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What Kinds of Adolescent Leaders are Hiding in Newbery Books?

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WHAT KINDS OF ADOLESCENT LEADERS ARE HIDING IN NEWBERY BOOKS?

by

Carol Jasperse Lautenbach

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WHAT KINDS OF ADOLESCENT LEADERS ARE HIDING IN NEWBERY BOOKS?

Carol Jasperse Lautenbach, Ed.D.
Western Michigan University, 2004

Though adolescent leadership is worth developing, often it is not addressed effectively in the general middle school curriculum. This study addresses adolescent leadership by describing and discussing eight major leadership categories and 38 sub-categories found in seventeen representative Newbery Award-winning books. The sample was chosen using a multiple-step process and contained fictional stories with adolescent protagonists in realistic situations. Content analysis was used to quantify and analyze the leadership themes; a code book was used to organize data. Occurrence of each sub-category was ranked for prevalence within each book. These rankings form the basis for the analysis of findings which includes dominant and recessive trends within the categories and sub-categories as well as historical and gender trends within sub-categories. Some findings include: (a) an emphasis on the moral, personality, ambiguity, and subjective leadership perspectives; (b) sub-categories that were represented by all but one protagonist; (c) an emphasis early in the sample on other personality traits than those listed in the code book; (d) frequent displays of expertise only late in the sample. Also, some significant differences between genders exist in some sub-categories; for example, females are less likely to be portrayed as leaders because of their physical characteristics while males are less likely than females to value followers’ personal growth. In addition,
other findings, including apprentices and orphans as sub-groups, the role of peers in protagonists’ lives, the role model as nurturer of adolescent leadership, and leadership perspective variations between genders are described and discussed. These findings are used to analyze the hidden curriculum of work, parenting, friendship, individualism, and role modeling, and, in the larger context of the study as a whole, the hidden curriculum of adolescent leadership according to gender, cultural transformation, universality, and mentoring as implicit in the sample. Finally, a description of adolescent leadership emerges from the data: The adolescent leader is emotionally connected and relies on peers and role models as s/he willingly shares responsibility in a selfless way, as s/he discovers solutions to confusing leadership situations, and as s/he feels both interested and uncertain about the leadership situation.
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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Introduction

"Today’s youth are tomorrow’s leaders.” This statement, or variations of it, is a common slogan for school and/or youth organizations. It seems that the today-tomorrow time lag inherent in the words of the sentence represent a misunderstanding about leadership. After all, aren’t today’s youth today’s leaders? Or do leaders lie dormant for eighteen years then emerge suddenly—tomorrow—as full-grown leaders? Obviously not. Rather, today’s leaders are less like seeds and more like saplings that need nurturing, pruning and strengthening to develop.

If this premise is accepted then the following questions seem relevant: What is being done to nurture students as leaders—for today and for tomorrow? Are skills for leadership an implicit and/or an explicit part of the curriculum? If so, is adolescent literature used to instruct or expose students to leadership perspectives? Do the implicit messages and/or instruction change or vary over time or with gender? Is this instruction accessible to all students, or just to those who are gifted?

Assumptions and Background Information

The questions listed above are just a sampling of the many that could be asked. This study will be conducted under the following assumptions: (a) Language arts
classrooms are good venues for promoting leadership skills (and related character development) and perspectives using literature as the tool (Hayden, 1969; Hanna, 1964; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002); (b) Classes that are taught thematically result in deeper learning (Smagorinsky, 2000); (c) Leadership skills can be introduced effectively to the general population of elementary, middle, or high school students (Cox, 1988; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Fertman & Van Linden, 1999).

This research will focus on perspectives on leadership found in Newbery Award-winning books. These works of adolescent fiction are commonly studied, assigned, and read by students in language arts classrooms at a variety of grade levels (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002, p. 102):

Over the past 20 years, young adult literature has become the centerpiece of the English language arts curriculum in U.S. middle schools. Instead of relying primarily on anthologies, language arts texts, skills-based exercises, or worksheets, teachers are using authentic reading materials not only to help students improve fluency and comprehension but also to engender a love of literature. Among the most widely read titles in and out of school are books that have won the Newbery Medal. Named after British publisher John Newbery, the medal is awarded annually by the American Library Association for the most distinguished contribution to literature for children authored by a citizen or resident of the United States.

Textual analysis of the relevant literature texts using content analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998) as the method will allow the researcher to draw conclusions about leadership perspectives within the sample.

One must accept the premise that today’s youth are today’s leaders to accept that the research questions that follow are valid, useful, and worthwhile. Then, because learning that is connected to life is powerful (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002), leadership study seems a relevant theme to adolescent and young adult students (Fertman & Van Linden, 1999). Their lives are permeated with issues that have leadership concerns at
their core: peer pressure, parental rules, fitting in, relationships with the opposite sex, and finding their place in the world of work are examples of activities that all have a leadership component (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999).

This researcher speculates that leadership study may occur in the K–12 setting, but perhaps only for gifted students (Wynne, 1984) and/or for those in alternative education. Also, she wonders whether or not such training is effective. The implicit curriculum can be a very powerful voice in the classroom (Greene, 1983; Wren, 1999); examining what perspectives are portrayed and/or ignored in Newbery winners, books that have been labeled "exemplary" (Gillespie & Naden, 2001, p. xvii) and how the emphases changed over time and between genders could be first steps in harnessing the power of the implicit curriculum of leadership found in exemplary fiction.

Problem Statement

Leaders, it seems, rarely emerge from nowhere, with little or no experience in being a leader; rather, as developmental progress occurs and as opportunities present themselves, leaders become better able to perform the many tasks of leadership (Burns, 1978). Young people often take on many formal and informal leadership roles: at home, with groups of friends, as members of youth organizations and teams, and at school (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999). In many significant arenas, today’s youth are today’s leaders (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999).

It seems that adult leaders are given opportunities to develop their leadership skills—through collaborating with peers, training, mentoring relationships, and other activities. However, it seems youth rarely are asked to develop their leadership potential:
“Leadership remains an often-neglected, abstract concept [for young people] with educators themselves receiving little training in leadership skills and responsibilities” (Karnes & Stephens, 1999, p. 62). It seems as crucial to develop the leadership capabilities of youth as it is to develop adult capabilities.

Yet, few youth are exposed to leadership development, and, furthermore, little research exists which verifies the effectiveness of overt leadership training (Cox, 1988). However, when Cox (1988, p. 85) asked prominent adult leaders to identify experiences that were most important for developing leadership in today’s teens, one of the most common responses was “formal education.” This response ranked fifth in a list of seven. The responses, in order of frequency, were as follows (Cox, 1988, p. 85): “Experiences with mentors and nurturers,” “Significant Life/Background Experiences,” “Group Leadership Experiences,” “Collaborative Experiences,” “Formal Education,” “Employment and Internship Experiences,” and “Personal Development Experiences.” Study participants interpreted “formal education” as getting a good education, going to the right school, receiving field-specific training, participating in leadership and management training, and participating in liberal education. For teachers, it is good news that formal education made the list, because it means that a large, representative group of adult leaders in America think that education itself (as defined by participants) helped them become leaders. On the other hand, it seems this universal experience of American youth—formal education—should rank higher than fifth in a list of important leadership experiences.

