ergo, developing civic identity and a sense of social responsibility (Barber, 1992).

Intellectual and Ethical Development

Many Emerging Leaders spoke of moments when their beliefs or values were challenged through experiences brought on by the leadership program (HERI, 1996). Sometimes their current thought structure was challenged during a classroom discussion as in the case of Kristy's (Curricular CU) reflection about the ethical balance between leadership and power. Or sometimes, students were challenged during a discussion with peers (Chrislip & Larson, 1994), such as Kate (Curricular CU) who described a moment of profound enlightenment when engaged in a heated debate with a peer in the leadership program. These and other students in the study experienced intellectual and ethical development through deeper levels of critical thinking (Perry, 1968).

Moral Development

Students from both programs displayed moral development (Kohlberg, 1981) through their involvement in the leadership program. There was evidence that the participants encountered moral advancement as their levels of involvement in community initiatives increased (Ehrlich, 2000; Youniss & Yates, 1999). As they morally reflected on community issues through critical thinking, they became more aware of social responsibilities and students began to form a civic identity that would either advance or deter commitment to service and political engagement in the community (Barber, 1992; Colby et al, 2000; William & Streb, 2001). For example, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) claimed involvement in the Leadership Council raised her level of personal awareness of societal issues and provided her foresight as to how to continue her involvement in the community after she graduates. Natalie (Curricular CU) shared how their class discussions of community need and experiential training challenged her to morally evaluate her perspective on social responsibility and civic engagement (Youniss & Yates).

Secondary Research Questions

The following sections address the secondary research questions posed in this study.

Whereas the majority of the questions can be answered individually, other questions intertwine and overlap in content. It is for this reason, some questions are grouped. The first four questions address the leadership program. The remaining questions explore student perception of value, behavior, and the ability to create change in their community.

Program Approaches to Citizenship Development

Question One: What are the differences in approaches to citizenship development in a curricular leadership program in comparison to a co-curricular leadership program? Question Two: What components make s up the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs in this study? Question Three: What is the purpose of the curricular and co-curricular programs in this study?

Curricular Leadership Program

Although the curricular Emerging Leaders program and co-curricular Leadership Council explored in this study were vastly different in structure and duration, researchers are mindful to the fact that there is no single ideal course or leadership program (Boatman, 1999; Roberts, 1997). The Emerging Leaders program was a four year curricular based leadership program that was consistent with McIntire's (1989) description of an academic-focused model that was a combination of academic and co-curricular opportunities. Specifically addressing secondary question three, the core components of this program include academic course work, participation in student organization, participation in workshops and speaker programs, community service initiatives and reflection papers. Students were also required to live on Leadership Learning floors in the residence hall their freshman year. Specifically addressing secondary research question number three, the mission of the Emerging Leaders program focused on *training*

tomorrow's leaders today by developing leaders, developing a sense of community, and developing leadership skills. The program concentrated on enhancing leadership skills, fostering ethical and moral development and instilling social awareness and responsibility. The program also focused on developing a sense of community within the Emerging Leaders as a group by serving not only their own university, but also the urban community around them through community projects.

Co-Curricular Program

The Leadership Council at Metropolitan University (MU) was a co-curricular leadership program what was classified as a student organization within the Office of Student Involvement. This leadership program structure is consistent with McIntire's (1989) description as one of the most traditional co-curricular student affairs models that focuses on the development of the student leader within the campus activities and student organization setting. Addressing the third secondary research question, the Council components consisted of membership, committees, and leadership training. Two student Chairs served in what was described as president positions, and the Executive Board consisted of thirteen other students. All Executive Board members participated in a one-week regional leadership training institute during the summer. Addressing the secondary research question number two, in fulfillment of the leadership program mission, the Leadership Council promoted leadership development and involvement to the university community by hosting leadership activities and service related opportunities for the entire student body.

Post-Industrial Paradigm of Leadership

Both leadership programs were housed within student affairs and had administration assigned to oversee and advise the program; however, their roles differed due to the varying structure of the programs (McIntire, 1989). Both programs also embodied the Post-Industrial

paradigm of leadership in that they focused in student development through a group process, addressed shared goals, and addressed higher level needs for a greater good in a value-laden developmental process (Bass, 1995; Burns 1978; Yukl, 1989). The programs were relational, empowering, and focused on team effort (Komives et al., 1998; Northouse, 2004). There were varying levels of engagement in the reflective process that allowed members to celebrate successes and learn from failures in a supportive inclusive environment. Each program had sound philosophical basis and was goal oriented in their leadership efforts (Gregory & Britt, 1987).

Citizenship Education

As discussed in the primary research question, both leadership programs used skill development in varying forms (Kirlin, 2006; Morgan & Streb, 2001, & Patrick, 2003) and fostered personal development (Cooper et al., 1994; Foubert & Grainer, 2006; Hernandez et al. 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). When asked to discuss if and how participation in the leadership programs prepared them for active citizenship, students from both leadership programs did report the benefits of personal development and skill development to varying degrees. The students from the curricular Emerging Leaders program reported linking reflective classroom discussion to their actual service in the community. Interestingly enough, the descriptive dialogue described students receiving various forms of citizenship development, the students from the co-curricular Emerging Leaders program did not associate their development as a citizen directly with their training on the Council.

It should be noted that although all participants from both leadership programs were able to discuss the concept of citizenship to varying degrees, over half of them struggled with their thoughts, paused for long periods of time, asked for clarification, and noted the difficulty of the question. After taking a moment to collect their thoughts, all of the participants from the co-

curricular Leadership Council approached citizenship from a communitarian viewpoint (Boyte & Kari, 2000) and spoke of membership in the community, as well as a shared responsibility toward the community. The responses from the co-curricular student participants on the Leadership Council were very similar in the fact that all spoke of making a difference in the community; however, when asked the same question, answers varied from the curricular program participants. Some of the Emerging Leaders also incorporated ethics and values in their discussion of citizenship. The students' responses are supported by the current literature of many researchers who agreed that behavior and values were essential to effective citizenship (Erllich, 2000; HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 1998).

