The Leaders of the Future: A Call to Action for Higher Education

Deirdre L. Hennessey
University of Massachusetts Boston

Follow this and additional works at: http://scholarworks.umb.edu/cct_capstone

Part of the Higher Education and Teaching Commons

Recommended Citation

http://scholarworks.umb.edu/cct_capstone/145
THE LEADERS OF THE FUTURE: A CALL TO ACTION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

A Thesis Presented
by
DEIRDRE L. HENNESSEY

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies, University of Massachusetts Boston
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS
December 1997

Critical and Creative Thinking Program
ABSTRACT

THE LEADERS OF THE FUTURE: A CALL TO ACTION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

December, 1997

Deirdre L. Hennessey, B.A., Connecticut College
M.A., University of Massachusetts Boston

Directed by Professor John Murray

The purpose of this thesis is to create a plan for a college or university to use in designing a program of leadership development for students. The study begins at the first stages, discussing the role of higher education as a producer of leaders. It is argued that it is the responsibility of higher education to promote leadership and actively cultivate leaders as part of its mission. Leadership is defined and the fundamentals of the thesis are explained.

Personal and creative potential are explained as the foundation of any leadership program. These qualities are discussed, and methods of teaching these qualities are examined. Then, the role of cognitive psychology is investigated in developing leadership programs. Different aspects of leadership are identified, and are then explored through the field of cognitive psychology. These qualities are addressed in terms of the way that the mind works. From this, the effective methods of teaching these areas are considered.

Assessment and evaluation techniques are examined as tools for creating the best program possible. Addressing each stage in the development process, different types of
evaluation methods and areas to be assessed are noted and explained. Finally, there is
discussion of the politics behind creating any new program, specifically, how to promote
funding of the new program, and how to market the program within the college
community. The author puts forth this work as a guide to identifying and answering the
issues facing a new school developing a leadership program, and to serve as a reference
in the development process.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Dr. John Murray, Dr. Jean MacCormack, and Mr. John Applebee, the members of my thesis committee, thank you for your help and support as this project evolved throughout my time at the University of Massachusetts Boston.

Barbara Hennessey, thank you for your support (literal and figurative) during graduate school, before and beyond. Thank you for your unending belief in my creativity and potential. Thanks, Mum. Thanks also to Meredith and Adam, my closest friends and confidantes.

Nani and Pa, thank you for spending so much time with me this last year. I love you very much and will never forget my roots.

Kathie McDonough, thank you for giving me the opportunity to spend time with your family, and play with your boys, Matt and Tim. Your family will always stay part of me as I look back on this part of my life.

Dean WoodBrooks, thank you for your never-ending support throughout this project and during my job search. Your unconditional faith and help means the world to me. I am honored to have you think so highly of me.

Thank you to the Quincy Bullets for giving me the opportunity to share in your lives this past year. It was a pleasure and an honor.

This thesis is dedicated to Chase Eschauzier, my hero and my biggest fan. Thank you for believing in me. Thanks for cheering me on, page after page, knowing that I could do it, and telling me so. Your love means more than I could ever say.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................ iv

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ................................................................................. vi

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS .......................................................................... vii

Chapter

1
A NEED FOR CRITICAL THINKING FOR LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS ........................................... 1
   I. Changes in Higher Education ................................................................. 1
      Implications on Society ........................................................................ 2
      Taking Action ......................................................................................... 3
      Teaching Leadership ............................................................................ 4
      Leadership Programming ..................................................................... 5
   II. A Training Ground for Leaders ............................................................ 5
      What is a Leader? ............................................................................... 8
      Critical Thinking ............................................................................... 14
      Creating the Environment ................................................................... 5
   III. Teaching to Lead .............................................................................. 6
      Holistic Student Leadership Development ........................................... 6
      Who is Taught? .................................................................................... 7
   IV. Conclusion .......................................................................................... 9

2
DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS ........................................... 11
   I. Managing and Leading ......................................................................... 11
      Management Versus Leadership .......................................................... 11
      Role of Managers ............................................................................... 11
      Role of Leaders .................................................................................... 11
      Choosing One’s Role .......................................................................... 12
      Implementation .................................................................................... 13
   II. Values and Principles .......................................................................... 13
      The Difference Between Values and Principles .................................... 13
      Living By Principles ............................................................................. 14
      Mentorship ......................................................................................... 15
   III. Proactivity and Reactivity .................................................................... 16
      Proactive and Reactive Language ......................................................... 17
      Training People to be Proactive ............................................................ 18
## EXAMINING ASPECTS OF COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FOR LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Developing a Program of Leadership Development</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing the Right Program</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Teaching Leadership Cognitively</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Problem Solving</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Identification</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Definition</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techniques</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Creative Thinking</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Society and Creativity</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Critical Thinking</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Metacognition</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Reasoning</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Reasoning</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deductive Reasoning</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inductive Reasoning</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Decision Making</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Illusions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing the Quality of Decisions</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Implementing the Program</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring the Activities to the Lesson</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Conclusion</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## THE ROLE OF ASSESSMENT FOR LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Importance of Evaluation</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laying the Foundation</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What Is Assessed?</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs of Students</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Campus Climate</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs of Facilitators</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniqueness of Campus</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Is It Examined?</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Mission Statement ................................................................. 54
During and After the Program .................................................... 54
  Flexibility .................................................................................. 54
  Surveys ..................................................................................... 55
  Studying Long-Term Effects ..................................................... 55
II. Rules By Which to Evaluate .................................................... 56
  1) Know Your Goals .................................................................. 56
  2) Don't Predict the Results ..................................................... 57
  3) Evaluate According to Your Goals ........................................ 58
  4) Know Your Restrictions (Potential and Present) .................... 59
  Reliance on Outside Information ............................................. 60
  Nature of the Beast .................................................................. 60
  5) Utilize Both Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods .... 61
  Know Your Reader .................................................................... 62
  Open-ended Questions ............................................................ 62
  Conclusion .................................................................................. 63

5

CONSIDERATIONS FOR BUDGET AND PLANNING FOR A CRITICAL
THINKING STUDENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAM .................................. 65
I. The Budget Crisis ....................................................................... 65
  Rating Effectiveness ................................................................... 67
  Implications for Student Services ............................................ 68
  Solutions ................................................................................... 68
  Creativity, Flexibility, and Accountability ................................... 69
II. The Strategic Plan ...................................................................... 70
  The Vision .................................................................................. 70
  Guide to Decision Making ....................................................... 71
  Linking Programs to the Strategic Plan ..................................... 73
III. Implications for the Future ....................................................... 74
  Form and Function .................................................................... 74
  Resilience ................................................................................... 75

BIBLIOGRAPHY ............................................................................. 77
CHAPTER 1
A NEED FOR CRITICAL THINKING FOR LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Changes in Higher Education

The system of higher education in America was originally founded to train and prepare young people to take over the positions of leadership that were needed by a fledgling nation. Schools of the traditional model, which taught languages, philosophy and classical studies, were created so that the country would have an educated populous to govern. A study of the history of our nation indicates that the demands placed on American higher education have changed. Several factors have caused changes in the types of degrees and in the college curricula in order to meet the diversified needs of the nation. These changes include the agricultural revolution, the technical revolution, and the need of a college degree to obtain promotions in the workplace. Unfortunately, the concept of creating leaders in the university has fallen by the wayside and has been replaced by fiscal and vocational concerns. This neglect exists despite the fact that people who have solid leadership skills, such as critical and creative thinking, decision making, and reasoning, have the potential to be much more highly effective workers and members of society.
Luckily, as the result of external pressure to graduate competitive workers, there has been a trend in higher education to examine the possibility of teaching leadership by itself. This means teaching leadership as the content of a course, not simply through the process of learning other subjects. Many employers in America are now beginning to demand that their skilled workers also be skilled thinkers and leaders. This demand has given institutions of higher education the impetus to focus on leadership development. This demand needs not only to be accepted, but embraced and pursued by individual institutions.

Since the eighties, there has been a changing attitude in America towards higher education. People are no longer assuming that education at colleges and universities will provide them with unconditional upward mobility, and are far more demanding of the services that higher education is providing. With so many people graduating with non-technical degrees who find themselves without the anticipated job rewards, society’s blind faith in higher education is declining. In order to fulfill the needs and demands of present-day society, higher education needs to re-examine the way that it teaches, and the areas in which it teaches.

Implications on Society

America has been struggling to compete internationally in several major areas, including business and education. In order to retain a leadership role in the global market, America needs to have a citizenry of critical and creative thinkers, as well as knowledgeable leaders. Dynamic leaders are essential for the country to prosper. For example, leaders young and old will be needed to create change and increase our
effectiveness in the service economy, such as tourism, for the years to come. People in positions of leadership need to be charismatic people with the ability to explore new areas of development and to make tough decisions, balancing prudence with venture, thus allowing for growth in areas in their industry that have become stagnant. By creating a culture that embraces leadership development within higher education, America can retain its leadership in education as well as develop new ventures in business. This study will show how these goals can be accomplished.

Taking Action

Once an institution decides that it wants to focus on leadership development, the possible ways that it may go about approaching the issue are unlimited. Many people believe that leaders are born, not created, and that people are either leaders or they are not. However, the characteristics of a leader can be broken down and taught, once those characteristics are determined. Administrators would agree that the traditional method of teaching leadership development has been through the faculties: history, government and classics. While teaching through example can be a valuable technique, this area of development is too important not to address directly. Likewise, it is an area too important to provide only to a small group of students in campus positions of leadership. Colleges need to embrace the teaching of leadership, and do so directly, providing all students with the opportunity to receive such training.

Colleges and universities need to foster the concept of creating leaders as part of their very mission. A program of leadership development needs to be implemented across the curriculum, existing within and outside of the classrooms. Administrators and
faculty need to set goals for increasing students’ competencies in leadership skills with a program of growth throughout the students’ time at the university. Simple training sessions for a select group of students will do very little to graduate leaders. The college’s mission needs to embrace a full-scale leadership development plan as the center of its educational system.

Teaching Leadership

When “leadership programs” are discussed in this paper, realize that they include a great variety of types. The majority of leadership programs falls into one of three types: leadership training, leadership education, and leadership development (Anthony-Gonzalez & Roberts, 1981; Janosik & Sina, 1988; Ritter & Brown, 1986 in Chambers, 1994). Chambers describes the differences in the following paragraph:

Leadership training “involves those activities designed to improve the individual in the role presently occupied” (p. 19); leadership education concerns “those activities designed to improve the overall leadership competence of the individual beyond the role presently occupied” (p. 21); and leadership development “is rooted in human development theory and refers to those activities designed to provide an interactionist environment which encourages development in an orderly hierarchical sequence of increasing complexity”.