Leadership is a skill that can and should be developed (Cox, 1988; Fertman & VanLinden, 1999). To understand the state of leadership development in the formal
educational setting, it seems crucial to identify where and how leadership perspectives are taught or encountered. Many venues could be chosen; this study will focus on leadership perspectives that are evident in seventeen Newbery winners. The Newbery medal is “awarded annually to the author of the most distinguished contribution to American literature for children published in the United States during the preceding year” (Gillespie & Naden, 2001, p. xvii). Newbery books are used for language arts instruction at a variety of grade levels (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002); if they contain leadership perspectives, they could be used to infuse “many leadership concepts...into the existing curriculum” (Karnes & Stephens, 1999, p. 62).

Purpose

The purpose of this project is to study the leadership perspectives embedded in a representative sample of Newbery books, thus adding knowledge and understanding to future discussions concerning these classroom resources. To accomplish this purpose, the researcher first identified leadership perspectives in representative Newbery Award-winning books, then drew conclusions and recommendations from the findings. The conclusions included comments on gender variations in leadership among protagonists and changes in portrayal of leadership perspectives over time. Because leadership perspectives were found in these materials, the study could persuade text editors, librarians, teachers, and authors to include leadership as a thematic focus in future works. Furthermore, the study was used to develop theory concerning leadership and gender, leadership in historical settings, and leadership and adolescents, and to reveal the hidden curriculum of adolescent leadership implicit in the sample.
Research Questions

A researcher must narrow the focus of study so that goals may be accomplished in an efficient, focused manner. This study focuses on the following: What leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books? Which perspectives are dominant? Does the portrayal of the identified perspectives change over time? Does protagonist’s gender have an effect on leadership perspective?

Scope of Study

This study describes and analyzes main characters’ leadership behavior in seventeen representative Newbery winners. The process used to determine the sample is detailed in the section in this chapter entitled “Preview of Study” and summarized here: By referring to publishers’ information and sources that organize books by grade level, a sample which included realistic fiction books appealing to young adolescents with a human, 12–15 year old protagonist who was not on a solo journey were identified.

The books were read in alphabetical order by author’s last name; codes derived from descriptors of the eight leadership perspectives that are well documented in the literature were assigned to continuous blocks of text in each book. The number of occurrences of each code was tallied and then ranked according to which was represented most to least often. The rankings were used to determine trends among and within perspectives. Findings regarding leadership and protagonist’s gender, adolescents and leadership, and findings concerning portrayal of leadership over time were noted.
By using content analysis (Curtin, 1995; Riffe & Frietag, 1997; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998) (a process which began by assigning codes as summarized in the coding discussion in the preceding paragraph) dominant themes were identified. Content analysis included both qualitative (assigning codes to text based on judgments about leadership based on textual evidence) and quantitative (counting occurrences of codes and ranking the occurrences and illustrating findings with narratives) analysis in a process that leads to deeper understanding (Beck & Murphy, 1993; Short, 1995). In addition, the analyses were used to flesh out a portrait of adolescent leadership, thus affirming Riffe and Frietag's (1997) prediction that content analysis will be used to build theory. Findings provide a basis for further study.

Conclusion

Literature study can be conducted many ways—by era, by genre, by author; the trend in language arts instruction is to identify themes that span time, type, and author (Smagorinsky, 2000). Doing so unifies a study and provides students with a context so they can develop schema to use in processing present and future materials (Smagorinsky, 2000). This study hypothesizes that a void may exist in language arts classrooms: Leadership perspectives may be implicit yet ignored in reading materials; if leadership perspectives are implicit, this researcher believes that the perspectives could be understood and applied by using literature as the tool in a thematic study of leadership.

Newbery Award-winning books have been identified as exemplary works of fiction (Gillespie & Naden, 2001; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002). The Newberys, which are commonly used in classrooms, could be used as the venue for teaching leadership skills
(Karnes & Stephens, 1999). This study reveals what perspectives exist in the books, how the perspectives have changed over time, and how gender impacts leadership. Findings ultimately are used to analyze the hidden curriculum of work, parenting, friendship, individualism, and role modeling, and, in the larger context of the study as a whole, the adolescent leadership according to gender, cultural transformation, universality, and mentoring implicit in the sample. Others may use the results of the study as they identify literature appropriate for developing the leadership skills and traits of adolescents, as they develop theories relating to gender and leadership, historical perspectives on leadership, and adolescent leadership, and as they increase their own awareness of the hidden curriculum of adolescent leadership in adolescent fiction.

Preview of Study

Chapter 2 reviews academic literature about implicit or hidden curriculum, leadership perspectives and training, and adolescent literature, exemplified by Newbery Award-winning books. The Chapter 3 describes the methods that will be used to discover implicit perspectives, which perspectives are dominant, whether the portrayal of the identified perspectives changes over time, and whether the protagonist's gender has an effect on leadership perspective. Finally, research results and discussion are presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

To summarize, the literature says that implicit or hidden curriculum is the side effect of academic learning (Vallance, 1973). What is included in the curriculum, what isn't, who is called on, and what expectations exist are all part of the implicit curriculum (Cornbleth, 1982; Miron & Keller, 1997; Wren, 1999). Hidden curricula have the power
to include or alienate, to transmit or transform culture (Giroux & Penna, 1979). The themes and other implicit messages in books (such as Newbery Award winners) form part of the implicit curriculum; “...textbooks and other curriculum materials used within subjects reveal implicit messages” (Cornbleth, 1982, p. 6).

The literature contains eight well-documented perspectives on leadership: personality, formal, democratic, political, subjective, ambiguity, moral, and cultural/symbolic. Some of the perspectives are normative while others are descriptive; transformational and transactional emphases also exist (Bush, 1995). Research has shown that overt training may actually dissuade adolescents from demonstrating leadership behavior (Fiedler, 1971). New ways of discovering and constructing leadership behavior are needed (Jennings, 1960; Yukl, 1998).

Literature which includes implicit themes about leadership may have the power to develop leadership potential because adolescents are exploring options which may lead to long-term ideals (Moshman, 1999), and because adolescents are forming an identity (Hogben & Waterman, 1997). The premise that literature may have the power to develop leadership potential is explored in the Chapter 2. Though many methods of analysis are available to help a researcher make sense of a text (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998), content analysis is used in this study. In content analysis, fragments of a whole are analyzed and reassembled into meaningful interpretive categories (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998) which, in this case, will be leadership perspectives.

Literature helps readers know and learn about life (Schwartz, 1979; Tambling, 1991); it accomplishes this best when it is presented without didacticism (Lukens, 1986). Adolescents seem uniquely receptive to the messages implicit themes convey. They are
uniquely receptive because identity formation (Moshman, 1999) and or discovery
(Hogben & Waterman, 1997) in adolescents is an active, though perhaps unconscious,
process of sifting through choices and examples of identities. A premise of this study,
based on the literature reviewed, is that adolescents who experience leadership situations
through the lives of characters in exemplary literature that they can identify with (Beale,
1996), will discover, develop, and demonstrate more complex leadership behaviors.
Newbery Award-winning books are examples of exemplary literature for children
Friedman & Cataldo, 2002), including young adolescents.