Program Evaluation and Student Outcomes Assessment

Question #4: How are the leadership programs assessed? In regards to the fourth secondary research question, both the curricular and co-curricular leadership programs met the minimum criteria as set forth in the latest version of CAS Standards (2006); however, assessment and evaluation was underutilized in both programs. The Emerging Leaders program used learning outcomes to guide the program in student learning. Student portfolios and reflection papers were used as assessment to gauge both cognitive and affective learning; however, administrators did little to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the leadership program. In comparison, the Leadership Council evaluated each program and conducted exit interviews with each of the executive members at the end of their term; however, no formal evaluation was conducted on the effectiveness of the co-curricular program. As a co-curricular organization, the Leadership Council did not have formal written learning outcomes for the students, but described the importance of understanding the mission and applying what they learned through training. According to current literature, these are two of the lowest levels of cognitive learning outcomes (Anderson, Krathwohl, Airasian, Cruikshank, Mayer, Pintrich, Rath, & Wittrock, 2001).

Individual and Group Values Contribute to Citizenship

Question #5: To what degree do student leaders' values contribute to citizenship

development? Scholars contend that the foundation of a value system is the fundamental part of character development (Komives et al., 1998) and that value clarification is an essential element of citizenship development (Cunningham, 1977). Although some students struggled in articulating their values, descriptive dialogue collected throughout the study illustrated the actuality of their core beliefs and their value system displayed by their behavioral civic engagement in the community. Unfortunately, confusion over values did, at times, present barriers to civic progress, particularly when groups decided not to participate in particular community initiatives due to an individual's strong influence of their own person values (Cunningham; Flanagan, 2003). This section will address the relationship between individual and group values and examines how this relationship contributes to citizenship.

Individual and Group Values

Throughout the study students spoke of personal beliefs and values that comprised their individual consciousness of self (HERI, 1996). Participants spoke in depth regarding the importance of congruence and making sure that actions were representative of values (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Rogers, 1980). This may be attributed to the participant classification criteria. Students were all junior and seniors who would typically be at a higher level of student development compared to a freshman or sophomore. Data reported that an individual value consistent with the majority of participants was leading with integrity (Burns, 1978; Komives et al., 1998; Yukl, 1989). Some attributed this value to their leadership training; however, the majority of participants spoke of a passion that came from within (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002). Consistent with many studies, this internal motivation advanced individual commitment and determined the amount of time and energy put forth in a chosen endeavor

(Astin, 1984). The passion and internal drive could be associated with Millennial characteristics of reaching high expectations placed on them at an early age by influencing individuals (Howe & Strauss, 2000). For example, Kate (Curricular CU) spoke of her mother always raising the bar of expected achievement. In turn, she adopted those ambitious beliefs as part of her own individual value system. Similarly the majority of participants spoke about high levels of internal driven ambition to varying causes and beliefs. However, his type of passion proves to have damaging repercussions when students do not find proper balance (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

In regards to the group environment, students came into the leadership program with personal qualities and their own set of established core values (HERI, 1996). Since post-industrial leadership development programs are relational and process-oriented (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Komives, et al., 1998), students described vast amounts of interaction and collaboration (Kouzes & Posner, 1987; 2002) in order to reach a shared vision (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Although the Leadership Council and the Emerging Leaders program were different in nature, both groups had to come together in a collaborative manner and propose group community service projects that not only met the common goals of the group, but were also congruent with their own values. Consciousness of self was important because in order for the collaborative process to be work, students had to understand their abilities, their individual limitations, and be able to provide personal opinion (HERI, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1997, 2002). Many of these discussions revolved around projects based on discussion and feedback; therefore, students had to understand their own value system in order to provide input.

When discussing options for community service projects in a group setting, controversy rose at times with the Leadership Council, but the collaborative process allowed individuals to assist the group in order to solve the problem in a civil manner (Avruch & Scimecca, 1991). The Emerging Leaders on the other hand were very passionate about their own opinions and the

community services they wanted as the group project. They described a turbulent first year together. Once they stopped fighting and started listening to each other, they were able to communicate in a collaborative manner (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Through this process, students described how they, as individuals, learned from each other and the group experience. Although the Leadership Council described a stronger common shared vision when working on community service projects compared to the Emerging Leaders, who sometimes portrayed a required shared vision due to grade requirements, participants described a process of deepening and reevaluating personal values based on group experience. The participants used their talents and values to assist the group, but in the process, they as individual were also affected by the relationship with the group. Once group values were established, they were able to take their efforts into the community.

Individual and Community

In addition to the interactions between the individual and the group, participants in this study also depicted a relationship between the individual and the community. This supports Neururer's (1998) that "community service serves as a vehicle for connecting students to their communities and the larger social good, while at the same time instilling values of community and social responsibility" (p. 323). By describing the vast amount of differing service initiatives, the students in the leadership programs illustrated how it made them feel when they saw the community benefitting from the direct effect of their act of citizenry. Interestingly, even though the majority of the students struggled with defining the concept of citizenship, data indicated the most significant growth in regards to citizenship development took place on the individual level (HERI, 1996). Some participants spoke of a deeper awareness of civic issues in the community. Others spoke of reflection and reevaluating values as they encountered enhanced moral advancement during the development of their civic identity (Mead, 1934; Nasir & Kirshner,

2003). Researchers contend the development of moral and civic identity is based on the individual's value system. These values impart a sense of purpose, and a willingness to commit to social and political awareness in the community (Colby et al., 2000; Verba et al., 1995; Youniss & Yates, 1999).

Influences of Group Involvement in Civic Engagement

Question #6: To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement? There was an active relationship between the group and the community during the implementation of service engagement initiatives (HERI, 1996). The participants described brainstorming initiatives in a collaborative manner and discussed which forms of service were important to their mutual interests and goals (Komives et al., 1998). By having reflective discussions, the group provided the opportunity for the individual to gain a deeper understanding for their personal feeling regarding social responsibility. Then in a collaborative manner, the group implemented the initiative in the community and actively participated in a form of civic engagement. Through this process, the act of engagement reinforced the values associated with citizenship development. The group was able to make a difference in the community, but the group as a whole was also affected by the experience of implementing the activity and the feedback from the recipients of the service (HERI, 1996). These findings are consistent with the research of Astin (1994) and Torney-Purta (2006) who stated peer influence had a significant effect on motivating students to participate in civic engagement.