Callahan and Mabey (1985) identify three types of leadership programs for college students (Chambers, 1994, p. 226). The traditional student affairs model usually includes experiential activities, is not-for-credit, and is planned and implemented predominantly by student affairs administrators. Academic leadership programs, on the other hand, often include credit courses or emphases within courses which concentrate on
Leadership Programming  Leadership programs come in all shapes and forms, from one-week seminars, to accredited courses, to summer programs, and, in some schools, to a shift across the curriculum to incorporate leadership development in all courses being taught. For example, leadership can be taught through the history department by teaching about great leaders. Math classes can discuss not just theories, but who invented the theories and how. Also, professors can all teach leadership through example. The underlying theme is that teaching leadership skills is teaching for transfer. By teaching students new ways of thinking about problems, we are teaching them how to react in an unlimited number of situations. Also, by showing students that they can think better, we are encouraging them to continue to push their limits and to attack increasingly more difficult types of problems. Not only does this make the students more competitive in the job market, but it can increase their productivity in all aspects of their lives, as they develop the ability to solve the problems blocking success in any number of different situations.
What Is a Leader?

Before such a program or curriculum can be designed for an institution or school, the characteristics of a leader need to be discussed and considered. What are the characteristics of a good leader? What should be taught? There are many different ideas as to what leadership is. Most leadership theories fall into three categories: those that address behavior, those that address attitudes, and those that address both. Oakley and Krug discuss the combination of these factors:

What is needed is enlightened leadership—leaders who not only have the vision but who have the ability to get the members of the organization to accept ownership for that vision, thus developing the commitment to carry it through to completion. (1991)

In developing a leadership program, leadership needs to be defined by the individuals designing the program. Every person interprets the concept of leadership differently, and therefore there can be no one program that can work for every setting. In addressing the need for leadership programming, the author will incorporate her own views of leadership as well as bring in other’s opinions, while acknowledging that no definition or list of characteristics is complete.

Critical Thinking Critical thinking is reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do (Ennis, 1987). The abilities of a critical thinker include:
1. Focusing on a question
2. Analyzing arguments
3. Asking and answering questions of clarification and/or challenge
4. Judging the credibility of a source
5. Observing and judging observation reports
6. Deducing and judging deductions
7. Inducing and judging inductions
8. Making value judgments
9. Defining terms, and judging definitions in form, definitional strategy, and content
10. Identifying assumptions
11. Deciding on an action, and
12. Interacting with others (Ennis, 1987).

Critical thinking is crucial when a leader must assess a situation or a plan of action. Regardless of how inconvenient new information must be, leaders must be able to assess and accept new problems and potential hurdles before they become huge roadblocks. They must be able to act in a way that minimizes the impact, or to act in a way that turns a situation into a positive. For example, a wide-scale residence hall renovation project may be challenged by departments and administrators who feel that the money could be better used by expanding the resources in the library. Presenting to these groups about the quality of student life as it relates to academic performance, attrition, and other vital areas, will help those groups to see the strategic value of the project. A leader needs to be able to have a clear understanding of the situation, so that the group or organization can be proactive, and attack problems, rather than defend themselves once the problem is unavoidable. There is another phrase which says, “We’ll deal with that when we come to it.” A true leader will deal with it before then (Covey, 1989).

One example of a characteristic that should be addressed in a program focused on building critical thinking and leadership is flexibility. Open-mindedness and an ability to
adapt to different situations is important for a leader. Without flexibility, people are simply in charge, but are not people who can lead. Leaders explore the unknown first, and must be able to accept what they find. In teaching flexibility, it can be demonstrated that by acknowledging one’s ignorance about a topic being researched or a problem being attacked and by working as hard as one can to remain unbiased and open-minded as possible, one can arrive at suitable, if not correct conclusions.

The ability and dedication to work to solve problems is also extremely important in a leader. This not only requires traditional problem-solving skills but, in addition, a commitment to the group of which you are a part. Leadership requires flexibility and perseverance. A leader must be willing to put forth a great deal of effort and have a strong dedication to achieving the end result, despite potential and real obstacles. That is why people turn to a true leader in times of crisis, regardless of whether this person is also the person who holds an official office or position within the group.

Good interpersonal skills and one’s ability to deal with people, is another extremely important characteristic of leadership. Listening skills are vital for a leader, especially when evaluating situations or people. Good leaders should be able to motivate people for whatever cause they are working on, as well as listen to their constituents and realize the value of their input. Good leaders can delegate responsibilities and give credit where credit is due, always keeping in mind that they are ultimately responsible for whatever decisions are made. This fundamental idea of respect for others is extremely important in order for a leader to be effective.

Clearly there are many characteristics that contribute to leaders’ effectiveness. One characteristic that does NOT increase leadership ability is the position a person holds
in an organization. Holding a position means that one has been delegated a responsibility, not that one is able to perform the delegated function. A leader must be able to motivate, to see the big picture, to solve problems, and to think creatively and critically among other things. Someone may be brilliant, perhaps an expert in her/his field, but lack any refined leadership skills. Too often people do an excellent job in a particular field, and when promoted to a leadership position, they become ineffective. Not only does this lead to poor leadership of a department or organization, it takes that person away from the place where they excel. Position and leadership can be completely unrelated.

Creating the Environment

The first and most important goal of implementing any leadership development program should be building support and creating an accepting, encouraging environment of learning. Encouragement and positive reinforcement should be the supporting arm in any type of educational program. Criticism leads to students shying away from risk, which is destructive when trying to develop leadership skills. Leadership development inherently requires a great deal of risk-taking, as does any process that challenges one’s thinking. A safe and accepting learning environment are vital aspects of a successful program. An important way to cultivate this type of environment is with a great deal of faculty support. Bennett & Shayner state that:

...the development of leadership potential requires, first, an intellectual environment that opens and reinforces the philosophical habits of mind that characterize leadership and, second, the teaching and nurturing of the skills and
behaviors that move leadership from the abstract realm to the world of action and accomplishment. (1988, p. 28)

By permeating the classroom with the values and promise of becoming leaders, students will feel that the community as a whole supports them. Involving all facets of the college community into the planning and implementation of the program will not only increase the quality of the program, it will also help to build an atmosphere of enthusiasm and acceptance of the program.

**Teaching to Lead**

**Holistic Student Leadership Development**

There are many places in the university where leadership qualities can be cultivated: the classroom, extra-curricular activities, non-credit seminars and training sessions, and simply in a day-to-day environment that cherishes and promotes leadership.

Colleges and universities can take their dedication to leadership to any level of commitment, from a vague statement in their strategic plan to a wide-scale, across-the curriculum focus on teaching leadership and creating opportunities for students to explore and expand their leadership experiences. The ways in which colleges can approach leadership development are as numerous as are the ways to teach most academic subjects. Multi-faceted teaching programs, including a variety of activities, skill-building techniques, discussion, etc., are important in addressing the different kinds of students and learners. Any program needs to be designed to suit the needs of the actual students who will be using the program. The demographic make-up of the college community is
extremely important to consider in creating a program to achieve the specific goals of the institution. Leadership development involves challenging students at or just above where they are, and demographic information helps to paint the picture of the student body who will be involved with the program. Leadership development not only occurs in the classroom, but also across the lives of the students; athletics, art, and theater are some examples of non-classroom based areas where leadership is developed.

Who is Taught?

There are leadership training programs that allow students in positions of leadership to practice and expand their skills in order to improve their performance as leaders. Although these programs can be remarkably beneficial, creating leaders should not be limited to those students who already work within the system of student governance of an institution. While promoting student government and giving students the opportunity to make decisions about the future of the school are excellent ways to allow for the development of leadership skills through practice, students who are not interested in this type of institutional leadership should not be excluded from the school’s mission to create leaders. Student government should not be the only focus for developing leaders because not only are the number of positions often limited, there are a wide-variety of non-traditional students who may not wish to participate in student government, but who would greatly benefit from leadership development programs.
Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to explore the importance of leadership development to the individual, to higher education, and to society; how, why and which skills can and should be taught; and how colleges can go about creating the programs, including the environment which will allow leadership programs to flourish. While there are many successful leadership programs in higher education, there still needs to be a major call to action. This thesis will break down this need into manageable parts in order to aid the creation of a leadership program.
CHAPTER 2
DEVELOPING CRITICAL AND CREATIVE THINKING LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Managing and Leading

Management Versus Leadership

Role of Managers. Managers play a very important role in any business or institution. They determine the most efficient ways of doing things. They allocate the existing resources and make sure that procedure is followed. A good manager ensures the quality of output is as high as possible, and oversees the implementation of changes that have been mandated. Without managers, there would be no supervision as to which work is being done, when and how. Managers are able to take the vision of the leader and put it into action. When speaking of “managers” and “leaders,” the terms refer to the work the people do in these positions, not the positions themselves.

Role of Leaders. The role of a leader is to direct the managers. Leaders decide in which direction the company or institution should be moving. They determine why the company exists and what fundamental goals are. Their decisions shape the future of the institution, and determine how the institution’s goals are going to be met. Leaders
must be able to look at the broad picture and work to move the company from point A, to the appropriate point B.

Choosing One’s Role People do not fall into one category: leader or manager. A person can provide leadership to a group at some times, and management at others. Leaders often encourage leadership in others. The roles can be dynamic, and need to be balanced in some ways so that tasks can be accomplished most effectively. Without proper leadership, even the best of managers will be ineffective. Not knowing one’s goals leads to a process of wheel-spinning which produces nothing but a large amount of wasted energy. Leaders are needed if change is to occur. With so much changing in the world around us, an institution without change and the ability to adapt will not survive. However, good management is vital to success. While strong, solid leadership is the basis of success, the plan of the leader cannot materialize without followers, people who are willing to work hard for the future of the institution. The day-to-day functioning of the institution is vital in moving to the next step of the strategic plan. Leaders need to be able to rely on strong, solid managers that will fulfill the goals set by the leaders (Covey, 1989).

Often, the line is not easily drawn. There are a great number of presidents and chief executive officers who are not leaders. They may work very hard and care about their institution very much, but they may not have developed leadership qualities, or the confidence to use them. Likewise, there are many people who are superior long-range planners—true visionaries. If given the opportunity, they could be exactly the change agents needed to help the company succeed. Unfortunately, many of these potential
change agents are neither the presidents nor the chief executive officers, but the clerks and the staff members. Having the potential to lead does not always go hand-in-hand with immediate opportunity.

Implementation

As college administrators, we must teach young people how to use the skills that they have. At times, opportunities for this may be more obvious, such as on a stale town committee hungry for leadership. In a large organization, with a hierarchical structure (as many institutions have), promoting change can be far more difficult. Not only can it be dangerous to promote change in a large institution, it can be personally difficult. For people who crave order, management is safe because management works around numbers, schedules and checklists. However, a poor manager can hide behind excuses, such as lazy workers, unfair deadlines, and not enough resources to get the job done.

Leadership requires risk-taking. However, without risk, the changes needed cannot be achieved. Students need to be encouraged from the start to take risks, and to understand that there is no true failure. Something can always be learned from what appears to be a failure. Often times, a failure can lead to a far better solution than the one originally envisioned. A good manager needs to have the numbers work out. A good leader must be comfortable with the ambiguity (Covey, 1989).
Values and Principles

Leadership and ethics go hand in hand. To be a person of vision and action, to be a leader, one must believe in the cause for which they are fighting. People who get things done through dishonesty and manipulation do not have a grasp on the needed vision. One way to explain this is through a look at values and principles.

The Difference Between Values and Principles: A value is similar to a belief. Values vary from person to person, and often can change during a person’s life. One person may come from a loving home and value family above all else. Another person may value money more than anything. Another, loyalty. Another, revenge. Values can be positive or negative, according to society, such as one person valuing honesty and another person valuing the ability to cheat.