Chapter 3 outlines the content analysis that will be used to gather data from 17
representative Newbery Award-winning books. The following steps were used to determine
the sample:

Step 1: Using Best books for children (Gillespie, 1998), determine which of the
82 books are appropriate for 12 to 15 year olds (usually enrolled in seventh and eighth
grade), the age range chosen to represent a Newbery audience of adolescent readers.
Because these books are commonly used in classrooms (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002),
published materials usually organize them according to grade level, not age. Gillespie
(1998) uses the symbol IJ to indicate “Intermediate-Junior High” level. Approximately
fifteen books were not listed in this resource; these were ranked as appropriate for
students in grades seven and eight if Children’s books in print 2003 (2003) indicated
appropriateness as defined below: Not more than two levels below or above the
seventh/eighth level, a range that includes books recommended for fifth to tenth graders.
Therefore, a book listed as appropriate for fourth to eighth grade or sixth to eleventh
grade would be eliminated. One listed at seventh to tenth or fifth to eighth, for example, would be retained.

Step 2: Eliminate any books from this list that are not realistic fiction, as defined by publishers’ categorizing. The researcher chose to study books with realistic situations so that readers’ identification with the protagonists’ life experience would be maximized (Kinman & Henderson, 1985; Beale, 1996). In addition, because the study involves leadership themes, any books about solo journeys were eliminated.

Step 3: Identify which of the remaining titles do not have a human, 12, 13, 14, or 15 year old protagonist and eliminate these titles. Again, the premise was to maximize readers’ identification with the protagonist (Kinman & Henderson, 1985; Beale, 1996). Books that did not specify protagonist’s age were eliminated, because the study includes only protagonists of an age range congruent to that of the adolescent reader him- or herself. Books with protagonists who represented one or more of these ages as well as other ages (e.g. a span of thirteen to seventeen years old) were retained. The remaining titles form the sample for the study.

Each book in the sample was read, in alphabetical order by author’s last name, to discover, identify, and describe which major and, perhaps, new, leadership themes are evident. Patterns within and among books were noted and recorded in a spreadsheet. Occurrences of leadership behavior, actions, etc. were coded using a code book which contained 38 descriptions of leadership based on the literature concerning leadership. Frequencies of codes were converted to ranks to level out the effect longer works could have on number of occurrences. Ranks were used to make comparisons and to draw conclusions about the sample. Conclusions were made about the research questions:
What leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books? Which perspectives are dominant? Does the portrayal of the identified perspectives change over time? Does protagonist's gender have an effect on leadership?

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The researcher anticipated that perspectives on leadership would be more common in earlier works in the sample, because she speculated that more recent books would focus on self-discovery and personal fulfillment; therefore, leadership themes seem less likely. Furthermore, anticipated trends in leadership perspectives include an emphasis on the personality perspective in the earlier books, and individualistic, subjective approaches in more recent titles. Finally, it seemed likely that the books will display cultural norms relative to the eras they represent, so it was projected that leaders in contemporary books would be female, while more in vintage books would be male. Only the last conjecture was in line with actual results.

Chapter 5 presents a discussion of findings, including, among others, an analysis of gender variations, historical variations, and a developing definition of adolescent leadership.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Focus

In every classroom in America, teachers do more than teach subject matter, and students learn more than what is being taught (Miron & Keller, 1997; Wren, 1999; Hemmings, 2000). The implicit curriculum includes decisions that are made about what and how to teach; learning in the implicit curriculum are caught not taught (Giroux & Penna, 1979). The focus of this study is discovering the leadership perspectives hidden in adolescent literature, exemplified by selected Newbery Award-winning books. Perspectives were identified using content analysis methods. In addition, changes and variations in the presentation of leadership were examined over time and between genders, thus rooting the study in historical and social contexts.

The literature review is divided into three sections, each of which is centered on one of the main indicators in the focus statement which appears in the preceding paragraph: “implicit or hidden curriculum,” “leadership perspectives,” and “Newbery books.”
Part A: Implicit or Hidden Curriculum

Introduction

What students learn in a classroom isn’t only what is being taught; rather, some significant learning is caught (Giroux & Penna, 1979). Selecting certain literature to study (or not to study), calling on one gender of student more (or less) often than the other, and assigning only the most challenging (or easiest) questions to answer are all examples of actions that send messages to students about perceived abilities and interests (Jackson, 1968; Goodlad, 1984).

Though the focus of this study—implicit curriculum of literature—involves teacher-student relationships, teachers, of course, aren’t the only ones who send implicit messages (Hemmings, 2000). The student who stands alone during recess, those who don’t speak English, and the students who think that trying to earn good grades will ostracize them from their peers are also giving and receiving messages to and from each other about school life; in effect, they are teaching and learning an unofficial curriculum (Wren, 1999; Hemmings, 2000).

For now, the focus will return to the teacher-student relationship. Educating students under a set of norms or perceptions may seem undesirable to some readers. After all, it seems that teachers should remain neutral and unbiased in their practice. Not only is this impractical, it is also impossible; choices must be made as part of professional practice (Kretovics, 1986). Because everything in one’s discipline cannot be taught, one must decide what will be. Since every method cannot be used successfully with every student, choices must be made to employ some methods and reject others. Most teachers,
it would seem, would recognize that wise, thoughtful, careful choosing and planning is a large part of professional practice.

Even some educators, though, may object to a curriculum in which elements are purposefully chosen to develop character traits which society has deemed desirable. This practice can be seen as indoctrinating, and many teachers resist the idea that teaching includes indoctrination (Kirk, 1988, p. 430):

The word ‘doctrine’ means a teaching; one can not teach without imparting doctrines ... To contend that no judgments may be made is itself a doctrine—and a baneful one. To indoctrinate in amorphous personal preferences, ‘values,’ without foundation in reason, authority or custom, indeed would be very wrong for a teacher. But to indoctrinate in standards about which there has been a critical consensus for a great while—perhaps for centuries—is a natural function for a teacher.

A school environment rooted in personal whim could have the potential for abuse. Power holders (teachers and administrators) could take advantage of their position to exploit those with less power (students) (Giroux & Simon, 1989). However, it is also likely that the entire process is subconscious, and that decisions are made and accepted without thought (Wren, 1999). This subconscious, unstated, untested dimension of the school day is known as the hidden curriculum (Jackson, 1968; Giroux & Penna, 1979; Goodlad, 1984). The paragraphs that follow will define what the hidden curriculum is, what impact it has on cultural transformation, what gender biases it promotes, and what effects it has on students.