Participants described both positive and negative experiences which impacted group morale and cohesion. For instance, Laura (Co-Curricular MU) shared what she called a negative volunteer experience for the group because of logistical problems with directions arriving to the service site. Although the group itself endured a bad volunteer experience, the incident did not deter the Leadership Council from continuing with their shared vision in planning future service

activities. Whereas Laura described a negative group experience, Rebecca (Co-Curricular MU) shared many positive examples of how the activities instilled a sense of group cohesion as they formed deeper friendships as well as a sense of group accomplishment. Students from the Emerging Leaders recalled how some students displayed poor attitudes and were only participating to fulfill program requirements. Both Michael (Curricular CU) and Kate (Curricular CU) commented on the effects of group morale when people participated in civic engagement for the wrong reasons (Boyer, 1987; Friedman & Morimoto, 2006; Serro, 1991). Data revealed that group values did encourage involvement in the service side of civic engagement, but no participants reported participating in political engagement in a group setting.

Creating Change through Behavior

Question #7: To what degree does group involvement encourage political or community service engagement? Question 8: To what degree do student leaders feel empowered to create change in their community? Researchers contend that leadership programs encourage students to address higher-level needs for the greater good (Bass, 1985; HERI, 1986; Komives et al., 1998) and that through participation in these programs students develop the ability to become *agents of change* with the confidence to make a difference in their community (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002; Northouse, 2004). In this study, findings indicated that although students felt empowered to make a create change in the community through the behavior form of service (Neururer, 1998; Wingspread, 2001), the majority of students lack the interest and the confidence to participate in the behavioral form of political engagement (Mutz, 2006; Wingspread).

Behavior Form of Political Engagement

Considering this generation was to bring an increased level of optimism to public life (Howe & Strauss, 2000), the majority of the participants in this study would unfortunately either be classified as *apathetic* or *spectators* when describing their category of political participation

(Milbrath, 1965). All student participants expressed the importance of the political system; however, the majority of students admitted to very little or no behavioral involvement in political engagement either as individuals or in a group setting. The data presented three reasons for not engaging in political activity: time constraints (Astin, 1999), lack of interest in politics, and lack of trust in the political system (Wingspread, 2001).

The issue of individual commitment (HERI, 1996) was discussed many times throughout the data collection process. Student leaders had a tendency to over-commit themselves when they were passionate about an issue that aligned with their interest, values, and personal beliefs (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Data from this study concluded that since students were not passionate about politics, they were therefore not re-evaluating their commitments to allow for the possibility of introducing political engagement into their current schedules. Additionally, some students stated they did not engage in political conversation because it brought on conflict with friends. This association of political discussion and conflict is consistent with the research of Mutz (2006), who purported Millennial students were taught as children to not engage in conflict. The lack of passion may also be directed to the third reason the participants provided for reasons for non-engagement: lack of trust. A majority of the students expressed feelings of distrust in the political system. Students described politics as *biased* and *messed up*. Politicians were characterized as crooks and ineffective leaders (Wingspread, 2001).

Although many researchers agree that leadership programs should prepare students to be responsible citizens able to implement change in their communities through varying acts of civic engagement (Bell, 1994; Ehrlich, 2000; Freeman et al., 1996; Roberts & Ullom, 1989; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart, 1999), all student participants stated that neither the curricular nor the co-curricular leadership program sufficiently prepared them for political engagement. Whereas, some students expressed the ability to become politically involved at some point in

their lives, others did not know how to transfer their leadership ability and skill development to political initiatives in the community (Kirlin, 2003; Partrick, 2003; Verba et al., 1995). Students from the curricular program wished more class time was devoted to political discussions and exploring more options for political engagement rather than just casually talking about the importance of voting or volunteering for a campaign (Westheimer, 2006). Other students stated they had the ability to make a difference, but had no interest in pursuing an active life in politics because of their distrust for the system (Wingspread, 2001). The majority of students hoped to become more informed and involved in political issues after they graduate from college.

Behavioral Form of Service Engagement

Findings from this study correlate with the studies which noted students not only display a positive attitude toward service engagement (Wingspread, 2001), but also dedicated sufficient time and energy to their favorite service causes (Astin, 1984; HERI, 2005). Results from this study also reveal that participants expressed the confidence and ability to create change in their communities and their levels of service engagement increased while participating in leadership programs. The descriptive dialogue provided myriad examples of how students implemented projects to fit the needs of the community. Participants from both leadership programs stated the preference of working in a group setting because of the teambuilding and cohesion aspect; however, students noted their ability in volunteering on an individual basis as well. From a long term perspective, their ease and comfortableness in volunteering as an individual will facilitate their participation in service initiatives after they are no longer part of the leadership group setting.

Indicating their level of individual commitment, the students spoke of service with great passion and discussed the rewarding experiences of making a difference in people's lives. Their comments of selfless service indicated altruistic motivations for their civic engagement and

characterized a favorable value-driven sense of social responsibility (Fitch, 1991); however, consistent with many researchers findings (Friedman & Morimoto, 2006; Serrow; 1991), the participants spoke of their concerns that many college students conduct service for self-serving reasons. It was apparent in this study that some students described helping the community; however, made their statement with undertones of egoistic motivation (Boyer, 1987). For instance, when Shawna stated that although she initiated change in the community through her service event, she still received the attention she desired and that she felt “like a rockstar”. Students also spoke of resume padding (Friedman & Morimoto). These findings are also consistent with researchers’ beliefs that some students of today are more concerned about what they gained out of the volunteer experience rather than whom they helped (Astin, 1999; Winniford et al., 1995).