A principle is inherently something different from a value.

Principles are guidelines for human conduct that have proven to have enduring, permanent value. They’re fundamental. They are essentially unarguable because they are self-evident. ...Simply consider the absurdity of attempting to live an effective life based on their opposites...unfairness, deceit, baseness, uselessness, mediocrity, degeneration... (Covey 1989, p. 35)

Living By Principles. People who live their lives guided by principles have the ability to use their personal effectiveness to influence their work and the people around them; they have the ability to lead. For example, a person living a life guided by principles will show honesty in his/her work, and teach honesty to his/her children.
People who do not live a life based on fundamental principles do not have motives that can be trusted. While they may be fighting for something that would be good for others, they are not doing it for the right reasons, and could change the course of their actions at any time. This instability and irresponsibility to others is not compatible with being a leader. Principle-centered leadership needs to be taught and role-modeled in any leadership development program.

Mentorship One way that good role modeling can be included in a leadership program is through a mentorship component. When designing a program of leadership development, there needs to be an emphasis on planning ahead and acting before one is forced to react. Mentoring not only gives the students networking opportunities, it allows them the opportunity to see how real situations unfold, and see how other leaders react. By finding businesses and organizations in the community that believe in the cultivation of leaders, who will allow the students to see how they make their decisions and why, students will have the opportunity to obtain working knowledge. Students will have the opportunity to ask questions, make suggestions, see the shortcomings of decisions, and devise strategies to solve the problems or avoid potential problems. Perhaps a helpful assignment given by the mentor would be to assess a situation and propose solutions that the students believe would be beneficial. For example, a student who is shadowing a college public relations administrator could consider a conflict such as several members of a college animal rights group being arrested for staging a fur protest. The student shadowing could create a list of the issues at hand for both the school and the students, and present a list of potential ways that the college could respond. A mentorship would
give the students first hand experience in seeing leadership in action, and how decisions are made. This is a proactive approach to tying in their lessons to the real world.

**Proactivity and Reactivity**

The central difference between acting and reacting is based upon control. If a person is acting, and thus proactive, then that person is facing hurdles and working to turn situations around and deciding which is the best course of action to take. The person making the decisions is in control. On the other hand, when a person is reacting, the control falls in the hands of the people who have originated the action. The person reacting has given the other party the ability to control him/her by not having initiated or taken part in the original action. This does not mean that proactive people are immune to the outside world. It does mean that they do not hesitate to act based on what is best for themselves or the organization that they represent, and they do not blame the outside world for the problems that they are experiencing.

For example, suppose that several students are doing poorly in a class. While they each have to deal with the reality of the situation, each student can choose to respond proactively or reactively. Reactive people will blame the professor, the subject matter, their high school teachers, or whoever they feel could have prevented this situation from occurring. They will be discouraged and their mood will be affected whenever they need to go to class, study, or complete class assignments, depending on how their performance is doing. They will feel victimized, and will not feel that they have any control in choosing their response. On the other hand, proactive people will behave quite
differently. They might immediately contact the professor for additional help or to be connected with a tutor in the subject. They will do a great deal of work trying to learn the concepts that have been proving difficult, while trying to stay on top of new material. They will not get caught up in the little things, like arguing over every point on an exam, but will actively apply themselves so that they learn the material presented and produce high quality work. A proactive person may even have realized previously that he/she has not proven to be very strong in this subject in the past, and work to get help from that start. A proactive person will have created more options for him/herself (Covey, 1989).

Proactive and Reactive Language. Stephen Covey lists examples of proactive and reactive language.

Proactive Language
Let’s look at our alternatives.
I can choose a different approach.
I control my own feelings.
I can create an effective presentation.
I will choose an appropriate response.
I choose.
I prefer.
I will.

Reactive Language
There’s nothing I can do.
That’s just the way I am.
They won’t allow that.
I have to do that.
I can’t.
I must.
If only. (Covey 1989, p. 78)
The difference between these lists lies in the concept of control. In the first list, which describes the speech of proactive people, the focus is on individuals, and how they will control their situation. The second list describes the language of reactive people, who give control to other people or situations. By giving up the control in a situation, they give away the potential for being blamed. By giving up responsibility for an outcome, they also give up the possibility of credit. Taking responsibility is a risk, and leaders are needed to take that risk. As we teach young people to develop their leadership abilities and to think critically and creatively, we encourage them to take responsibility for their actions and make smart decisions. Without risking that responsibility, one can only manage, not lead.

**Training People to be Proactive** One way that leaders can be trained to become proactive is by training them to consider themselves the cause of problems. It is easy to place blame elsewhere. A critical mind knows that focusing on the actions of other people will not lead to success. By working within what one can control, concrete plans of action can be designed to solve problems. Focusing on one’s own behavior and actions can be difficult as most people do not want to see the errors in their own behavior. This can be especially problematic when the behavior which is not working was once the proper course of action. Changes in the work environment can make what once was a productive leadership style become totally obsolete. Reactive people will either not be able to see these changes, and therefore the need to reevaluate their work style, or realize it and blame the outside world.
Critical thinking, proactive people will see the changes as a means to making themselves the best leaders that they can be. Pride cannot be the main issue when it comes to effectiveness. Only the pride of accomplishing one's goals is relevant, and this can only be done if the person is willing to abandon the safety net and rise to the needs of the organization. Teaching leadership requires teaching humility. Leaders must be aware of their own cognitive processes, which means being able to ask questions, identify ignorance and look to overcome it. Leaders must be able to see their own faults and act to change them, and not blame others for the situation. In teaching leadership, this aspect of the required character of a leader needs to be stressed to students (Covey, 1989).

When designing a program which includes training people to be proactive, facilitators need to give students many different types of problems to solve, which increasingly require more and more personal effort. Problems that can be addressed at different levels are important. For example, a problem with which to start would be one that requires students to create possible solutions to a situation would allow students to do the bare minimum (two solutions) or be proactive and create several (which could include diagrams and other props). Proactivity could be discussed in terms of that project, and another could be given, this one asking for a presentation describing what leadership means to the group. Students have the opportunity to create a brief, dry presentation, an elaborate, thought-provoking one, or anywhere in between. As students process the exercises, they can see how putting in more effort and being more proactive can lead to such better outcomes. Then the program facilitators can talk about proactivity and how it relates to the outside world and to their personal lives.
What Self-actualization Means

Developing into the creative, dynamic type of person needed to lead in our society, the concept of actualizing one’s potential, self-actualization, is key. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers describe a self-actualizing person to be “mentally healthy, self-accepting, forward growing, fully functioning, democratic minded and more.” (Davis, 1992) Davis quotes Maslow (1954) as describing the following as characteristics of self-actualized people:

1. Perceive reality more accurately and objectively; tolerate and even like ambiguity; are not threatened by the unknown.
2. Accept themselves, others, and human nature.
3. Are spontaneous, natural, and genuine.
4. Are problem-centered (not self-centered), non-egotistical; have a philosophy of life and probably a mission in life.
5. Are independent, self-sufficient, and autonomous; have less need for praise and popularity.
6. Are democratic, unprejudiced in the deepest possible sense.
7. Are strongly ethical and moral in individual (not necessarily conventional) ways; enjoy work in achieving a goal as much as the goal itself; are patient, for the most part.
8. Have a more thoughtful, philosophical sense of humor that is constructive, not destructive.
9. Are creative, original, inventive with a fresh, naive, simple and direct way of looking at life; tend to do most things creatively— but do not necessarily possess great talent. (Davis 1992)

Self-actualization and leadership. The qualities described above are extremely important in a leader. The open-minded, unstructured attitudes that many of these
characteristics reflect allow a person to see situations in different ways, and therefore see a variety of different solution more easily. More rigid thinking limits people from their own solving-problem potential. The concept of self-actualization is becoming what you have the potential to become. This goes hand-in-hand with developing one’s creativity, a vital aspect of leadership. Students need to have the concept of self-actualization explained, should discuss it as it relates to their lives. This can be incorporated into a leadership development program by ways such as having students develop personal mission statements, work on ambiguous problems together and stretch their boundaries by examining their own personal development. Teaching the difference between being a creative person and being an artistically talented person is important as well. Famous “creative” people such as Einstein, Darwin, and Dickenson may not have been able to draw a convincing circle. The concept of creativity involves pushing one’s boundaries in attempting to see what is out there, what one is capable of becoming. This is at the heart of leadership development and without it, would leave a program incomplete (Davis, 1992).

Conclusion

This chapter focused more on attitude and personal characteristics that aid in leadership development. Vital to any leadership program are self-actualization, which is basically fulfilling one’s potential and morality. Unless one has a strong moral fiber and a desire to grow as a person, there is not a base upon which to truly build one’s leadership skills. A high level of maturity and self-reflection are vital for students before more
technical issues, such as critical thinking and problem solving can be addressed. A self-reflection and personal effectiveness model needs to be incorporated as the first part of any leadership development program. An example of a good personal effectiveness model would be Stephen Covey’s, which has three major components: 1) Be proactive, 2) Begin with the end in mind, and 3) Put first things first. These require deciding to take control over one’s life and one’s responses, keeping one’s goals in the forefront, and not being sidetracked when working at these goals (Covey, 1989). By doing activities relating to personal prioritizing, self-reflection (such as journal writing), and boundary making, students are given practice in areas that will help them in every aspect of their lives.

The concept of managing and leading and the choices that people make in different situations describes people’s ability to choose their role, and their leadership potential. Choosing the proactive response, choosing to lead must be instilled and encouraged. Teaching leadership skills without teaching the context in which they can be used is meaningless. Now that attitudes have been discussed, the next chapter will focus on developing individual leadership skills through the context of cognitive psychology.
CHAPTER 3
EXAMINING ASPECTS OF COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FOR LEADERS AND
LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Developing a Program of Leadership Development

This chapter will show how programs that are designed to develop leadership qualities in students are, in large part, grounded in theories of cognitive psychology. Most leadership development programs are designed to give students working skills that are thought to be characteristic of what a leader should have. Rather than simply teaching content, they attempt to improve the way a person thinks, and therefore acts. This chapter is designed to show the role cognitive psychology plays in leadership development programs, and suggestions as to how a program of this kind should be implemented.

Designing the Right Program

Cognitive psychology is a branch of psychology presupposing that responses are affected by the point of view of the receiver of the stimulus as well as by his/her environment (Webster, 1989). The study of cognitive psychology helps us to understand how people think. In developing a leadership development program, the study of cognitive psychology can help people understand how people think and learn. This can offer administrators creating the program insight into how they might teach aspects of
leadership. It can also help students understand how they think and learn, and therefore, how they can change their thought processes in a way that promotes leadership behavior.

Leadership education is about changing cognitive processes, step-by-step. Without a thorough understanding of how the mind is thought to work, making these changes would be extremely difficult. Changing one’s cognitive processes is, like leadership development, focused around the importance of interaction, pushing boundaries, and breaking habits. Since many of the characteristics of leadership that are addressed in this book can be related to how people think, it would be incomplete not to examine many different theories pertaining to how the mind makes decisions, such as heuristics and illusory correlations.