Defining the Hidden Curriculum

It is helpful in a discussion to have a clear understanding of terms before analyzing the subject at hand. To summarize the discussion to come, definitions of
hidden curriculum range from the nuts and bolts procedural expectations of the school day (Jackson, 1968), to the unstated cultural norms that are expected of students (Giroux & Penna, 1979), to an active establishment of structures and policies which reward and punish, sometimes based on unstated expectations (Goodlad, 1984). For some participants in the schooling process (participants, in this case, meaning teachers and students), the hidden curriculum is an ignored by-product of the social institution we call school (Jackson, 1968; Vallance, 1973). For others, it is a powerful (though often untapped) source for social change—or stagnation (Apple, 1979; Giroux & Penna, 1979). Following are a number of definitions of the hidden curriculum that will illustrate the range of definitions as well as a growth in understanding of what the hidden curriculum is.

A definition with seemingly wide-ranging consequences is found in Phillip Jackson’s *Life in Classrooms* (1968). He calls the classroom milieu the hidden curriculum, and he seems to include in his definition all the interactions a child may participate in, willingly or unwillingly, throughout the school day; this milieu includes procedural expectations, behavioral guidelines, and a variety of institutional expectations (Jackson, 1968). Mastering the hidden curriculum—meeting the expectations for this corporate life—usually results in school success (Jackson, 1968).

In fact, says Jackson (1968), it is entirely possible that some of the best students are successful because they are compliant, not necessarily because they are intellectually talented. He makes the point that mastering the hidden curriculum involves one skill set while mastering the official curriculum may require other skills, and he contends that the two arenas—the hidden and the official curriculum—are at odds with each other.
(Jackson, 1968). Kretovics (1986) notes that Giroux identifies a similar contradiction. Jackson (1968) urges others to begin to study the tension and animosity he himself supposes exists.

According to Hemmings (1999, p. 1), Jackson was the first to use the term “hidden curriculum.” Giroux and Purpel (1983) also credit Jackson with coining the term. Wren (1999) calls Jackson a pioneer in the study of hidden curriculum, while Snyder (1971) accepts Jackson’s understanding of the hidden curriculum. He notes the need of children to master the framework within which the official curriculum is delivered and received, and concurs that those who meet classroom expectations are those who often are considered successful students (Snyder, 1971). It seems clear from these sources that Jackson (1968) is known for labeling the concept of implicit or hidden curriculum.

Once the existence of something is identified and verified, others are able to expand the definition. This is certainly true for the phenomenon known as the “hidden curriculum”; Jackson’s call for more research was answered. Vallance (1973) hesitates to precisely define the term. She recognizes its complexity and begins her analysis with a fluid definition: “the systematic side effects of schooling that we sense but which cannot be adequately accounted for by reference to the explicit curriculum” (Vallance, 1973, p. 11). She also contends that, before the turn of the last century, the socializing purpose of schools was hailed as one of schools’ primary reasons for existing. When it was clear to those in charge that the system of schooling for socialization was working well, the hidden curriculum retreated into the shadows (Vallance, 1973). In summary, the
definition of hidden curriculum evolved into one that included and acknowledged a purpose for it, a topic that will be explored more fully later in this discussion.

Giroux and Penna (1979) expanded the definition of hidden curriculum. They noted that it is the “unstated norms, values, and beliefs that are transmitted to students through the underlying structure of meaning in both the formal content as well as the formal relations of school and classroom life” (Giroux & Penna, 1979, p. 211). They urge educators to be vigilant against school culture that undermines democratic principles, and they affirm the tension noted earlier by Jackson when they note that the hidden curriculum can even contradict the explicit curriculum (Giroux & Penna, 1979). School is more than academics; it socializes students and either perpetuates conformity or initiates change (Giroux & Penna, 1979). According to these authors, the hidden curriculum, as they define it, is the fuel behind real societal change; yet, too often, the official and the hidden curricula are at odds (Giroux & Penna, 1979). But, those who choose to use the hidden curriculum will have a powerful tool with which to promote justice and positive change (Apple, 1979; Giroux & Penna, 1979). Notice also that the definition has expanded three-fold: from focusing on the classroom environment, to including environment and a planned set of expectations, to including environment, expectations, and affirming an unstated moral code.

One final definition will illustrate well an evolution understanding what the hidden curriculum is. Goodlad (1984, p. 97) identifies the many choices, methods, and processes that teachers employ as the implicit curriculum. Though his definition is very similar to those for the hidden curriculum, he advances understanding by switching the focus from that of children learning to master unstated norms to teachers actively using
the implicit curriculum to achieve ends which have more to do with socialization than with academics. He makes the point that, if teachers actually desired to and had the tools and policies necessary to improve schools, then schools would be a phoenix rising (Goodlad, 1984), a metaphor for a wounded organism which is able to overcome past troubles and emerge strong and vigorous. This is a hopeful viewpoint. However, he goes on to say that this is very unlikely until “school subjects...become the means for learnings that transcend them” (Goodlad, 1984, p. 244). He ends the discussion by saying that teachers seem both to want and fear such a change. It seems that instead of transforming culture, teachers are using the hidden curriculum to reinforce current norms.

Relationship of the Hidden Curriculum to Cultural Transformation

According to Greene (1983), the 1960s found people questioning whether schools were agents of change. The answer seemed to be “no,” and the realization that schools actually perpetuated class distinctions resulted in a “shock of awareness” (Greene, 1983, pp. 1-2) which included acknowledging that a hidden curriculum exists. Not only did it exist, it also conveyed attitudes about preferred moral behavior and values (Greene, 1983). This situation was not seen as undesirable; rather, affirming that values and behaviors are part of the school experience allows those who participate in the process—students and teachers—to be empowered to become active agents for social progress instead of “passive objects of a controlling society” (p. 4). Greene (1983) declares that more attention be paid to moral teachings, thereby giving students the chance to become active decision-makers; being liberated to decide for oneself could have transformative powers, because old ways of looking at the world could be challenged by new. Yet, the

A discussion about the consequences of the hidden curriculum seems to become a discussion about whether schools should transmit or transform culture. Research indicates that cultural patterns can be either reproduced or challenged in formal schooling (Anyon, 1980; Cornbleth, 1985; Hannay, 1985; Apple, 1995). Studies highlighting reproduction or challenge of cultural patterns are highlighted below. Anyon’s (1980) ethnographic study of five elementary schools of contrasting social classes indicated that, indeed, differing practices in each school perpetuated societal norms. Her study focused on four types of schools: working class, middle class, affluent professional, and executive elite. After describing typical interactions within each of the communities listed above, she draws a number of conclusions about the children’s relationships to symbolic and physical capital, to authority, and to their own productivity. The hidden curriculum, in these cases, perpetuated the status quo rather than expanded children’s choices (Anyon, 1980). Her conclusions are summarized below:

Working-class students had conflicts with those requiring output (capital) from them; they resisted, and, therefore, reduced production. In contrast, middle-class students learned to exchange work for rewards. In the third environment—professional schools—schooling was more expressive and affirming. Anyon (1980) says that symbolic capital, items and ideas which had value to the school community (similar to the value currency has in an economic system), was being produced in linguistic, artistic, and scientific ways. Finally, children in executive elite school were encouraged to manipulate tools of analysis, thus creating new knowledge to use (Anyon, 1980).
It seems obvious that each schooling situation studied by Anyon (1980) seems to be a preparatory program for adult workers: Working-class students learn to resist coercion to protect themselves. Slowdowns and sabotage are similar techniques that working-class adults employ to resist authority (Anyon, 1980). In middle-class schools, rewards were given for following procedures. Similarly, adult middle-class workers are not encouraged to respond creatively to their work. Rather, bureaucracy demands that procedures be followed. Again, the school seems to prepare students for societal norms (Anyon, 1980).