Regardless of their motivation, consistent with current research (HERI, 2005), it is evident from the collected data that students felt empowered to make a difference and create change on different levels in the community. Students initially described how the service initiatives helped the community on a very broad level. Neighborhood parks were cleaned, food was served at homeless shelters, and children were tutored after school. However, the students reached deeper levels of citizenship development when they began promote a sense of empowerment in the individuals receiving the service. For instance, Kristy (Curricular CU) spoke of instilling a sense of ownership and responsibility, so that community neighbors would continue to keep the park clean. Kate (Curricular CU) empowered the children she tutored and instilled in them the confidence to excel in their schoolwork so they too can one day attend college. The data illustrated how an individual’s decision to act can influence continuous change in people’s lives and in the community (HERI, 1996).

Findings in this study correlate with research (Kahne, 2006; Wingspread, 2001) that indicates students prefer empowering change in the community through behavioral acts of service rather than political engagement. Even though nine out of ten students reported their preference to service over politics, some students noted their involvement in service initiatives woke them out of their political malaise as they began to understand the relationship between service and politics (Wingspread). All participants reported their intentions of continuing their service engagement following college; however, some students noted the level of commitment may fluctuate during graduate school. Many students viewed their future service involvement as a way of life and others looked forward to empowering their children to one day be agents of change in the community through acts of service (Gimble & Lay, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; 2002; Winniford et al., 1995).

Implications for Future Research

Leadership programs are fundamentally designed to provide students with citizenship development (Astin & Astin, 2002; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999) and researchers contend citizenry incorporates civic engagement in the forms of service and political behavior (Ehrlich, 2000, Wingspread, 2001). However, data from this study indicated neither of the two leadership programs thoroughly incorporated value clarification or skill development in relation to political citizenry. Future research could explore if and how leadership programs approach political aspects of citizenship development. This could provide future insight relative to structure and design of leadership programs. A quantitative design could provide useful in initial research, followed up by subsequent qualitative research to gain administrator perspective. Future research could also delve deeper into student perspective on politics. Theorist contend that caring is a significant contributor to citizenship development (Neururer, 1998), yet the data from this study illustrated that most student leaders showed little interest in the political aspect of

citizenship. Research findings concerning student perception on politics could better inform administrators in policy, practice and leadership program design.

Implications for Practice

This study generated numerous implications for practice which are discussed in this section. These recommendations address approaches to citizenship development, political engagement, the need for more reflective discussion, discouraging student over-involvement, and the importance of assessment. Although one recommendation specifically calls to co-curricular programs, administrators of curricular programs could also benefit from the suggestion.

Approaches to Citizenship Development

Administrators who oversee leadership programs should be mindful of how they approach citizenship development with their students. Citizenship development should be an ongoing effort intermingled and entwined in all aspects of the leadership program. Discussions and interactive sessions can help students not only assist with personal value clarification, but can also help them clarify how the relationship between values, ethics, and morals can assist in the effort of leading with integrity. Students not only need to learn how to develop their skills, but also understand how those skills can be transferred to an active civic life.

The Political Aspect of Citizenship Development

Learning outcomes in leadership programs should focus more on the political aspect of citizenship. Administrators should conduct discussions where students can reflect upon and evaluate their political beliefs and values. Workshops or classroom discussions could be dedicated to actively showing students how to transfer their leadership skills to political engagement. Administrators could take innovative approaches to political development rather than suggesting the conventional voter registration drives or participation in political campaigns.

In an effort to engage students in political discourse, administrators could demonstrate the relationship between service and politics through interactive discussions or training sessions.

Administrators should not discourage student groups from participating in political activity in the community because they fear community repercussions toward the university itself. Administrators should train their student leaders on how to positively make a political stand in community issues rather than deterring political involvement. Training that incorporates discussion and critical thinking will enhance students' value clarification. If students lead with integrity while implementing service activities, then administrators should have confidence in that their students' behavior will reflect that same congruence when engaging in political behavior.

More Reflective Discussion in Co-Curricular Programs

Co-curricular leadership programs should incorporate more discussion and reflection into the program design. This could be challenging because co-curricular programs differ to fit institutional needs. However, administrators could be creative in how they approach the reflective component of critical thinking. When participating in organizations, weekend leadership retreats, or outdoor teambuilding activities, students sometimes become caught up in the enjoyment of the involvement and do not reflect upon what they learned by participating in the activity. Administrators should establish learning outcomes for all leadership activities and engage students in reflective dialogue to allow for student development on myriad levels.

Discourage Over-Involvement

In a generation characterized by overachievers who either place high expectations on themselves or feel the competitive pressure from peers (Howe & Strauss, 2000), administrators should be mindful of the amount of activity in a student's involvement. Although involvement in extracurricular activities contributes to personal growth and development, administrators

should discourage students from being over-involved. Administrators should provide opportunities to help students find balance in their academic and extra-curricular endeavors by helping them determine priorities and set involvement goals. This recommendation is consistent with recent literature that addressed leadership capacity in college students (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Students have a tendency to take on too much responsibility and convince themselves and others that they have everything under control. Due to the following reason, a proactive means of preparing students for a healthy balance of involvement should take place during the early stages of leadership training. Administrators should also be watchful for verbal or behavioral warning signs indicating extreme stress and should be prepared to discuss the situation with the student. Advisors should establish a good relationship with counseling services on campus and know when to make a referral for stress management counseling.

The Importance of Evaluation and Assessment

Student Affairs administrators need to conduct both program evaluation and student assessment in their leadership programs. Program evaluation specifically explores the factors that contribute to the structure and implementation of the program itself; whereas, assessment investigates student learning as an outcome of participating in the leadership program (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). In regards to evaluation, surveys and focus groups can be an effective technique in exploring student perception of the design and implementation of the program. CAS standards can also provide a comprehensive evaluation for leadership programs and provide examples of achievement indicators that coincide with necessary accreditation assessment techniques (CAS, 2006).

There are also many different types of assessment administrators can utilize when addressing student learning outcomes. Administrators who oversee multi-year leadership

programs can implement capstone experiences in their student learning outcomes assessment. Capstone experiences culminate the knowledge acquired through the program where students demonstrate the ability to link theory and practical application in preparation for life after college (Kerka, 2001). Assessment tools and strategies commonly used in capstone experiences include portfolios, research papers, reflective journals, service learning projects, comprehensive program exams, and peer assessment (Durel, 1993; Greenberg, 2002, Kerka, 2001). Administrators can also utilize leadership development instruments that track student behavior and attitude. Two such instruments are the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) designed by Kouzes and Posner (2005) as well as the Student Development Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999).