Having a clear understanding of what the goals of the program are is vital to keeping the development of the course on track. There are three paramount goals, beyond creating a supportive, safe environment, that the majority of sub-goals of any program should fall into. They are teaching theories of leadership and ethics, developing problem solving skills such as critical and creative thinking, and providing an arena to get experience using new skills. A mission statement should be developed, clearly outlining the goals of the program and every action that is taken in order to implement the program should be in line with that mission. A good program of leadership development goes from the abstract to the action (Bennett & Shayner, 1988). This type of system is hierarchical, going from the ideas and reasoning behind the theories to the skills development portion to actual activities that allow students to use their new leadership skills. Critical thinking, which is an orderly, logical and creative way of thought needs to be encouraged and stressed, and people need to understand that they are responsible for
their own learning and their own lives. The following is a diagram showing how teaching problem solving could be incorporated into designing a program, going from the broad concept of problem solving to specific aspects that can be taught (see figure 1).

Figure 1. Problem Solving Model

PROBLEM SOLVING

\[ \text{LEADERS MUST BE ABLE TO SOLVE PROBLEMS} \]

PROBLEM SOLVING CAN BE TAUGHT THROUGH:

\[ \text{COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY} \]

\[ \text{GENERATE & TEST TECHNIQUE} \]

\[ \text{WORKING BACKWARDS TECHNIQUE} \]

\[ \text{MEANS-END ANALYSIS} \]

Teaching Leadership Cognitively

Leadership development training should not be seen as teaching a series of individual characteristics that need to be learned separately. An effective leader can combine skills needed in order to solve a problem or make a decision. Teaching leadership is about creating a whole leader, teaching people how to interact in real-life situations. It should not teach techniques and formulas that can only be used in certain situations. The areas to be taught that will be examined here are: 1) problem solving, 2) creative thinking, 3) critical thinking, 4) reasoning, and 5) decision making.
1) Problem Solving

Problem solving is the ability to clearly see a situation, understand it, and create viable possibilities to address and fulfill the needs of the situation. The ability to solve problems is extremely important to everyone, but especially to a leader, the person to whom people look to find the answers and the solutions. By teaching students problem solving strategies, we expand their mind-set about how one would go about it. Expanding their possibilities of solving techniques, young leaders will be able to overcome problems that before they did not have the tools to solve. Teaching new problem solving methods also teaches students the value of expanding their horizons. As their confidence in their creative problem solving ability improves, they will be more likely to want to increase this ability.

Problem Identification The first step in problem solving is problem identification. Any number of problem solving techniques would be unsuccessful without the identification that there is a problem. Problem solving methods are the effect of a cause, a problem. Learning how to identify problems means learning to question why things are done a certain way and always looking to improve. Sternberg identifies the 6 components of problem solving as:

1. defining the nature of the problem,
2. selecting the components or steps needed to solve a problem,
3. selecting a strategy for ordering the components of problem solving,
4. selecting a mental representation for information,
5. allocating mental resources, and
6. monitoring the solution. (1987)
Problem Definition  The second step of problem solving is a critical look at the definition of the problem. Once a problem is identified, each person may have a different idea as to how to define it, as bias can play a large role in the way the problem is viewed (Bransford, Sherwood & Sturdevant, 1987). While ten people may agree that there is a problem, there may also be ten definitions of the problem, such as poor management, or lack of funding. The importance of a well-defined problem cannot be over-stressed. The definition is really the map used to guide the solution. Looking at the meaning behind the question posed and the nature of the problem is extremely important in answering the right question. Problem solving techniques often overlook this important area (Bransford, Sherwood, and Sturdevant, 1987).

There is a strong connection between problem identification and problem definition, as many people see them as one in the same. Often a person will both identify and define a problem at the same time, often erroneously. Searching for the correct definition is vital to planning it's solution. By continually trying to better re-define the problem, leaders can gain clarity about the correct course of action to take.

Techniques  Complex problems often need to be broken down into small, more manageable steps (Bransford, Sherwood & Sturdevant, 1987). There are many types of problem solving techniques that are encouraged for various types of problems that attempt to do this. Some examples of problem-solving techniques that can be utilized are called the generate-and-test technique, mean-ends analysis, working backward, and reasoning by analogy (Galotti, 1994). The generate-and-test technique involves
generating a list of potential solutions to the problem and then testing whether or not they meet the criteria for a feasible solution. This method is most effective when there is some degree of structure as to the type of answers that will be received, as it is a highly unstructured method in itself.

Means-ends analysis calls for making connections between the goal and the starting point, hoping to find new ways to get there. Means-ends analysis is a far more structured method of solving than generate-and-test in that it requires a fair amount of analysis and planning before solutions are predicted. While this process does give more direction, it can be limiting as it can complicate problems by focusing on unrelated or irrelevant sub-problems (Galotti, 1994).

The working backward technique calls for the user to analyze the last step need before a successful solution, and then the one before that, and so on. This technique can be extremely helpful in organizing the solution into small steps. This method often requires establishing sub-goals as well, but often is very successful in monitoring progress in coming to the solution.

The reasoning by analogy method can be extremely effective when dealing with problems that are understood well by the students. When the goals of the solution are clearly defined, students are more likely to be able to transfer concepts from other situations. While this is, undoubtedly, a difficult skill to master, this method of reasoning is an excellent tool in developing the ability to transfer knowledge (Galotti, 1994).

Cause and Effect. The whole concept of cause and effect as a part of problem definition should not be neglected. The difficulty in deciding between what is the cause
and what is the effect when examining a problem can be extreme. Often people make decisions about problem solving without realizing what the actual problem is. People often overlook indirect causes, which may be the actual problem, and focus on what appears to be the direct cause. Another mistake often made is seeing a correlation (when things are often found together or seem to go up and down together) and assuming that the correlation leads to a cause and effect situation (Wolff, 1994).

Strategies Several strategies need to be taught to students that address many different types of problems. The strategies should provide some basis of how one goes about organizing a problem into a workable puzzle. By providing the student with several techniques for problem solving, students will have a greater understanding of how techniques can be tailored to fit individual problems, rather than the other way around. Teaching more than one method also takes into consideration people’s ability to solve problems according to their particular strengths (Sternberg, 1987). A great way of practicing using different strategies is to have students come up with their own problems or ideas for problems that not only show their understanding of the different strategies, but go beyond the set strategies. For example, facilitators could ask students to come up with a problem that could not easily be solved with any technique presented, such as a moral dilemma that cannot be adequately solved through logic alone. This would not only expand the students’ ideas as to how problems can be solved, but also demonstrate to students the wide array of problems that are needed to be solved daily.
2) Creative Thinking

Creative thinking is a process of reaching outside of what is immediately attainable or predictable for the purpose of coming up with an idea or solution that would not be apparent at first glance. In short, this aspect of leadership development that falls into cognitive psychology is the concept of expanding one’s creative mind. Looking for creative solutions demands the expansion of where you look and how you attempt to solve problems. Not only does creative problem solving increase people’s overall confidence in their creativity, it emphasizes the importance of information gathering, such as talking with others, which can lead to more efficient decision making. Similarly, creative problem solving encourages periods of incubation and thought, while other methods may not. For example, brainstorming is an idea generating activity that involves listing as many options as come to mind without any editing or judging. When the process is over, the list is reviewed for viable solutions. This theory goes under the presumption that a wide variety of uncensored solutions will probably lead to one that works.

Society and Creativity. Creative thinking involves using one’s creative power to see beyond the information that is presented in order to come up with new ideas and solutions that are not outwardly evident. The value of creativity and creative thinking to an effective leader is a great asset (Davis, 1994). When one thinks about people commonly accepted as leaders, words such as “innovative” and “forward-thinking” often come to mind. Leaders are empowered by their creativity. Students should be asked to
describe how their favorite leaders displayed their creative energy and will usually find that they were, in fact, very creative.

Our society does not always encourage people to express their creativity. For example, suppose that a student decides to give up his major in studio art for a major in business, while still trying to take a painting class or two in his spare time. Suppose a recent graduate, who has been desperately trying to have her creative writing portfolio published, decides to abandon her dreams and instead takes a job as an editor at a magazine. In both of these situations, the majority of people in this country may consider these smart decisions, despite the fact that, in both cases, the student and recent graduate chose to give up their life-long dreams. Despite the fact that each of those individuals may have a great sense of failure, society pressures people to make decisions like that every day. The value of creativity is not strongly weighed in our society today. In order to teach students that their creativity is valuable, we need to show them how they can use it to benefit themselves and others. A leadership development program is an excellent avenue through which to do this.

3) Critical Thinking

There are countless ideas as to what makes a good critical thinker. Nickerson describes his opinion of some of the aspects of a good thinker:

- Organizes thought and articulates them concisely and coherently;
- Suspends judgment in the absence of sufficient evidence to support a decision;
- Understands the difference between reasoning and rationalizing;
• Attempts to anticipate the probable consequences of alternative actions before choosing among them;
• Sees similarities and analogies that are not superficially apparent;
• Applies problem-solving techniques appropriately in domains other than those in which they were learned;
• Looks for unusual approaches to complex problems;
• Recognizes the fallibility of one's own opinions, the probability of bias in those opinions, and the danger of differentially weighting evidence according to personal preferences. (1987)

Nickerson describes many important aspects of critical thinking. He includes looking objectively, suspending judgement, and working diligently and creatively to find a solution that isn't readily apparent. By using his model of good thinking, one can see how different types of thinking can be taught, in this case, critical thinking.

Critical thinking is an important aspect of any leadership development program. While there are many different facets and opinions about what makes a critical thinker, there are several traits that can be taught. The first step in teaching critical thinking is discussing its leadership value. One typical characteristic of a leader is the necessity to make decisions, such as what course of action to take, how to motivate people, or how to resolve a conflict. The decisions often affect a great number of people and need to be made with the utmost of care. Critical thinking is crucial in these situations.

The role of cognitive psychology in many of these characteristics is apparent. Students should be encouraged to explore their own ideas about what critical thinking is, is not, and how it can be used in their lives. Analytical exercises that cause students to come to conclusions may serve to be very helpful, such as reasoning problems and logic puzzles. Pitfalls to critical thinking, such as making generalizations and being influenced
by bias, need to be examined as students search for solutions to falling into these traps.

In order to encourage critical thinking throughout the whole program, activities should not be rushed and there should be a significant amount of time allotted for thinking, reflection, and unstructured discussion about the lessons and activities presented (Nickerson, 1987).

**Teaching Metacognition** Metacognition is the ability to know what we do and do not know (Wolff, 1994). Metacognition provides checks and balances for one's own thinking. Costa discusses the main components of metacognition.

...developing a plan of action, maintaining that plan in mind over a period of time, then reflecting back on and evaluating the plan upon its completion...It facilitates making temporal and comparative judgments, assessing the readiness for more or different activities, and monitoring our interpretations, perceptions, decisions, and behaviors (1993).

There are many different ways to help students reflect on their thinking. One method that can be extremely effective is journal keeping. Journal keeping provides students the opportunity for private reflection as to how they came to decisions, solved a problem, or learned a lesson. By paying attention to how one thinks, one is able to provide a framework for how one goes about certain mental tasks. Facilitators should encourage students to reflect on their thinking. Facilitators should encourage students to take credit where it is deserved and comment on the students' progress in order to make them more aware of their thinking. Another way of encouraging metacognition is by clarifying the students' terminology (Costa, 1993). Asking for clarification and for things
to be rephrased is asking the student to clarify their own thoughts about a topic. Demanding specificity trains students to understand their own thought processes better.