Moving along the continuum of control and self-determination, students in affluent professional schools acquire symbolic capital: the ability to create cultural products, to express themselves scientifically, and to elaborate and negotiate (Anyon, 1980). Professional adults use similar skills to convince others of the legitimacy of their work so that funds will be allocated for their own projects. Students in executive elite schools are expected to analyze and control situations, thus preparing them for ownership and control of future means of production (Anyon, 1980).

Anyon (1980) draws the following conclusion about her study: Differing schooling environments (as elaborated above) develop differing relationships to physical and symbolic capital, authority, and work itself. Reproduction of societal relationships occurs (Anyon, 1980). It seems logical to conclude that working-class, middle-class, and even affluent professional schools are preparing children to be controlled and/or led by those being educated in executive elite schools.

Complementing Anyon’s (1980) study, some studies suggest that children of working-class parents are encouraged to accept educational plans which prepare them for
working-class jobs (Hannay, 1985). Combleth (1982) expresses a similar view:

“Individual students are assumed to acquire prevailing world views, norms, and values as well as predefined and usually subordinate roles in authority relationships” (1982, p. 4). Current schooling practices reinforce what is rather than reinvent what could be (Apple & King, 1983).

Researcher Lynne Hannay (1985) claims that so much of the decision-making in classrooms is taken for granted; therefore, cultural reproduction instead of cultural transformation often occurs in this environment. Furthermore, she describes the hidden curriculum as part of a spiraling web that includes both the social and the school environments (Hannay, 1985). As one attempts to interpret happenings in one arena, understandings from the other contribute to this understanding; for better or for worse, cultural norms are reproduced rather than challenged in this reflexive process (Hannay, 1985). The researcher concludes that this is quite a troubling state of affairs (Hannay, 1985).

Kohlberg (1970) takes a different stand on the issue of the hidden curriculum’s role in socialization. While proclaiming that schools must become more just and that they must make the hidden curriculum visible through dialogue, he pessimistically downgrades these notions from hope to dream. He claims that research on the results of attempts to build moral character have produced few substantial conclusions (Kohlberg, 1970). His analysis is especially pessimistic when one considers his assertion that some have estimated that ninety percent of what goes on in classrooms is part of the hidden or, as Phillip Jackson (1968) puts it, unstudied curriculum.
Finally, perhaps the most obvious by-product of the hidden curriculum is the tracking of students into courses of education determined before a student has had a chance to manifest his or her interests, abilities, or intentions. According to Oakes (1987), schools that track have at least two assumptions about students: First, students will learn best within a group of students with abilities similar to their own. Second, less-talented students will suffer less from social pressures if they have less contact with more-talented students. Underlying these assumptions is the belief that judgments about student ability can be accurately made and that those abilities are varied enough to require different approaches (Oakes, 1987). Unfortunately for those who favor tracking, the evidence is that it increases neither achievement nor feelings of self esteem (Oakes, 1987). Therefore, it seems tracking denies cultural transformation.

In summary, Anyon (1980), Cornbleth (1982), and Hannay (1985) suggest that schools transmit cultural patterns. Kohlberg (1970) claims that attempts to build moral character through the hidden curriculum made manifest have failed. Tracking (Oakes, 1987) has failed to have a positive effect on achievement or psyche. Other researchers have studied the cultural transmission the studies in this summary point to. Some offer remedies and promote cultural transformation, a positive use of the hidden curriculum. These studies are discussed below.

As examples of reinforcing what is, note that Miron and Keller (1997) identify academic and identity discrimination as two possible results in schools where there are not overt attempts to change the status quo: Academic discrimination is when student ability is predicted by student race and socio-economic status. Identity discrimination occurs when teachers assume that poor African-American and Hispanic students, for
example, are necessarily members of violent gangs; such stereotyping is analogous to
cultural norms being transmitted within schools (Miron & Keller, 1997). They (Miron &
Keller, 1997) conclude that the hidden curriculum is the root of discrimination that occurs
in schools; recognizing this could lead to positive change.

Taking a slightly different perspective, Scott (1999) contends that school culture,
including its schedule, demands, and curriculum, assumes a middle-class ethos in
students. However, many urban youth do not have the social skills needed to succeed, or
even function within such an environment (Scott, 1999). Scott (1999) blames schools
themselves for part of this problem: Behavior, expectations, and performance are low,
and the traditional school schedule does not meet current student needs. His alternative is
to meet student needs and develop student social skills within learning communities,
thereby changing the social climate within the group. He identifies this focus on need
and socialization as a curriculum that would impact the academic program, thus
producing the learning communities referenced above (Scott, 1999). His approach is
transformative, not transmissive, because it attempts to change the realities that exist to
better meet student needs.

Obviously, schools that prejudge students as fit for one type of adult job or
another are transmitting not transforming culture; these schools see themselves as mirrors
of society (Apple, 1985). Apple (1985) says this is a fatalistic explanation. For if society
determines school function, true educational change and progress is impossible; Miron
and Keller (1997) and Scott (1999) also seem to affirm the possibility of change. Rather,
he says, a dynamic relationship which includes mediation and transformation must be
encouraged between school and society; one step in understanding this dynamic relationship, he says, is to better understand the hidden curriculum (Apple, 1985).

The Hidden Curriculum of Texts-Overview

An element of the hidden curriculum is the choice of materials to use in classrooms (Goodlad, 1984). The hidden curriculum of a variety of texts will be discussed below. Perhaps the most definitive statement that can be made confidently about the consequences of the hidden curriculum is that it is not neutral (Shen, 1994). In fact, many aspects of schooling and textbook decision-making—from writing to editing to choosing a text—are political, reflecting the norms of the power holders of society (Kretovics, 1986; Shen, 1994). Shen’s research focused on the value-laden words, propaganda, and one-sided explanations found in selected Chinese geography textbooks. Certainly, the situation must be different in a democratic country. However, it seems that since the turn of the century, through the middle of the decade, to modern times, the problem of stereotypes and lack of social progress continue to be depicted in texts. This timeline of stereotypical depictions is noted by the researchers listed below.

Though biases may not be overt, careless wording, inaccuracies, and stereotyping promote social stagnation, even though efforts to remove such inhibitors have existed since 1915 (Otto & Flournoy, 1956). Otto and Flournoy (1956) base their analyses on textbook studies completed by the American Council on Education. Textbooks reflect current social contexts (Westbury, 1990). Apple (1985) explains why this happens: Because text publication is a risky venture, editors hesitate to challenge what is seen as
legitimate content. Though information is not actually censored, it is not challenged either because (Apple, 1985, p. 148),

the "cultural capital" of dominant classes and class segments has been considered the most legitimate knowledge. [T]his knowledge, and one's ability to deal with it, has served as one mechanism in a complex process in which the economic and cultural reproduction of class, gender and race relations is accomplished. Therefore, the choice of a particular context and ways of approaching it in schools is related both to existing relations of domination and to struggles to alter these relations.