Administrators should select the most appropriate form of assessment that will provide the type of data needed; however, student outcomes assessment should focus on both cognitive and affective learning. Cognitive learning addresses the development of intellectual abilities and affective learning addresses students' skills in understanding their own feelings, emotions, values, and interests. This recommendation is consistent with current literature that explores assessment practices (Anderson et al., 2001; Green et al., 2008).

Overall, the assessment and evaluation data collected would not only be beneficial in evaluating program design and student learning, but can also be used in advancing institutional effectiveness. If assessment shows accomplishment of intended outcomes, then administrators can use the data to highlight the leadership program to upper administration. Data that illustrates a lack of resources needed for the program to successfully operate provides reasoning for additional funding requests.

Self Focused Motivators

Many researchers discuss student self motivations for civic behavior in terms of individualism and egocentrism (Astin et al., 1999; Baston, 1991; Berger & Milem, 2002; Boyer, 1987; Fitch, 1991; Friedman & Morimoto, 2006). Rather than viewing these motivations as negative, administrators should note how environmental characteristics mold individual student behavior. If Millennial students were raised to be ambitious (Howe & Strauss, 2000), then students will always look for self-improvement opportunities. By acknowledging these motivations rather than condemning them, there are implications for administrators to help students not only better understand their own motivations, but also help redirect civic behavior as a positive aspect of citizenship development.

Conclusion

As indicated in the findings of this study, students who participated in leadership programs received citizenship development through varying degrees of self discovery and skill development in a group environment. Although students felt empowered to make a difference in the community through the civic behavior of service, they did not feel the same level of commitment to the political aspect of civic engagement. This study provided insight as to how to enhance the leadership and citizenship development of students participating in leadership programs. Findings from this research can be utilized by administration to strengthen design and learning objectives in citizenship program components, thus, advancing opportunities for students to become agents of change in the community.

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP,
COUNSELING AND FOUNDATIONS

Appendix A

Sample E-mail to the University Gatekeeper

[DATE]

Dr. Gatekeeper
Dean of Student Affairs
Urban University
2100 Campus Drive
City, State, 00000

Dear Dr. Gatekeeper,

My name is Pam Rault and I am conducting a doctoral pre-dissertation on how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this case study will investigate contrasting leadership programs from a curricular and co-curricular stance and explore citizenship development. I have selected Urban University as one of my research sites in order to explore the Emerging Leaders program.

Since this is a case study, I am in need of various forms of data collection that include document review and interviews. Since document review enhances a case study, any documentation regarding the Emerging Leaders program (history, mission statement, program structure, training manuals, etc.) would be extremely helpful in my data collection process.

I also request permission to conduct 60-minute, on-on-one interviews with students. It is my intention to interview five students with the following criteria: current participant in the Emerging Leader Program; junior or senior level status; current or past officer in an officially recognized campus organization. I would like to request a listing of students who fit the desired criteria. This list would include the students' name, phone number, and email address. Students will be contacted via email with subsequent follow-up telephone calls if necessary. I will explain the project to the student and request their participation in this study. The interview will take place on the Urban University Campus, preferably in a Campus Union meeting room.

In order to fully comprehend the leadership program from all aspects, I also request permission to conduct a 60 minute interview with the administrator who oversees the program. If you are

not the program administrator, I also ask for guidance in contacting the person who oversees the leadership program.

Within the week, I will contact you and determine your institutions participation in this study. I welcome the opportunity to discuss my research interests and the scope of my study with you. Please do not hesitate to contact me via email or call at (504) 432-0191. You may also contact my major professor, Dr. Marietta Del Favero. She can be reached at (504) 280-6446 or via email at mdelfave@uno.edu.

Thank you for your consideration.

Pam V. Rault
Ph.D. Candidate

Appendix B

Sample Phone Script to University Gatekeeper

Hello, may I speak with Dr. Gatekeeper.

Hello, Dr. Gatekeeper. My name is Pam Rault and I am a doctoral student at the University of New Orleans. I sent you an email last week requesting permission to conduct a case study on [name of leadership program]. Did you receive this email? I was wondering if I may take a moment of your time to discuss the feasibility of this study on your campus.

Do you think it is feasible for me to conduct this study on your campus?

Great.

My main forms of data collection will come in the forms of document review and interviews. In regards to document review, will you be able to provide me with information regarding your leadership program (history, mission statement, program structure, training manuals, pictures, etc.)?

I also request permission to conduct 60 minute on-on-one interviews with students who fit the criteria detailed in the email as well as the administrators who oversee the leadership program. Do you foresee any problems with this request? Is this information that you can email or mail me? When do you think you would be able to send this information?

Would you be able to provide me with a listing of students who fit the desired criteria? The list would need to include the students' name, phone number and email address. Is this feasible?

I would like to conduct the interviews at a location on campus, preferably a room in the building where your offices are located or a location that is accommodating to the students. Can you recommend such a place? What are the proper procedures to reserve this room?

Do you have any questions for me regarding this study?

Thank you for your time.

Appendix C

Email to Leadership Program Administrator – If different than Gatekeeper

Dear Administrator,

My name is Pam Rault and I am conducting a doctoral pre-dissertation on how and to what degree student involvement in a leadership program prepares students for responsible citizenship. Specifically, this case study will investigate contrasting leadership programs from a curricular and co-curricular stance and explore citizenship development. I have selected Urban University as one of my research sites in order to explore the (name of Leadership Program). I have corresponded with Dr. Gatekeeper and he/she has approved this study to take place at Urban University.

Since this is a case study, I am in need of various forms of data collection that include document review and interviews. Since document review enhances a case study, any documentation regarding the leaders program (history, mission statement, program structure, training manuals, etc.) would be extremely helpful in my data collection process.