4) Reasoning

Reasoning is a process whereby we get from old truths to new truths, from the known to the unknown, and from the accepted to the debatable in order to make it less debatable (Scriven, 1976). One begins to reason by understanding the information presented and drawing inferences and conclusions from it (Galotti, 1994). Increasing reasoning skills rests on the idea that you learn to check your resources, question your assumptions, and ascertain your premises. Reasoning skills include clarifying your questions, problems, and goals in order to come to a logical conclusion. Putting biases and misinformation aside, a person is able to reason through a problem, knowing the steps needed and pitfalls to avoid. Reasoning is the logical process of coming to a conclusion, a cognitive process that is required of good critical thinkers, and hence, leaders, due to the need for leaders to make good decisions.

Teaching Reasoning Reasoning and decision making techniques can be taught in many different ways. To start, facilitators should attempt to use useful, interesting examples when presenting situations. For example, when teaching decision making, use examples such as choosing a major, choosing a summer job, or other decisions that are relevant to the lives of the students being taught. All techniques should stress questioning premises and testing any assumed instances of cause and effect. For example, a student leader may feel irritated with the members of his/her group because
they do not regularly attend meetings and do not show much dedication to the cause and purpose of the group. It could be that the members do not attend because regardless of what they do and how much they give to the cause of the organization, they feel that the student leader is constantly irritated with their inability to do more. Cause and effect is not always clear. As stated on page 34, cause and effect can be a downfall to any person or group who is attempting to solve a problem, as it can and often does cloud good problem definition. Increasing reasoning skills helps to build the foundation upon which good decisions are made and effective solutions are found.

How does this fit into leadership development? By invoking a sense of need to come to the correct conclusions, students can learn to consistently metacognate about the reasoning behind their conclusions. Students can learn to improve their ability to lay the foundation for the sound solutions that are needed. Activities in reasoning and logic should be included in the program, such as matrix logic puzzles and deductive and inductive reasoning exercises. Formulas need not be memorized, but practice thinking about premises and conclusions can be very beneficial in developing quality of reasoning in a leader.

**Deductive Reasoning.** This is a method of coming to conclusions based on the information presented and understanding that if the premises are true, then the conclusion cannot be false. An argument is then said to have deductive validity (Galotti, 1994). Propositional reasoning, a type of deductive reasoning, calls for coming to conclusions based on statements, or a series of connected statements, that are either true or false. For example, "I will call a meeting tonight. The meeting must start at five or six. I cannot
start the meeting at six. Therefore, the meeting must start at five.” If all of the premises are true, then it would be impossible to do anything but start the meeting at five.

Syllogistic reasoning involves looking at premises and the conclusion drawn and deciding whether or not it follows that the conclusion must be correct, or simply looking at two or more premises and seeing if there is a conclusion that must be correct given that information. For example, “Taxes are always due on April 15. April 15 is my birthday. Today is my birthday. Therefore, taxes are due today.” A student would be able to deduct that this is a true statement.

**Inductive Reasoning** This involves coming to conclusions that are probable, although not guaranteed, based on the information given. Unlike deductive reasoning, it involves adding new information to one’s thinking (Galotti, 1994). For example, “Every time I cram for a test, I do poorly. I have a test next week and I really want to do well. Therefore, I won’t cram.” Even though there could have been a variety of causes for the poor performances on the previous tests, the student was able to come to a new, seemingly plausible conclusion in order not to repeat the same mistake.

Another example of inductive reasoning is registering for a class with a former professor assuming that since the previous classes were enjoyable with this professor, this one will be as well. While that particular class may be in a topic that the student winds up finding extremely dry, it is a conclusion drawn based on previous experience or information given that is thought to help the student select classes. Inductive reasoning is extremely valuable because it adds information to the person’s thought processes. It is information that can be tested and a common way of idea finding new solutions.
However, inductive reasoning can be misleading when cause and effect decisions are made based on it. For example, if you decide that your residence hall room has never been robbed because there are so many students with nicer belongings, and you come to the conclusion that you don’t need to lock your door, you could be in for a terrible surprise. It could very well be that the cause of your not having been robbed was that you have always locked it.

Bias. Another important aspect of reasoning that cannot be overlooked by administrators is the identification of bias. Galotti (1994) describes a bias in thinking as “a tendency to perform in a certain way regardless of the information presented.” This can be an extremely dangerous characteristic in a leader. A bias in reasoning can lead to unsound decisions that could hurt a leader’s chances for success. By refusing to see information in an objective light, a leader can be a hindrance to the group to which he/she belongs. In teaching leadership, issues of bias, prejudice, and points-of-view need to be discussed. Students need to be encouraged to be as objective and open-minded as possible. This should also be demonstrated through example by the program facilitators.

5) Decision Making

A leader often makes decisions, and helps others to make decisions. Learning to take into account a wide range of factors in a situation or problem is often necessary to achieve this. Being aware of obstacles to good decision making such as overconfidence and bias is an important part of avoiding those mistakes. Another obstacle, often thought of as following your instinct, can more successfully be avoided in students who are taught
to be aware of such common mistakes. The value of group decision making, rather than making a decision for a group, should also be stressed. Teaching a student leader how to make decisions is a far better gift than helping a student to make a decision. For example, if a student is struggling to decide which of two job offers is better, it would be far better for that student to be advised to look at their values, their goals, and the direction they will lead to. By helping the student decide based on one’s own experiences and advice, the student may not have the opportunity to do that important self-reflection, which is needed to make decisions in the future.

There are many ways that a person can go about making a decision. Many of the tips to good decision making rely on logical reasoning and critical thinking. There are common ways of making choices that can be detrimental to the goal of coming up with the right decision. People may have misinformation and incorrect assumptions that were products of poor reasoning. However, there are other factors, such as emotions that come to play in decision making which also need to be avoided. Unfortunately, since many decisions that need to be made involve a great deal of criteria to analyze, it can be very difficult to break down such complex problems into logical reasoning steps. For a leader, there is often a great deal of pressure to make the right choice, as the decision can often affect a number of people (Yukl, 1994).

**Cognitive Illusions** Von Winterfeldt & Edwards (1986, in Galotti, 1994) describe cognitive illusions as “errors of cognition that come about for understandable reasons and that provide information relevant to understanding normal functioning.” Cognitive illusion is an error in judgment that occurs when there is a correct solution. Some
examples of this are known as heuristics, or rules-of-thumb that people use to help them make decisions. One heuristic called the availability heuristic, for example, often leads people to reason that easily remembered information is a common occurrence. Suppose a person is out at night in a particular section of town on a regular basis and often notices the poor lighting there. At a town meeting, he may be insistent that that section of town has the worst lighting, because he so often notices it. Another type of heuristic thinking is called the representativeness heuristic. This occurs when a person makes a judgment assuming that the process will lead to the outcome (Galotti, 1994). An example would be when a teacher meets the youngest sibling in a family of high-academic achievers and assumes that the student can and will perform at the same level of quality as the other students in his/her family. The teacher is assuming that since other siblings performed well, it was in some way attributable to membership in that family. While these can be very useful and helpful in making decisions, they also can lead to errors in judgement, and should not be used as the sole basis of decision making.

Framing effects and illusory correlation are cognitive illusions that are often used by people in command. The first involves presenting the information so that the idea seems to be an improvement, which makes people more likely to be supportive, while the second involves seeing connections that don’t exist. These cognitive illusions occurs often in society, such as when a politician stands for many of the same things as their opponent, but make his/her own ideas look better (and their opponents’ worse) in the manner that they discuss the issues. A true leader should not have to attempt to manipulate any follower or listener in this way. In leadership development programs, in addition to teaching students to be aware of these cognitive illusions, students should be
taught that leaders should learn to “sell” their ideas by presenting quality material and ideas that will work, while respecting the intelligence of the listener, assuming that the listener can come to the right decision.

The media today plays on the idea that anything can be sold if it is framed correctly. For example, some students may not care which student leaders are elected class officers, and may not be interested in voting. However, if there is a great deal of publicity regarding the importance to vote and be heard (framing effects), and that if they do vote, their needs will be addressed (illusory correlation), it could have a quite an impact on whether or not they vote.

Increasing the Quality of Decisions Multiattribute Utility Theory is one example of a theory of decision making used to judge the possible outcomes of a given decision. The theory involves:

1. breaking a decision into independent dimensions;
2. determining the relative weights of each dimension;
3. listing all the alternatives;
4. ranking the alternatives along the dimensions;
5. multiplying the ranking by the weighting of each alternative to determine its final value; and
6. choosing the alternative with the highest value. (Galotti, 1994)

The Multiattribute Utility Theory is one method that can be taught to students about how they could go about making a decision. For example, in choosing an apartment, a student may decide that the three considerations for the decision will be location, affordability, and physical condition. The student may then decide that 50% of the decision will be based on location, 40% on affordability, and 10% on condition
(hence the weights five, four, and one, respectively). Perhaps the student comes across an
apartment that he/she would rate a nine on location, a two on affordability, and a six on
condition. These numbers would be multiplied by the weights previously assigned in that
category (five multiplied by nine for location, four multiplied by two on affordability, and
one multiplied by six on condition). These numbers would be added for a total of fifty-nine. Once the student did this for all the of apartments being considered, the apartment
with the highest number would be chosen. What is most important, however, is not that
the students memorize and use this technique, but rather use it to come up with an idea as
to how they might go about making a decision. Students need to be shown that the
different methods and skills that they have can always be improved and increased. By
remaining objective and focused, students can look for new and creative ways to tailor
their technique to fit.

Implementing the Program

Tailoring the Activities to the Lesson

Depending on what is being taught, the teaching strategy needs to be tailored to
convey most optimally the subject matter. While some topics may require more practical
work by using the skills being focused upon, others may require more philosophical
discussions about the nature of the skill and its role in creating a strong leader.

There are many types of programs and activities that can be utilized to teach
different types of lessons. Basic group activities that encourage trust building and team
building can be very helpful in teaching different ways of working with groups. It has
been found that group work encourages higher reasoning strategies and a greater focus on critical thinking skills, as opposed to competitive and individualistic learning strategies (Costa, 1985). Group dynamics issues are very important to this type of program as most leaders spend a great deal of time working with groups. Janosik & Sina (1993) state that role playing, simulation games, and the use of videotapes can provide valuable learning experiences for students, provided that the material is enjoyable, concise and, most importantly, relevant.

Students should be encouraged to use methods of self-assessment to judge their progress, such as pre-tests, journal keeping, and talking in dyads. Formal activities, such as group discussions about the students’ progress, encouraging this self-assessment may prove to be very helpful. Teaching concentration and attention skills and encouraging metacognition may be very helpful for the students in monitoring their progress.