Apple (1985) continues by saying that it is foolish to ignore the evidence from around the world that links knowledge in and about schools to the social dynamics both within and outside of learning institutions. Therefore, content choices made in earlier eras may be retained whether or not they are currently relevant (Apple, 1985). This is an oversimplification of a very complex interrelationship among editors, textbook committees, state governments, and social goals that Apple (1985) discusses.

Textbooks are the primary means in most schools for delivering curricular content (Bazler & Simonis, 1990); texts are built on a foundation of human relations (Apple, 1985). However, textbooks are not the only materials used in a classroom. Whether used for silent reading, pleasure reading, or as assigned reading, novels, especially Newbery books (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002) are common texts in language arts classrooms. The remainder of this discussion will focus on the hidden curriculum as found in a variety of other texts, including Newbery books.

Trade books, including those that have been awarded the Newbery medal, are one step removed from the stagnant publication process that plagues textbooks; trade books are to literature anthologies what primary sources are to history texts. As such, they may reflect a broad cultural base because they are not produced just for schools, a narrow
segment of the wider culture. Trade books also are used commonly for pleasure reading, silent reading, and for reading aloud (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002). Furthermore, lessons in science, character education, music, social studies, and other content areas are reinforced and extended through the wise use of trade books; as Sanchez (1998, p. 5) notes concerning trade books, "many are well written and well developed by renowned authors whose subjects serve as complements and extensions that the conventional textbook cannot possibly explore in the proper depth." Literature-based curricula also validate the use of whole pieces of literature throughout the curriculum (Kalb, 1988; O'Neil, 1994; Leal & Chamberlain-Solecki, 1998).

Trade books, as represented by those that have been awarded the Newbery, are common tools used for teaching and learning (Leal & Chamberlain-Solecki, 1998; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002). Information about hidden themes in these resources, discovered through content analysis, could help educators and researchers evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the literature as a source of information about a variety of themes. Current research findings regarding a variety of texts will be discussed below. The purpose of this dissertation is to study the leadership perspectives embedded in a representative sample of Newbery Award-winning books, thus adding knowledge and understanding to future discussions concerning these classroom resources.

The definition of the hidden curriculum has evolved since its coinage in the 1960s. Subject areas for analysis regarding hidden curriculum include many aspects of human experience; diversity, class, ethnicity, and gender are recent areas of research. Before discussing each, a compilation of findings is presented here. First, two diversity studies (Gordy & Pritchard, 1995; Hogben & Waterman, 1997) reveal, respectively, little
progress and some progress in texts' portrayal of diversity. Second, studies involving social class (Nelson, 1981; Hyona, DeStefano, & Hujanen, 1995) and ethnicity, (Kaya-Carton, 1986; Robson, 2001) imply that educators should increase their awareness of the hidden curriculum of these issues so that inequities are not promoted. Third, studies concerning gender and the hidden curriculum reveal gender portrayals within a variety of school texts. Three studies revealed little progress in gender balance (Koza, 1994; Beyer, Ogletree, & Ritzel, 1996; Foley & Bouliware, 1996), one reveals some progress (Osler, 1994), one (Robson, 2001) found considerable progress, and one (Bazler & Simonis, 1990) found that while individual texts may have improved or declined, overall, more improvement in gender fairness in high school science texts is warranted. Furthermore, studies concerning gender and literature and gender and role models revealed sexual stereotypes (Allen, 1999; Agee, 2000), bias toward males (Houston, 1991; Bunting, 1999; O'Keefe, 2000), and the importance of gender-matched role models (Zirkel, 2002); some researchers' results, however, indicate that a more balanced view of gender is emerging from current literature (Kinman & Henderson, 1985; Houdyshell & Kirkland, 1998; Miller, Schweingruber, & Brandenburg, 2001). Providing reading selections in school media centers that feature nontraditional males and females, and recognizing barriers to equity within academic disciplines could transform the hidden curriculum of gender inequity (Crew, 1998).

Experiencing a hidden curriculum seems inevitable (Wren, 1999; Hemmings, 2000). Themes or emphases that contemporary researchers have identified in their studies of hidden curriculum include a focus on diversity issues (Gordy & Pritchard, 1995; Hogben & Waterman, 1997). Studies focused the topic of diversity by drawing
conclusions about social class, ethnicity, and gender representations in a variety of texts at a variety of academic levels. Studies concerning these four issues—diversity, social class, ethnicity, and gender—are noted and cited below. Because gender is the subject of one of the study’s research questions, it will be discussed in a separate section, following the discussion of ethnicity.

Research Findings Regarding the Hidden Curriculum of Texts: Diversity, Ethnicity, and Social Class

Diversity themes in texts are as diverse as the human population. Some researchers focus on diverse perspectives on controversial issues. For example, Gordy and Pritchard (1995) examined social studies texts for implicit perspectives on slavery. Through content analysis of themes and issues in fifth-grade social studies texts used in Connecticut, they discovered that the issue of slavery in the United States was glossed over, thus giving students little basis for understanding current Civil rights struggles (Gordy & Pritchard, 1995).

Another diversity study focused on the representation of minorities in current psychology texts (Hogben & Waterman, 1997). Their content analysis is based on, among other premises, the premise that students in introductory psychology courses will be less likely to continue in psychology if their first experience is not positive. To gauge the positive quality of the texts used in these courses, they “examined text and photographs in 28 introductory textbooks published between 1990 and 1992 for coverage of diversity issues” (Hogben & Waterman, 1997, p. 95). Among other findings they discovered that “diversity-related content in 1990s textbooks is limited, although more extensive than in older textbooks” (p. 95). Coding included using key phrases from the
indices of the texts to count the number of paragraphs a variety of diversity topics were given; photos were coded by race, gender, and the status relationships expressed in the photos.

A second category that has been the subject of research in the context of the hidden curriculum is ethnicity; studies conducted by Kaya-Carton (1986) and Robson (2001) are reviewed here. Content analyses of economics texts (Robson, 2001) reveal that, compared to past texts, more coverage currently is being given both to minorities and to women. This finding reveals a shift to more inclusivity in the hidden curriculum. Similarly, Kaya-Carton (1986) performed a content analysis of 320 social studies texts spanning the K–12 spectrum, regarding coverage of content and materials related to a variety of ethnic groups, to discover the philosophy of the texts. She concluded that the credibility of the text publishers could be called into question because evidence for the content and material published is lacking (Kaya-Carton, 1986).

Social class is another sub-set of diversity. A study that attempted to analyze the interplay of class, ethnicity, and gender was conducted early in the 1980s (Nelson, 1981). Nelson (1981) found that it was possible to reduce social inequities by altering the learning environment. Though the study did not focus on text, it did attempt to increase awareness of how these issues impact learning. Another more current study (Hyona, Destefano, & Hujanen, 1995) did focus on text and its effect on many aspects of life, including social class. It used content analysis to compare primer texts in America and Finland, and it concluded that culture does, at times, impact school text: The depiction of heroes in the two samples reflected the cultural stereotypes of the respective cultures.
(Hyona, Destefano, & Hujanen, 1995). It seems fair to say that one could conclude from this study that schools transmit rather than transform culture.