Dr. Gatekeeper has also granted me approval to conduct 60-minute, on-on-one interviews with students and the administrators who oversee the Leadership Program. It is my intention to interview five students with the following criteria: current participant in the Leader Program; junior or senior level status; current or past officer in an officially recognized campus organization. Dr. Gatekeeper stated that you could email me a listing of students who fit the desired criteria. This list would include the students' name, phone number, and email address. Students will be contacted via email with subsequent follow-up telephone calls if necessary. I will explain the project to the student and request their participation in this study. The interview will take place on the Urban University campus, preferably in a Campus Union meeting room. I look forward to receiving the list so that I may start contacting potential participants.

Speaking with the administrators who directly oversee the program will be greatly beneficial in this study. Within in your email, please indicate a good date and time that you are available for an interview. I will then follow-up with confirmation.

Although Dr. Gatekeeper has authorized this study to take place, please know that participation in this study is voluntary. If you have concerns, I ask you to speak with Dr. Gatekeeper about university participation. Please do not hesitate to contact me via email or call at (504) 432-0191. You may also contact my major professor, Dr. Marietta Del Favero. She can be reached at (504) 280-6446 or via email at mdelfave@uno.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Pam V. Rault
Ph.D. Candidate
University of New Orleans

Appendix D

Email to Potential Study Candidates

Dear Potential Candidate,

My name is Pam Rault. I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at the University of New Orleans. I am conducting a case study on the Emerging Leaders Program at the Urban University. Specifically, I am investigating how a leadership development programs prepare students for responsible citizenship. (Name of Administrator) referred you as a potential candidate.

I am writing to ask if you would be interested in participating in this study. Participation includes a 60-minute interview on the Urban University campus. I may contact you with a follow-up question or ask to clarify the interview transcript. All participants' names and the name of the university will be kept confidential. Participation is entirely voluntary and the individual may decline or withdraw at any time. The consent form is included in this email.

Please email me a response and indicate if you are interested in participating in this study. If I do not hear from you within the week, I will place a follow-up call you on the number Dr. Gatekeeper provided. I encourage you to confirm the legitimacy of this email request with Dr. Gatekeeper should you question its validity. Please contact me with any questions regarding this study or your possible participation. You can contact me via email or at 504-432-0191. You may also contact my major professor, Dr. Marietta Del Favero. She can be reached at (504) 280-6446 or via email at mdelfave@uno.edu.

Thank you for your consideration.

Pam V. Rault
Ph.D. Candidate
University of New Orleans



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP,
COUNSELING AND FOUNDATIONS

Appendix E

Consent Form

1. Title of Research Study

Preparing Students to be Agents of Social Change: Leadership Programs and Citizenship Development

2. Project Director

Pam Vrana Rault, Doctoral Student
Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Foundations
University of New Orleans
pkvrana@uno.edu, (504) 432-0191

In partial fulfillment of dissertation under the supervision of
Marietta Del Favero, Ph.D., Assistant Professor
Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Foundations
University of New Orleans
New Orleans, LA 70148
mdelfave@uno.edu
(504) 280-6446

3. Purpose of the Research Study

The purpose of this study is to explore how and to what degree does involvement in a leadership program prepare students for responsible citizenship.

4. Potential Risks or Discomforts

It is not anticipated that this study will pose any risks to the participants. Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from this study at any time.

5. Potential benefits

This project will not provide any direct benefits to you, as a participant, but will be used as further research to assist in the leadership development of involved students.

6. Alternative procedures

There are no alternative procedures. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you may withdraw consent and terminate participation at any time without consequence.

7. Protection of Confidentiality

The information gathered will be strictly confidential. No identifying information will be provided. Consent forms with names of participants, audiotapes, and transcripts will be kept in a file cabinet of which only the researcher has the key. Consent forms, audiotapes, and transcripts will be destroyed in one (1) year.

8. Signatures and Consent to Participate

Federal and University of New Orleans guidelines require that we obtain signed consent for the conduct of social research and participation in research projects, which involve human subjects. After this study's purpose, procedures, potential risks/discomforts, and benefits have been explained to you, please indicate your consent by reading and signing the statement below.

I have been fully informed of the above-described procedure with its possible benefits and risks, and I have given my permission to participate in this study.

Signature of Participant Date

Name of Participant (print)

Signature of Project Director Date

Name of Project Director (print)

Appendix F

Follow-up call to Participants who did not Respond to Email

Hello. My name is Pam Rault, and I am a doctoral student at the University of New Orleans. I am conducting a case study on the Emerging Leaders Program at Urban University and I obtained your contact information from Dr. Gatekeeper.

I sent you an email last week explaining my study and asking for your participation; however, knowing that the delivery of emails are unpredictable at times, I thought I would make a follow-up call. Do you recall receiving an email from me within the last week?

If received email and interested in participating

Great. I will send you an email indicating what days I will be on campus to conduct the participant interviews. Please review and reply to this email indicating your availability.

If did not receive email, but expressed interest

Let me confirm with you the email address I was given. I will resend the email to you right now. Take a moment to read through the email and the consent form. If you feel like you would like to participate, then send an email reply back to me. When I receive your email, then I will email to set up an interview with you.

If did not receive email and not interested

Thank you for time. Have a great day!

Appendix G

Sample E-mail – Not interested in Participating

Dear [name of participant]

This is to confirm that I received your email stating that you are not interested in participating in the study.

Thank you for your time.

Pam Rault
Ph.D. Candidate
University of New Orleans

Appendix H

Sample E-mail Confirming Participation / Request Availability

Dear [name of participant],

Thank you for your interest in participating in this case study on leadership programs and citizenship development. Your involvement will help inform my study on leadership development and responsible citizenry. I will be on the Urban University campus during the following days: (dates). Please email your availability and we can schedule the interview time to fit your class schedule and outside obligations.

The interview will take place in a meeting room in the [name of student union]. I will meet you at the Office of Student Affairs in the [name of building] and then we will walk to the interview room.

Once I receive your availability, I will send an email to confirm date and time. Feel free to contact me should you have any questions between now and the scheduled interview. You can reach me via email or call 504-432-0191.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Pam V. Rault

Ph.D. Candidate

University of New Orleans

Appendix I

Sample E-mail Confirming Participation

Dear [name of participant],

Thank you for your continued interest in participating in this case study on leadership programs and citizenship development. The purpose of this email is to confirm the time and date of the interview. I have scheduled the interview according to the information you provided in your last email.