Presentation

From the start, the facilitators need constantly to model what they are trying to teach. Staying very positive and working to motivate students to succeed is another way that the facilitators are leading by example, as the future leaders learning from them will see how they are to behave. The programs should be designed so that the facilitator is consistently working just above the intellectual and developmental level of the student. Working at this level challenges the student yet allows her/him to succeed, without feeling bored or discouraged (Stage, 1991). By challenging students and allowing them to succeed, the facilitators are also teaching by example, showing the students how much they can learn and grow, if they are willing to work towards that goal.
Questions about the presented material should be encouraged, and should be discussed with a great deal of follow-through. All questions should be treated with a great deal of respect, and disagreement should be encouraged, so as to create a safe environment to present ideas. Facilitators need to remain flexible and realize that what they have on their agenda may have to be changed to fit the students’ needs. Again, the premise that what needs to be learned is more important than what needs to be taught should underlie all planning, meetings, and activities. In addition to staying in tune with the reactions and behaviors of the students, facilitators need continually to request feedback on what is going on in the classroom and on the progress of the students. Even if the facilitator is giving a lecture, participation should be encouraged. Students should not always be forced to sit into straight rows, but rather be placed in a seating arrangement that invites discussion, such as a circle.

Conclusion

The role of cognitive psychology in the development of leaders is certainly substantial. In fact, one cannot teach leadership skills without examining the way that the mind works. Only by improving certain cognitive processes can a person’s leadership abilities be developed to succeed in a variety of situations. While there are other factors that could contribute to one’s ability to lead, such as natural talents and education, training programs need to be focused around improving the cognitive processes discussed in this chapter. Administrators need to keep this in mind when developing leadership programs. Leadership development should be integrated into every classroom, constantly giving the students the opportunity to practice leadership skills, as well as creating an
atmosphere and culture that embraces leadership. Administrators need to give students
the opportunity to take on leadership roles in extra-curricular activities as well,
encouraging new clubs and student input in collegial decisions. By embracing leadership
within the university, students will graduate understanding the value of their personal
leadership potential and show that leadership in society.
CHAPTER 4
THE ROLE OF ASSESSMENT FOR LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT

Importance of Evaluation

Assessment is the act of determining the value of something (Webster, 1989). Assessment means looking critically at something, gathering as much information as possible about it, and making a judgment based on that. Since assessment is a vital tool in leadership, it must therefore be used in creating, implementing, and evaluating a program of leadership development. Stage (1991) discussed four ways that a means towards establishing assessment will benefit student development:

First, there will be more general discussion of the goals of higher education relative to growth and development of the college student; second, college and university professionals will identify outcomes to be assessed—affective and cognitive as well as psychological and behavioral (Astin, Panos, & Creager, 1967); third, various college professionals will seek to develop better measures of these outcomes; fourth, and last, regular measurement of large numbers of college students will occur providing replication and verification of theories and measures of those theories.

Assessment is a vote for change, a constant wish to adapt for excellence. As with any positive influence, it leads to an appreciation and a culture of searching for the
answers. Administrators who encourage assessment are encouraging the quest for knowledge, something so important in all of life, and especially on a college campus.

Another important lesson is that of the importance of self-assessment when judging what a person is working on. This reinforces the quality of assessing oneself in daily life, while striving for excellence. Keeping an open mind and looking for the questions and the answers are educational tools. They are skills just as valuable to leadership as problem solving and decision making. In leadership development plans, this area is vital, as facilitators strive to teach this by example.

Evaluation is extremely important for the creation, design, implementation, and/or improvement of any program. Anthony-Gonzalez and Fiutak (1981) claimed that there are three basic premises to evaluation:

"(a) it is a process of assessing the effect and/or value of an activity, or set of activities;
(b) it is a communication device for program planners, participants, and decision-makers; and
(c) it is a planning device for modifying programs during the planning stage in order to maximize the achievement of program goals" (Chambers, 1994).

These are all certainly true and valuable aspects, yet there are additional reasons for implementing a program of evaluation. First, it is an indispensable learning experience. For the participant, it requires practicing one’s self-examination skills, general assessment skills, and reasoning skills. In the design of the evaluation program, the administrators must practice the same skills, as well as gain more experience in evaluating, as it has a great deal of value in leadership development programs and all programs in general. Also, assessment is forward thinking. It involves looking at the
whole picture in order to plan the best foreseen path. It is so important to remember the purpose of any program. The needs of the participants must stay in the forefront of the minds of leaders— not what are thought to be their needs, not what their needs were two years ago, and not what the needs of a different but similar group were. Assessment and evaluation need to be combined in a continuous, conscious action within the organization. They help administrators to look at their past and present in order to best prepare for the future. They can uncover cycles that need to be broken, as continual improvement is pursued (Dressel, 1961).

Laying the Foundation

The foundation of any education program is determining what needs to be learned. Notice the difference between what needs to be learned and what needs to be taught. In developing a solid leadership development program, the first step is a large-scale needs analysis project, such as written surveys, oral interviews, and pre-tests. Although this may be quite time consuming, it is vital to creating a worthwhile program.

Understanding that every institution is different and that every student is different, colleges must do their own institution-specific research designed to find the needs of their students. Although information about programs at different schools may be helpful, it is imperative to keep in mind that relevant data is the most important kind. Studies done even five years ago at a prestigious university could be absolutely valueless to a school with different demographics of students, not to mention the extreme differences in the campus environment from school to school.
Pre-tests and self-assessment tests need to be given to current students. Questioning students about where they are and where they want to be and why is vital. Once there is a good assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the group being taught, then the college can begin to set goals for the program. For example, if students are very interested in problem solving, that should be included in the curriculum. If they feel they would benefit from a mentorship, there should be a mentorship component in the program.

What Is Assessed?

Needs of Students Before a leadership program can be developed, a large-scale survey of the needs of the students must be done. Students' backgrounds and the demographics of the institution need to be taken into account. The administrators need to find out which skills are desired and/or needed. Students need to be surveyed and spoken to, as well as employers and career counselors. Every community, every college is different and will need to address the specific needs of its students.

The Campus Climate The responsiveness and support available for implementing such a program needs also to be considered, in order to discover the probability for success. Janosik and Sina (1988) discussed the four factors needed to be taken into consideration when looking at the campus climate in order to determine the feasibility of the program's success. They are: (1) the degree of support available, (2) the degree of student interest, (3) the number of competing programs already in existence, and (4) the
campus politics that may affect the program's success or failure. Is the community as a whole, faculty, students, and administration supportive of the plans to implement a program? If not, how can their needs be fulfilled? The ease of the program's success and the usefulness of such a program at all may rely heavily on these answers. Administrators need to see where the support is and why, in order to make the most effective program possible. By doing this, the administrators planning the program will have better preparation for the roadblocks that they may encounter as well as the ability to plan to avoid them. For example, gaining the support of the college president or another influential administrator may be the best way of convincing another to support the program.

**Needs of Facilitators** Administrators also need to look at the needs of the people running the program. Will they need extra training? What supplies do they need? Do more people need to be hired? More broadly, what resources are available to ensure proper functioning of the program? Often, the needs of the students overshadow the needs of other groups to the point that the program cannot run efficiently without attending to those other groups. As evaluation typically affects a wide range of students, evaluating the students needs will affect the facilitators as they will seek to respond to those needs. Without taking into consideration the situation of this group, the implementation of the program may not be completed.

**Uniqueness of Campus** Kuh and Witt (1988) wrote about the four major dimensions describing the uniqueness of an institution's culture: the external
environment that surrounds the campus, the college or university itself, subcultures within the institution (e.g., faculty, academic advisors, residence life staff), and individual actors in their roles (e.g., the college president, the chief student affairs officer, the student government president) (Stage, 1991). Although there are no two identical college communities, it may be helpful to research how other schools and institutions have gone about creating such a program. While the content of their data collected may be absolutely irrelevant for the purpose of surveys and information gathering, it may suggest a new place to look and new questions to ask. As long as institutions rely on their own data about their own students, outside information may help point the developers in the right direction. The particular demographics of the institution are extremely important to consider when assessing the needs of the students. The heterogeneity or homogeneity of the students and college community as a whole concerning certain areas such as race and gender, is vital information when developing the program. Also, if there is a shift in the make-up of the members of the community over time, the program needs to reflect that shift, in order to address the needs of all of the people involved.

How is it Examined?

In addition to the traditional methods of evaluation such as surveys and questionnaires, Kuh, et al. (1987, in Kuh & Andreas, 1991) stress engagement between student affairs professionals and students as the best way to understand the needs and present situation of students. They claim that this approach runs counter to the traditional research methods in which the evaluators remain “detached from the subjects” in order to
remain “objective.” However, this method is focused around making observations about entire categories of people, ignoring individual needs and differences within the group.

Kuh et al. claim that there are three types of information needed by administrators to effectively do their job: research, evaluation, and policy analysis.

Research is disciplined inquiry conducted to analyze a problem in order to achieve understanding and guide decision making (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Evaluations are undertaken to determine the merit worth of an activity or the performance of an individual or group. In general, evaluation results are used to improve performance (formative evaluation) or to estimate the impact of a program, service, or individual or group activity (summary evaluation) (Brown, 1979).


This is a guideline that can be used when deciding about which types of evaluation methods to use for certain aspects of the development, implementation and continual improvement of the program.

A broad range of faculty, staff, and students should be involved in the planning, and implementation of the various aspects of the leadership program (Roberts & Ullom, 1989). When conducting a wide-scale evaluation, administrators may not know where to look. Students could aid in both the direction-finding of student needs, and the implementation of the surveying and interviewing. Likewise, a faculty member may have a better idea as to the types of concerns that may affect faculty. This insight can be extremely helpful. Recruiting different types of people may also help to increase program support within these groups.
The Mission Statement

A mission statement based on all of the research and information collected should be developed clearly outlining the goals and purpose of the program. The program’s mission statement should be considered throughout each stage of the implementation process and beyond. It should be a clear summary expressing the needs of the college community and the way that the program will fulfill those needs. Other philosophies of the program should be incorporated as well, such as the pursuit of constant improvement, the accessibility of the program, etc. The mission statement should not be used as a design for the program, but rather convey the meaning and purpose behind the program. All decisions made from then on should be directly in line with the set goals.

During and After the Program

**Flexibility** Throughout any training sessions, facilitators should be consistently requesting feedback, both through formal methods, such as written surveys, and informal discussions. Facilitators should also be aware of other methods of assessment, such as by watching body language and by looking at attrition rates from the program. Again, a key factor for success is staying flexible. While requesting feedback is important, it must be understood that what is said is important and should be acted upon. Regardless of how much planning went into a certain activity, for example, if the students are not getting anything out of it and have communicated this, the facilitators need to be prepared with a backup plan. Feedback is worthless if it is not used to benefit the students. Requesting
opinions is an unspoken commitment that everything will be done to ensure the satisfaction of the person or persons being questioned.

**Surveys** Beyond periodic check-in sessions, a formal method of evaluation, such as a written survey asking questions about the effectiveness of a certain section, should be pre-planned for the end of the program and individual stages of the program. Immediate reflection is extremely valuable as emotion and memory are most likely to be strongest closest to the program. Questions about the goals of the program are very important. How did the students feel about their development of the different leadership skills? Are the outcomes what the students expected? Are the students happy that they participated?