Research Findings Regarding the Hidden Curriculum of Texts: Gender

Finally, an area of human experience that has been scrutinized frequently by researchers who examine the hidden curriculum is gender. The discussion begins with six studies examining a variety of contexts for gender in texts. Then, gender studies specific to literature, including Newbery winners, are presented. Finally, the current study concerns gender and role models; therefore, studies regarding gender and role models conclude this section.

Bazler and Simonis (1990) compared eighteen high school chemistry texts from the 1970s to a similar sample of texts from the 1980s to discover their depictions of men and women in the illustrations within the text. Gender-bias toward men in the 1970s texts was pervasive; only two of the 1980s texts showed significant improvement in achieving gender fairness, one showed dramatic improvement, while two of the 1980s texts contained more (compared to the 1970s texts) representations of males.

Content analysis of music texts (Koza, 1994) determined that females were underrepresented and that, when they were shown, it was in stereotypical ways. Osler (1994) revealed that progress is being made toward balancing gender portrayals in historical texts in England; however, Osler (1994) notes that progress still needs to be made in achieving a more complete portrayal (especially regarding illustrations in texts) of women in history.

Sexuality education texts (Beyer, Ogletree, & Ritzel, 1996) were analyzed using content analysis. The illustrations, text, and gender-specific topics in fourteen sexuality
education texts were studied to discover that females were represented more often in illustrations than males, while text represented males more often when discussing drug use, exploitation, desire, and homosexuality; females were more often represented when discussing body image, reproductive diseases, and hygiene. To summarize the many implications of the study, the researchers concluded that masculine terms are used in the texts to define female sexuality, that parenting representations favored females, and that the lack of male sexual health issues presented could result in health risks (Beyer, Ogletree, & Ritzel, 1996).

Foley & Boulware (1996) found that males are more prevalent than females in stories found in middle school reading texts from 1993. They compared the results to earlier studies (1960s to 1980s) and found that little progress has been made in addressing gender bias in reading texts. Economics texts (Robson, 2001) were analyzed to determine quantity of material related to gender and race; results were compared to earlier studies. The researcher concluded that there has been an increase in the amount of material presented that is related to race and gender, in general. In summary, texts have been subjected to content analysis involving everything from illustrations, to number of portrayals of males, to amount of text devoted to either gender. Messages about males and/or females in relationship to the science world, to music performance, to history, to sexual behavior, to economic potential, and to reading can be implicitly conveyed through pictures and text.

Because the current study concerns the hidden curriculum of adolescent literature, exemplified by Newbery Award-winning books, the discussion will now focus on research studies conducted to discover the hidden curriculum of gender in Newbery
literature. Then, studies concerning gender and role models will be discussed because characters in literature can become role models for readers (though it is important to add that this role modeling is most effective when using a reflective, discovery approach, not a didactic one [Smagorinsky, 2000; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002]).

The three following studies focus on gender and Newberys; all three studies focus on female portrayals in the books. The most general (Kinman & Henderson, 1985) addresses sexism in Newberys from 1977-1984. Houdyshell and Kirkland (1998) focus the topic more by discussing heroines in Newberys, while Agee (1993) further clarifies understanding of gender and Newberys by narrowing her focus to mother-daughter gender-role socialization in two Newbery books. Each study will be discussed below:

Kinman and Henderson (1985) conducted a content analysis using Erikson’s stages of child development as a rationale for why “nonsexist reading material is needed during those years when a child is establishing a sense of identity and social order” (Kinman & Henderson, 1985, p. 886). They identify adolescence as one such time in a child’s life. Their content analysis of Newbery winners and honor books from 1977-1984 for portrayal of females in sexist ways, in traditional roles, or as misfits if traditional roles aren’t assigned to them, revealed that, compared to a similar study in 1971, more books have female main characters (a ratio of 3:2 females to male as compared to 1:3 in the forty-nine books in the earlier study), and that three times as many more current books have positive portrayals of woman (Kinman & Henderson, 1985). The researchers conclude that “whether authors are consciously developing nonstereotypic characters or if this is a natural growth process of writers and literature, the results are...that authors are observing society as it is and evolving stories and characters that fit it” (Kinman &
Henderson, 1985, p. 888). They relate their results to a societal trend toward egalitarianism.

The second study also compared current books to past winners. Houdyshell and Kirkland (1998) wanted to discover the nature of any changes in the portrayal of women in Newbery books from 1922-33 compared to those from 1985-96. Specifically, they looked at the number and percentage of central female characters and how they were portrayed. They used three categories to sort stories from each time period: those with at least one male central character, those with at least one female central character, and those without either (such as poetry). They discovered that the percentage of books with a male main character decreased (58% to 33%) from the earlier to the later time period, female central characters increased (17% to 50%), and those without either decreased (25% to 17%). In addition to these findings, they also report on findings outside of the time periods represented by the study: 1957 was a watershed year for gender balance in Newberys (Houdyshell and Kirkland, 1998), and books from 1985-96 “have split almost fifty-fifty in terms of male vs. female characters” (Houdyshell and Kirkland, 1998, p. 257). They note that the 1970s and 80s were a time of consciousness raising regarding gender portrayals, and they speculate that recent authors may be more cognizant of this than were their earlier counterparts. Furthermore, they note that recent winners portray females as independent and unrestrained by gender as they confidently face challenges; their commentary on this finding is that “the gender of the central character can be vital, especially for girls who may not have found many fictional female role models of spirit and independence in early children’s literature” (Houdyshell and Kirkland, 1998, p. 262). The concepts of role model and gender will be discussed later in this chapter.
Finally, a study that narrows the focus of gender in Newberys even more is Agee's (1993) study of the mother-daughter relationship in two Newberys. She begins her study by wondering what "values, beliefs, images, and models" are offered to female adolescents as they read selected Newberys (Agee, 1993, p. 165). Her study focuses on Caddie Woodlawn by Brink, from 1935, and Jacob Have I Loved by Paterson, from 1980, and the "mother-daughter relationships and gender-role socialization" these books portray (Agee, 1993, p. 165). The historical gap between the books offered an opportunity to compare findings using historical context. She concludes that cultural reproduction occurs in both books (Agee, 1993, p. 180):

Apparently, even when female authors create spirited young female characters who reject conventional gender roles and are allowed to taste freedom and adventure, the authors seem compelled to bring their characters back into conventional roles rather abruptly when the characters become young women. Thus the authors, in the very act of creation, are reproducing their own relationships with their mothers, and the histories of generations of women who preceded them.

Agee (1993) concludes her study by noting that a sensitivity to gender modeling in literature for children is essential because single parenting and crimes against women are commonplace. Because interaction with literature may shape gender modeling, authors, publishers, teachers, and others in a child's life must pay attention to the messages books convey: The "socio-ideological contradiction between becoming a strong, independent woman and becoming a 'good' daughter, wife, and mother" (Agee, 1993, p. 182) must be recognized and overcome.