Interview Date:

Interview Time:

Interview Location:

The interview will take place in a meeting room in the [name of student union]. I will meet you at the Office of Student Affairs in the [name of building] and then we will walk to the interview room.

Please familiarize yourself with the consent form attached in the first email and bring the signed copy with you to the interview.

I will call 24 hours prior to the interview as a reminder of the interview. Feel free to contact me should you have any questions between now and the scheduled interview. You can reach me via email or call 504-432-0191.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Pam V. Rault

Ph.D. Candidate

University of New Orleans

Appendix J

Sample Reminder E-mail – One Week

Dear [name of participant],

Thank you for your continued interest in participating in this case study on leadership programs and citizenship development. As indicated in our last correspondence, I am sending a reminder of our scheduled interview next week.

Interview Date:
Interview Time:
Interview Location:

The interview will take place in a meeting room in the [name of student union]. I will meet you at the Office of Student Affairs in the [name of building] and then we will walk to the interview room.

Please familiarize yourself with the consent form attached in the first email and bring the signed copy with you to the interview.

I will call 24 hours prior to the interview as a reminder of the interview. Feel free to contact me should you have any questions between now and the scheduled interview. You can reach me via email or call 504-280-6349.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Pam V. Rault
Ph.D. Candidate
University of New Orleans

Appendix K

Telephone Transcript of Conversation (24 Hour Reminder Call)

Hi [name of participant]

This is Pam Rault, the University of New Orleans doctoral student. How are you today?

I am just calling to remind you of the interview tomorrow. I will meet you at the Office of Student Affairs in the [name of student union] at [time of interview]. We will then walk to the interview room.

Please bring the consent form attached in the original email and we will review it at the start of the interview.

Do you have any questions regarding the interview?

Okay. I will see you tomorrow. Have a good day.

Appendix L

Interview Guide and Protocol for the Student Interview

Introduction

- Doctoral student at UNO
- Interested in studying student leadership development and citizenship development
- The interview will consist of questions about the leadership program you participated in, what you gained from the program and how you transfer those skills.

Consent

- review consent form
- participation is voluntary
- name and institution will not be revealed in research data
- may pass on any question – discussion the possibilities of uncomfortable feelings depending on their personal experiences with the storm.
- may stop the interview at any time
- Taping – will stop and do a check for sound quality

Background

- What is your classification in school (junior or senior)?
- What is your major?
- What clubs/organizations are you currently in?
- Describe the position or past positions that you have held in these organizations.

Leadership Program

- Please describe the leadership program.
- What is the mission or purpose of this program?
- How long was the program? (semester, weekend, day, one-hour session?)
- Why did you decide to participate in the leadership program?
- What topics were discussed in the leadership program?
- Were there opportunities for group discussion or group interaction?
- Describe the group cohesion. Did a common purpose establish in the group setting?
- How did you handle varying points of view?
- How were you asked to assess the leadership program?

Citizenship

- How do you define citizenship?
- What motivates you to take action in school related activities or in the community?
- Do you feel that the leadership program has prepared you to be an active citizen in the community? In what ways?

Leadership / Skill Development

- In your opinion, what personal skills make a good leader?

- Do you think that leadership qualities can be learned or it is something that you are born with?
- What would you consider good outcomes of leadership?
- Did the leadership program discuss teamwork? What are your thoughts regarding collaboration and shared vision?
- Did the leadership program discuss conflict resolution? How do you think this concept can be transferable in other settings?
- Do you think the skills that you learned in the leadership program are transferable to present or future endeavors? Please explain.

Development of Values / Value Clarification

- As an individual, what are priorities in your life?
- What has influenced the formation of your values?
- As a leader, how important are values in your decision making process?
- Has participation in the leadership program caused you to think about your values and clarify what is important to you? Please explain.

Civic Engagement

- Did you have to complete a service project as part of the leadership program?
If yes, describe the project.
If no, have you participated in service projects in other organizations? Please describe the project.
- How were decisions made as to what project were selected?

Service Involvement

- Describe your feelings about community service.
- What influences you to volunteer?
- Do you enjoy volunteering individually or within a group setting?
- How does it make you feel when you reach out and participate in activities that affect the community? What have you gained through volunteering?
- When you volunteer in a group setting, how do you think it affects the group conducting the service?
- How do you think service affects the community and the people directly receiving the service?
- Do you predict your involvement in service will increase or decrease after you graduate?

Political Involvement

- Do you keep informed of political issues on a local or national level? How important is this to you?
- Describe your feelings about being involved in political issues and your commitment to raising awareness of political issues.
- How much influence do you think you have regarding political issues in your community or nationally?
- Do you think your involvement in political issues will increase or decrease after you graduate?

- Did your leadership program discuss ways that you can help the community through political involvement?
- If not, do you think that your leadership program provided you the skills to make a difference regarding political issues in the community?
- If given the preference, would you spend your time creating change in the community through service initiatives, or would you make a difference through political initiatives. Please explain your reasoning.

Thank you for sharing your experiences.

I will be in contact with you if I have follow-up questions to verify that I understand your point of view accurately.

Appendix M

Interview Guide and Protocol for the Administrator Interview

Introduction

- Doctoral student at UNO
- Interested in studying student leadership development and citizenship development
- The interview will consist of questions regarding the leadership program being studied.