**Studying Long-Term Effects** Follow-up surveys, such as a written and oral, are also important in terms of studying the presence or lack of long-range program effectiveness. Questions such as the retention of the skills taught, the applicability of what was learned and the personal growth outcomes when asked about the effects of the programs, a few months or even a few years after the completion of the program should be included. Questions such as these will be valuable in the assessment. While these long-term studies are time-intensive, they are valuable in showing if there are any patterns or trends that could be studied to make the program more effective. In fact, that question is very important. What changes would you suggest we make in order to teach more effectively? By offering open-ended questions that do not restrict the participants to simply the answers the administrators were anticipating, the more informative and productive the process will be.
Rules By Which to Evaluate

There are many rules and facets of good evaluating that need to be taken into consideration when developing a system to do such. The following are the five most important guidelines in developing a good system of evaluation.

1) Know Your Goals

One of the most important factors in evaluation is to be always conscious of the goals that have been set. While the goals will very likely change over time as more information is taken in and more clarity is given to the direction of the program, it is important to be very conscious of the purpose of the program. The mission may simply be to create a program to help develop students' leadership abilities. As more information is taken in and processed, goals such as to building students' confidence in their problem solving techniques could be added to the list. No decisions can be made without constantly relating the information collected with the direct goals of the program.

Student need is the most important factor in planning any leadership development program. Once the individual needs of the students participating in the program are assessed, decisions can be made about exactly what the program will contain and how the program will be taught. The effects of the program should be anticipated by creating the most beneficial and thorough program possible, and should be monitored throughout and after the duration of the program.
When doing evaluations both before, during and after the program, keep in mind the consequences of the use of the data for decision making. That is to say, realize that your data may be used for many purposes beyond simply the planning of the program. Funding may be contingent on the data collected. In a time when resources are so scarce, being able to provide financial information in terms of the service provided could mean the difference between the continuation of funding or not (Sedlacek, 1987). Prospective students may be using the data to help in their decision making of whether or not they wish to attend the institution where the program is offered. Prospective faculty or facilitators may rely on the data collected to decide whether or not they wish to begin or continue working within such a program. Realize that the data collected could lead to program recognition or criticism. By keeping in mind the uses of your research, the most pertinent questions can be posed in order to answer the varied questions of all the different people interested.

2) Don't Predict the Results

Keeping an open mind about what the outcomes will be while the instrument of evaluation is created as well as when feedback is received cannot be stressed enough. Hypothesizing can often lead to shock when the results were never previously considered. It can also lead to the unconscious tailoring of one's evaluation to fit one's hypotheses. By remaining objective in one's thoughts about the outcomes, one is able to think more critically and more creatively when looking for the cause of the unexpected data. Understanding the nature of bias and its detrimental effects on evaluation is critical. Not
only can bias skew the information that is received, but how the information is understood.

The evaluators need to put aside their preconceived notions about the program, the people who have been surveyed, and other value judgments they may or may not have in order to see the information more clearly. An administrator should not go into the analysis of the information collected with the idea that the opinion of a certain group is not important, or with a judgment about the responses of certain people or groups. Racial, gender, and all categorical biases should be placed aside in order to judge most efficiently the information. While differences in the responses of certain groups may be valuable, biases against those groups are not. Likewise, administrators should look for bias in the responses that they receive. For example, if there is a great deal of racial tension at the institution and some of the information collected reflects that, that is more information to use in the creation of the program. An institution in that situation could extend their planned seminars on open-mindedness and acceptance as part of being a leader. No information should be dismissed based on an evaluator’s feeling about the topic. While not every response may be perfectly relevant to the creation of the program, all statements should be judged as important to an individual, and therefore to a portion of the group.

3) Evaluate According to Your Goals

Once administrators have established the goals of the program, they will be able to assess it in line with those goals. Issues such as the outcomes of the leadership training, how the training was run or structured and the effectiveness of teaching skills all
need to be addressed. One of the most important goals may be teaching students various types of problem solving skills. In that instance, the best way to judge the level of success would be by offering students the opportunity to show their skills, rather than simply asking their perceptions of how their skills increased. However, tests would be incomplete without asking student opinion as it should be assumed that students will not enter the program with identical levels of problem solving skills. Asking their opinion about their levels of skill entering the program will serve as the monitor for how far they have come, not simply where they are when they have left. A person quite adept in problem solving from the start could show amazing scores on final tests without having gained anything new from participating in the program.

4) Know Your Restrictions (Potential and Present)

Knowing one's restrictions is important when examining the potential and the effectiveness of anything. A program designed without taking into account external forces, while it may be a huge success in a perfect world or in a bubble, could fail at the first outside disturbance. For example, evaluating the needs and effectiveness of a leadership program takes a great deal of time. This is extremely important when developing a time line for the program. While it may be desirable to have the program start for the following fall, it simply may be unable to be done correctly if the planning and assessment stages are cut short.

Hanson discussed two external forces that improve the kinds of evaluation that takes place at universities.
First, the definition of educational quality has switched from placing emphasis on the input characteristics of the students and the resources and asset allocation of the institution to placing emphasis on quality in terms of what students have learned (Astin, 1987). What do they know when they leave your campus?... Second, the external constituencies interested in higher education will force a difficult choice for accountability and institutional self-improvement (Ewell, 1986). (Hanson, 1990).

Reliance on Outside Information Using information from published studies about the needs of college students may also be unproductive given that ordinarily what is printed today is based on research from at least two years ago (Stage, 1991). The current picture of college student development, according to Stage, is based on information gathered about college students ten years ago. While other schools can serve as models for how a campus may be, administrators need to rely first and foremost on their own information to assess truly the students at their institution.

Nature of the Beast The development of leadership skills is inherently difficult to evaluate because so many factors may contribute to it, such as maturity and non-academic influences. There are many tests and surveys that can be given in an attempt to assess the growth of the students and the improvement of their skills, but it should be recognized that evaluating the development of leadership skills is an inherently difficult task. Upon realizing and accepting that fact, administrators need to work to overcome the natural difficulties in evaluating such incalculable topics, such as creativity and critical thinking. Perhaps one of the best ways to do this is by deciding specifically what the program is
trying to accomplish in noticeable ways, and judging based on that. Whatever method is
used, it is important that administrators work to overcome the difficulty in

5) Utilize Both Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods

Both qualitative and quantitative types of surveying can serve as useful tools in
the different forms of assessment that occur when designing and examining the effects of
a leadership program. Qualitative methods are methods relating to the quality of the
experience. An example of qualitative method of analysis would be a survey with open­
ended questions trying to identify how effective the person thought the program was.
Quantitative methods are methods that focus on numbers and more measurable data. An
example of a quantitative method would be a survey that asked what percentage the
person’s ability increased in a certain area.

Depending on what is being researched, one method may be better than another,
and it is important to weigh the value of both in any given situation. For example, it may
be your goal to find out how many people use in their current jobs the critical and
creative thinking skills that were taught in the program. This could be done by checking
boxes on a survey as to how many times a week they have utilized them. What is also
important to know, however, is how using the skills has affected their overall job
performance or, perhaps, how what was learned in the program aided the participants’
upward mobility within their place of employment. When assessing the needs of students
while developing the leadership program, it may be important to ask how people assess
their own leadership skills, what they are interested in learning, and why. However, it
could also be useful to include a quantitative survey asking questions such as how often
they encounter problems that need to be solved and how effective their skills have been. Both qualitative and quantitative types of surveying can serve as useful tools in the different forms of assessment that occur when designing and examining the effects of a leadership program.

**Know Your Reader** Take into account the different groups of people that will be interested in your research. By knowing the different purposes for which the data will be used may help determine when qualitative analysis would be more effective and when quantitative analysis would be more effective. Budgeting offices may be more interested in the net benefit per participant: the average student uses the skills learned six times per week and says that his/her upward mobility has been improved by ten percent. A prospective student may be far more interested in the story about Sue, a former participant and huge advocate of the program who graduated from her poor, urban high school and went on to college and claims that the leadership program she participated in was instrumental in her future career and improving her life. By addressing the research towards each of the people interested, the work done becomes far more useful and beneficial to the community as a whole.

**Open-ended Questions** Although it can be difficult to get the type of feedback that is needed, people conducting surveys often ask only what they believe to be the very most important questions, in the hopes that at least information about those will be given. Unfortunately, when that approach is taken, that will most likely be all of the information collected. The rule is, “If you want something, you need to ask.” Few people are going
to go out of their way to let you know the influence the program had on them. Certainly put the most important questions first on any written survey, but provide open-ended questions that allow the person to give as much information as she/he wants. Oral surveying and interviews can be extremely effective ways to get the information needed, as people can spend five minutes constantly giving feedback rather than making the time to spend five minutes writing their responses, and then taking the time and trouble to return the survey. Unfortunately, this method is extremely time consuming for the administrators collecting the data. Again, it is important to do the best job possible while accepting the limitations imposed. Certainly people could be hired to go out and survey people, and for some institutions this may work quite well. For other institutions, however, this may be an inappropriate expenditure of too large a portion of the funding. Some examples of open-ended questions that could pertain to creating a leadership development program would be: What characteristic do you think is most important in a leader and why? What are your motivations for wanting to develop your leadership potential? And, how do you prefer to be taught?

Conclusion

By asking the right questions before, during, and after the creating and implementation of the program, administrators can assure that the program they create fulfills a need within their community. To do this requires that the creators be willing to accept what they find, and work within the environment that they have. This acceptance of whatever information is gathered is what will allow improvement and progress to be
made. A program that is not created solely to meet the needs of the college community will not be able to do so.
CHAPTER 5

CONSIDERATIONS FOR BUDGET AND PLANNING FOR A CRITICAL THINKING STUDENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

The Budget Crisis

Because of the multi-faceted role that higher education provides, the amount of money that could be put to use in any given college or university is perfectly elastic. Unfortunately, due to the decreases in state and federal funding as well as increasing pressure to stop the rise of tuition, the competition for resources within and among institutions of higher education is extraordinary. Tough decisions need to be made and colleges need to rely on as many tools as they can. Assessing the importance of programs is key, and the strategic plan, the document defining what is “important” to the college, can be an excellent guide. Smart administrators, when developing a budget request, know the importance of stating the unique strengths, the goals planned to be achieved, the values governing program assessment, a planning process that involves a wide variety of planners from the college community and a wide base of general understanding and support for the program (Lisensky, 1988). In order to survive in this environment, student affairs staff need to develop the most efficient, most cost-effective program possible, long before a budget request is ever submitted. Looking critically at a program
requires examining your strengths and weaknesses in terms of human capital, financial resources, quality of facilities, program, image, and the character of the organization (Shirley, 1988). Evaluating all areas of the new program and the existing structure in which it shall operate allows for better decisions to be made to the production, implementation, and improvement of the program. The stronger the program, the stronger the presentation will be when requesting funding.

Kuh and Nuss list a variety of questions for student affairs administrators to ask themselves when designing a program and creating a budget request.

- What does the student affairs budget support at the present?
- Does the budget reflect institutional values and priorities?
- Are some costs avoidable?
- Can some programs be discontinued?
- What opportunities can be enhanced, and for whom, by providing additional services or programs?
- Can some programs pay their own way?
- Do financial limitations inhibit the division from making even greater contributions to the institution’s mission and the quality of campus life? (1990)

The answers to these questions can lead to problems being solved before they occur and to efficient budget submissions, as well an improvement of the management of the office.

The financial problems that colleges and universities across the board have experienced have led to a re-prioritization of the values and goals that a university espouses. This is being done in an attempt to eliminate the waste of scarce resources on unproductive programs and mismanaged offices. In order to do this, a wide scale assessment must take place, in order to determine the status of different departments, the
needs of the college community, the feasibility for change, etc. As much financial data as possible is taken in, bottom lines are compared, and cuts are being made (Meyerson, 1985).

**Rating Effectiveness**

So what does this mean for programs which, inherent in their existence, do not have a bottom line? Even with qualitative research done assessing the personal and professional “values” of participating in such a program, it is impossible to judge the fiscal return for having participated in, or for having offered the program. This is also true in the academic departments as well, but in those areas colleges can look at the number of people who continue in their field, etc. Still, this counters the attitude of faculty and administrators in academe who feel that it is a virtual faux-pas to question the effectiveness and purpose of certain academic instruction. For leadership programs, the judgment dilemma is far worse. How can one put a value, monetary or not, on the benefits of having improved one’s ability to solve problems? How can a student even make an accurate description of the amount of improvement in these types of skills? Certainly this can be tried, offering pre-tests and post-tests and other quantitative methods of determining the value of participation in the program. However, these methods cannot show a rise in the number of qualified leaders graduated. Even with time, this is impossible to assess with any degree of accuracy. After all, how can one assess whether a person’s success in a leadership position was a result of having participated in a certain program of leadership development? This type of cognitive growth is incredibly difficult to measure and monitor (Chambers, 1994).
Implications for Student Services  Because of this, student life and student
services programs are often more justifiable to cut, when the tough decisions have to be
made. In addition to the great deal of competition for funds between the academic realm
and student affairs in general, there is also growing competition between programs within
student affairs, making the battle twofold. As with academic departments which serve
only a small portion of the student body, without the numbers for defense, even the most
adept of programs can be cut. An administrator may have a difficult time funding a
leadership program over a career services internship program where one can actually see
the number of students with internships, the amount of money earned, etc. Despite the
fact that the leadership program may reach a greater number of students and have
fantastic reviews from the students participating, there is not a quantitative value that can
be placed on the experience, no computation of the return on the investment (Sedlacek,
1987).

Solutions  There are several ways that student affairs administrators can preserve
the existence and growth of their leadership program funding. To start, promoting the
value of the program in order to build community support can be key to retain funding
and/or increase funding. The purposes behind the program need to be causes that the
college community can and will believe in, and therefore find valuable. Links need to be
made to other areas which are highly esteemed, such as academia. When leadership
programs are seen as academic, they are removed from the realm of the extra-curricular

68
and placed into what is considered the most vital of aspect of a university. While it certainly happens that academics are cut, it is usually done with far more reservations.

Student affairs administrators should also be constantly engaged in an assessment process of discovering student need as well as evaluating the results of the program on an on-going basis. This not only will help collect the data needed to prove the need and effectiveness of the program over time, but will also encourage constant improvement and flexibility within the program, making it inherently more effective. Talking with students about their needs can teach administrators a great deal about the academic preparation, motives, aspirations, values, and interests of their students in order to create a program that is student-centered (Fretwell, 1996). Because budgeting and fiscal management often do not accompany the training and education with which student affairs officers enter their profession, student affairs officers need to make themselves as aware as they can be about the workings of the budget system and the politics behind that system. Most student affairs professionals do not have the proper expertise to analyze direct and indirect costs, as well as either short- or long-term contributions of the program to the institution's mission (Kuh & Nuss, 1990). They should also take every advantage of their strengths, and aid the preservation of the program by working to do things such as build support and conduct surveys.

Creativity, Flexibility, and Accountability Meyerson states that,
and reinforced the importance of finding alternative resources (1985).

The budget crisis calls for creativity in how one goes about funding programs. Fundraising events, working with the Development Office, and the willingness to reallocate among programs are extremely important to the preservation of programs with insecure or nonexistent funding. Flexibility about combining services and reallocating tasks can often lead to solutions that may have gone unseen. When as many sources of funding as possible are searched out and received, the dependency of the program’s existence on any one source is decreased. Also, showing a history of fiscal responsibility and other program effectiveness can aid in the strength of the funding proposal. A history of fiscal responsibility and careful monitoring can demonstrate two things: 1) the chief administrator’s understanding of the working of the budget system and the ability to transfer resources when needed and 2) the administrator’s history of fiscal responsibility (Kuh & Ness, 1990).

The Strategic Plan

The Vision

The vision of the strategic plan should seek to develop the optimal relationship between institutional capabilities and values, on the one hand, and environmental needs and opportunities, on the other (Shirley, 1988). Strategic planning is an extremely important to the proper function of any program, university, or department. By outlining the goals and mission, the solutions are given more direction. By defining the college’s
mission and the goals, a groundwork is laid allowing for the ability to make changes at all levels of the system. The mission statement plays a powerful role in getting the college or university community to focus its energies and creativity on the special qualities that make their college or university unique (Townsend, Newell, and Wise, 1992, in Fretwell, 1996).

The strategic plan of the institution that is actively pursued by the members of the university can lead to great change. Therefore, a great deal of importance should be placed on the creation of such a document and the establishment of the institution's goals, if one does not already exist. While the majority of universities refer in some way to their goal to create leaders, leadership development should be incorporated into the plan, just as the strengthening of academic departments or changes in admissions standards may be included, for example. Strategic planning must be strongly decision-oriented if it is to succeed. When the hard issues are avoided, planning efforts quickly lose credibility; thus, a strong commitment to make decisions must precede the planning process (Shirley, 1988). By encouraging participation from all areas of the college community, not only will more information be taken into account when planning, but a wide range of people will have the opportunity to gain experience in a group decision making task, through developing or modifying the strategic plan.

Guide to Decision-Making The strategic plan offers guidance as to the importance areas in which to invest. Strategic issues, that is, areas that have been determined to be vital to the college’s mission, should be and typically are given the highest priority in funding. Proof of this is the declining physical plant across the
country, as institutions have been allocating their resources almost solely to investments in other, strategic issues. Therefore, the importance of such a document to the continuation of a program or department is phenomenal. Is the program vital to the mission of the college (not to be confused with the mission statement of the program described on page 48-49). Does the program separate the college or university from similar institutions? The question is not simply how the program affects its participants, but how it affects the college as a whole. A good strategic plan addresses eight issues which need to be resolved in order to define the institution’s mission. They are:

- Fundamental purposes and overall goals
- Special characteristics
- Constituencies to be served
- Geographic service area
- Major emphases and commitments
- Academic freedom and corollary obligations
- Form of governance and management
- Community and civic obligations (Shirley, 1988).

A weak or conflicted sense of mission, as described in Fretwell (1996), can often be caused by growth that comes naturally and without internal confrontation over purpose, strategy, or objectives. This laissez-faire approach to achieving change leaves the college without the many benefits of strategic planning: empowering the college community, assessing the state of the university, promoting improvement in the most important areas, allowing the community to work together for the benefit of the university and requesting input from a wide variety of people. By calling for a strategic plan, you are calling for the support of the college community. Once that support is given, it is instrumental to real change.
Linking Programs to the Strategic Plan

By relating the program to the different aspects considered in the strategic plan, there is a far greater likelihood that the program will be seen as important to the success of the institution. How will the leadership development program affect the outside community? Who will benefit from the program? What makes the program unique? Unlike an outline used to guide, strategic plans are often so encompassing that there is often little likelihood that anything not included in the strategic plan will be given priority. Therefore, student affairs administrators should make every effort, in the design of the college strategic plan, to include the goals of the leadership program within the goals of the university. The goals of the leadership program not only should encourage funding, but will also provide a way for student affairs administrators to see that they are on the right track in terms of creating a program to suit the university. If a program to develop leadership skills and abilities in students is virtually unrelated to the purpose of the institution, structural and attitude changes may very well need to proceed the implementation of any such program. Fretwell (1996) described effectiveness as not only having a valid mission but the competence to pursue it. The start of a beneficial program is twofold, both creating and implementing it. Leadership programs need to be created that work not only in theory, but in practice, and in the institution for which they are designed.
Implications for the Future

Form and Function

The questions asked above by Kuh and Nuss are extremely interesting as they discuss the topic of whether form follows function. Is the college going to fund the leadership program because the college community values the teaching of leadership skills? Or will the college fund the program because of the politicking and coalition building that takes place during the budgeting process? Or, worse, will the college deny the funding of the leadership program not because the mission does not include graduating leaders, but for external reasons, such as the inability to produce hard numbers about the program’s effectiveness? Even in a perfect world of unlimited resources, form should always follow function. That is to say, programs that are not related to the goals of the university should not be undertaken and funded. Is it a fair excuse for colleges and universities to cut programs important to the college’s mission due to lack of funding? It is understandable to any rational person that there is only a certain amount of money to go around. However, when the lack of funding translates into changing and unfulfilled goals, the college has allowed the form to take over the function.

Colleges and universities have been forced to shift from the classical model of education that was created with beginning of higher education in the early schools, to a system that better fits the needs of today’s students. Since the Morrill Act, colleges have begun a shift to teach what society wanted them to teach, rather than what the educators chose to teach. In the nineties, colleges are being expected to educate the “whole” student, not simply allow for academic instruction to encompass the entire learning
process. Leadership programs, which stress critical and creative thinking skills, problem solving skills, public speaking skills, and other leadership skills are a vital aspect in this plan to educate the entire student. Now the form needs to change to follow this function, and, at many institutions, this is happening too slowly. Leadership development needs to be in the forefront of the minds of administrators and planners. The budget process needs to reflect this new role of higher education.

Resilience

A resilient school is one that is successful in attracting, holding and adding value to its students (Fretwell, 1996). Fretwell describes the three characteristics of a resilient school as 1) being distinct from other institutions; 2) being effective in achieving its mission; and 3) achieving quality - giving students the knowledge, skills, and values they need to be autonomous, achieving adult citizens. A strong, effective leadership program can be instrumental in achieving this. Fretwell discusses five ways that colleges and universities can develop resilience and differentiate themselves. They include building on existing strengths, deciding from which competitors one should be different, recruiting particular kinds of students, developing unique approaches to the undergraduate experience, and meeting the basic educational and service needs of the community or region (Fretwell, 1996). By carving out a place for the institution which allow its uniqueness to stand out, a job that can be done only by that institution is created.

Leadership development programs foster good citizenship. They teach the importance of overcoming bias and testing one’s assumptions. Morality and ethics are inherent in teaching students the characteristics of a leader. The future presidents,
principals, clergy, CEO's, politicians and parents are being taught in our school system and in higher education and it is the duty of higher education to prepare them to serve and to lead.

The economic situation of institutions of higher education has been changing and will constantly change. The need for particular types of workers is also a sign of the times, whether the economy needs people who are trained for agriculture, technology, or the humanities. There is a great deal of turnover among academic leaders in higher education, and each person has a different agenda and opinions about the place of higher education in society. One of the few aspects of higher education that has remained unchanged throughout the years is its role in developing leaders. While there will always be the debate as to the best way to do that, the burden and challenge of cultivating leaders will remain a primary, if not the primary, goal of higher education in America.


Sternberg (Eds.), *Teaching Thinking Skills: Theory and Practice* (pp. 182-218). New York: W. H. Freeman