Consent

- review consent form
- participation is voluntary
- name and institution will not be revealed in research data
- may pass on any question – discussion the possibilities of uncomfortable feelings depending on their personal experiences with the storm.
- may stop the interview at any time
- Taping – will stop and do a check for sound quality

Background

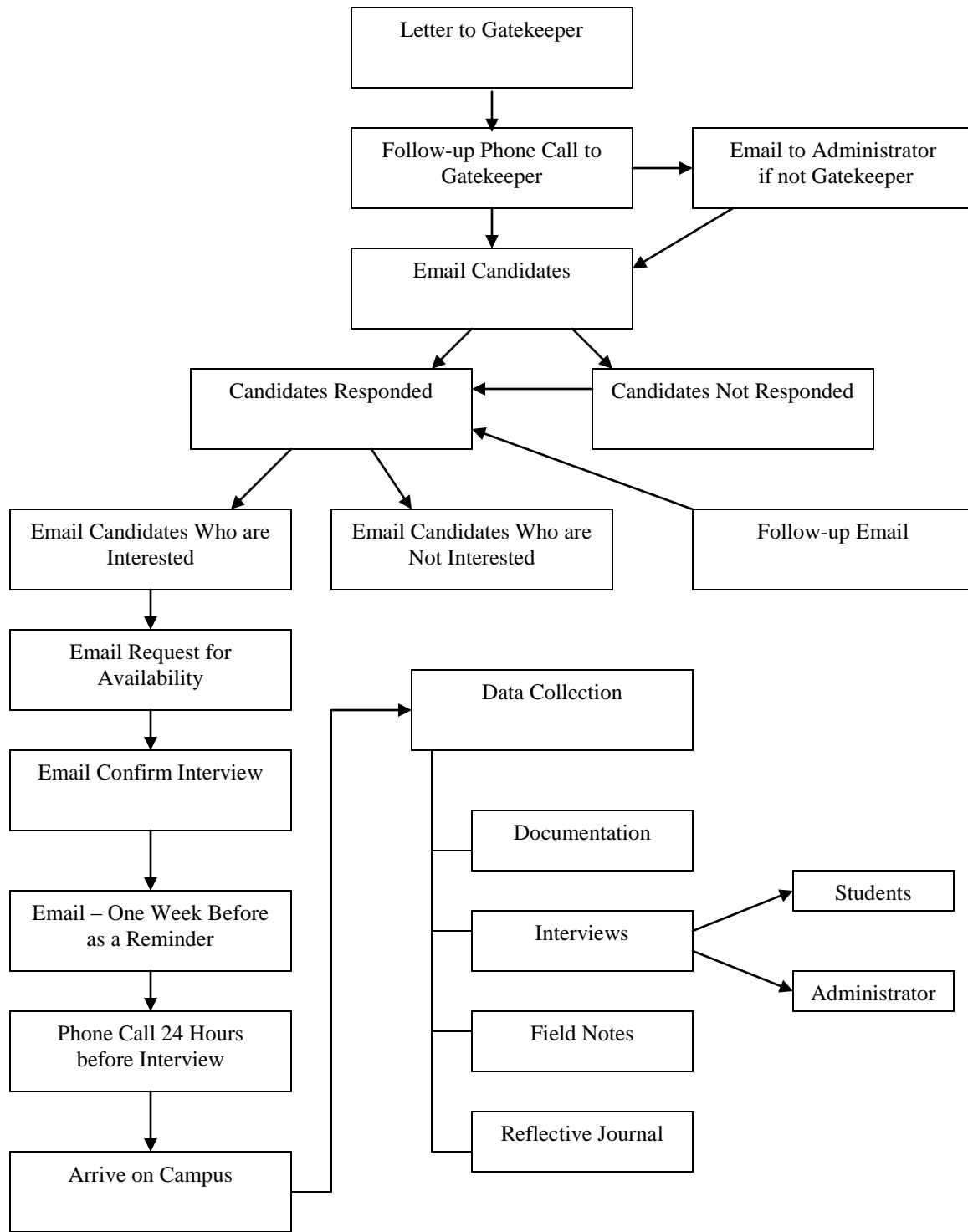
- How long have you been working with leadership programs?
- How long have you been in charge of this particular leadership program?

Leadership Program

- Please tell me a little about the leadership program
- What is the mission of the program?
- Do students have to register to be part of the program?
- How long has the program been in existence?
- What components are covered in the program?
- What are the learning outcomes?
- How does the leadership program prepare students to be better leaders?
- How does the leadership program prepare students to be better citizens?
- How is the program assessed?
- What do you feel is the most valuable part of the leadership program?
- Typically, how many students participate in the program?
- How many professionals are responsible for the implementation of this program?
Do you feel that it is adequate?
- To what level does the university administration support this program?
 - Do you feel that you have an adequate amount of professions and support staff to run an effective program?
 - Does the program receive the level of monetary support needed?

Appendix N

Visual Methodology



Appendix O

Human Subjects Approval Form

***University Committee for the Protection
of Human Subjects in Research
University of New Orleans***

Campus Correspondence

PI: Marietta DeFavero
Co-investigator: Pamela Vrana Rault

Date: July 26, 2007

RE: IRB approval of protocol application entitled
"College Leadership Programs and Citizenship Development:
Preparing Students to be Agents of Social Change."

IRB#: 03jul07

The IRB has deemed that the research and procedures are compliant with the University of New Orleans and federal guidelines. The above-referenced human subjects protocol is review and approved under 45 CFR 46.110(1) categories 6 & 7.

Please remember that approval is only valid for one year from the approval date. Any changes to the procedures or protocols must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to implementation.

If an adverse, unforeseen event occurs (e.g., physical, social, or emotional harm), you are required to inform the IRB as soon as possible after the event.

Best of luck with your project!

Sincerely,


Kari Walsh, (acting for IRB Chair)
IRB member

Laura Scaramella, Ph.D.
Chair, University Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research

Cc: Laura Scaramella

VITA

Pamela Vrana Rault received a Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) with a minor in philosophy from the University of St. Thomas (TX) in May 1995. She served as a graduate assistant in the Office of Student Activities while working on her Masters of Business Administration at the University of St. Thomas. In 1997 she accepted a position as the Assistant Director of New Student Orientation at the University of New Orleans. Through independent studies, she completed her MBA from the University of St. Thomas in 1999. At that same time she was promoted as the Director of Student Development Activities at the University of New Orleans. Currently, Pam still serves in that position and assists students in their leadership development.

Pam is a frequent presenter at regional and national conferences on issues of student leadership development. Additionally, she has served on the National Association of Campus Activities (NACA) Regional Leadership Team in various capacities for the past twelve years. Currently she serves NACA as the Coordinator-Elect for the Central Region.