These three studies (Kinman & Henderson, 1985; Houdyshell & Kirkland, 1998; Agee, 1993) represent a variety of studies conducted to determine gender portrayals in Newbery books. The first two note considerable progress over time in portrayal of
women; the last notes that progress over time in portrayal of women in mother-daughter form has not been noteworthy. Another area of gender study that has implications for the current study is role modeling. Though rejecting an imitative view of role modeling (Smagorinsky, 2000; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002), this researcher asserts that literature can contribute to one’s developing ideals and viewpoints; as Friedman & Cataldo (2002, p. 103) state: “Main characters in [Newbery] books are dynamic role models for all of us as they reason through difficult dilemmas, making decisions based on their developing processes of inquiry.” The issue of gender and role models will be considered below:

It seems that the topics of gender and role models can intersect in a variety of ways including how gender affects identification with role models in a variety of areas such as technology (Miller, Schweingruber, & Brandenburg, 2001), work (Flouri & Buchanan, 2002), or school (Zirkel, 2002), and where role models for either gender come from—media, books, family, etc (Melnick & Jackson, 1998). To focus this review of literature regarding role-modeling and gender, the discussion will begin with an overview and continue with a review of studies that focus on gender and role models from real life and then from literature. A summary of the literature reviewed concludes this section.

Identification and emulation of a role model’s traits, actions, or life situations seems basic to understanding what a role model is. However, Houston (1991) denies this simple definition. Instead, she believes that true female role-modeling fosters autonomy within the person adopting the role model, a process that must include honesty about the role model’s shortcomings and about the difficult tasks that must be faced in challenging situations (Houston, 1991). The challenges she focuses on involve the loss of identity some women experience in school settings. She thinks that the most effective remedy to
the loss of identity that can plague female scholars is a female role model (Houston, 1991). Replacing a female role model with a male role model in the academic setting can lead to alienation and denial of self, neither of which can be accepted as descriptors for autonomous women (Houston, 1991). She continues her discussion by reminding the reader of the complexity of the role model relationship, a complexity which includes determining where responsibility for the relationship lies—with the one modeling or with the one choosing the model (Houston, 1991).

Related to Houston’s (1991) discussion is Allen’s (1999). She brings the discussion even closer to the current study by noting that “adolescence is not the first time girls become aware of gender roles...(Allen, 1999, p. 99). After reviewing a number of children’s books that display women in stereotypical roles, she notes that such story lines are a disservice to women, a trend that is diminishing thanks to recent academic interest in good children’s writing (Houston, 1991). Implicit in her book is the idea that literature can help overcome social stereotyping and promote mature thinking (Houston, 1991). Parents are urged to “anticipate the problems [of adolescence] and help make the transition easier by becoming aware of the content of...books and how they influence female identity” (Houston, 1999, p. 99).

The research studies reviewed below discuss gender and role modeling in relationship to models found in life and in literature. All studies focus on the adolescent experience with role modeling. The first studies will be discussed in chronological order; then, three studies will be used to conclude the discussion and relate gender, adolescence, and role models to the school situation.
Bunting (1999) reports on research that asked two hundred forty-four 11-16 year olds who their hero was or who they admired the most. Fifty-two percent of girls chose a man; 25% chose a woman. Only 10% of males chose a woman, while about 75% chose a man: "There was a strong admiration of famous males by both boys and girls, supporting society's emphasis on men in public life and the lack of famous female role models. It appeared acceptable for the young women to admire a man but not vice versa" (Bunting, 1999, p. 3).

Miller, Schweingruber, and Brandenburg (2001) conducted a study to examine gender differences among adolescent technology users. A questionnaire was given to 512 11–15 year olds from eight Houston-area public and private middle schools, and it revealed that gender gaps that once existed regarding technology access, use, and proficiency have narrowed significantly. This finding seems to downplay the importance of gender-same role models because, "the role models and helpers for computer use are...more likely to be males" (Miller, Schweingruber, and Brandenburg, 2001).

Zirkel (2002) conducted a study examining responses to a questionnaire completed by 80 young adolescents in New England. The questionnaire concerned "school, family, friendships/peers, athletic or artistic pursuits, and themselves" (Zirkel, 2002, p. 361). Forty-seven of the respondents were female. Most respondents were from working-class and middle-class families. Almost half of the respondents were minorities. The study hypothesized that school performance will increase if an adolescent and his/her role model match in at least one race/gender category, and it hypothesized that this increase in school performance (as measured by increased interest and higher levels of performance) will depend more on the match described than it will on other
characteristics of the role model (Zirkel, 2002). For Zirkel's (2002) study, role models were defined as someone the adolescent knew who was the same race and gender as they and who was working in an area that was congruent with the adolescent's own career goals. The researcher concluded that race/gender matched role model significantly and positively affected the level of "achievement concern" the adolescent had (Zirkel, 2002, p. 372). Zirkel (2002, p. 372) concludes by noting that this is a fortunate situation, "the reverse of discrimination." "This study demonstrates how goals and academic performance can be enhanced by the sense of opportunity afforded by seeing others like you in desirable social positions" (Zirkel, 2002, p. 372).

Unfortunately, some adolescents do not have such role models available in real life; perhaps characters from literature can fill the role model gap. The following discussion focuses on adolescents and role models found in literature:

O'Keefe (2000, p. 13), in her analysis of female characters in classic children's literature, concludes that "many girls were damaged by characters, plots, and themes in the books they read and loved." Her four guiding opinions highlight the complexity of gender's impact on role modeling; the first opinion is most important to this discussion: She is skeptical that girls who do not find strong female role models in the literature they read will find appropriate male role models instead (O'Keefe, 2002). She goes on to say that "women are expected to identify as readers with a masculine experience and perspective" (O'Keefe, 2000, p. 31), an expectation she infers comes at a high price. Though she allows that some girls may have enjoyed and even identified with books with adventuresome male protagonists, she also contends that the underlying message the girls took from the books was that they were not the "real thing" (O'Keefe, 2000, p. 32). She
tempers these assertions by noting that the nearly female-free world of Winnie the Pooh is, likely, hardly a trauma for girls, “but it is a typical pattern and the effect of such books is perhaps cumulative” (O'Keefe, 2000, p. 34). She notes that books appealing to boys and those appealing to girls were not at odds: rather, both reinforced stereotypic male/female roles. Therefore, she supports her earlier speculation that females will not find appropriate male role models to replace non-existent female ones. Fortunately, O’Keefe (2000) ends her book with a chapter entitled, “Today’s Terrific New Girl Heroes” (O’Keefe, 2000, p. 171); the chapter includes books from 1950 on that resist the destructive gender roles in classic children’s literature.

Conclusions about leadership and hidden curriculum that can be drawn from these studies regarding diversity, class, ethnicity, and gender is that transmission of culture within the school setting requires only that schools prepare students for roles with which they are already acquainted. Thus, as Anyon (1980) concluded, working-class kids will become working—class adults, while children in elite schools will become society’s decision makers. This deterministic situation denies some children the experiences needed to become leaders (Anyon, 1980). Though Apple (1982) denies that schools are merely mirrors of society, he does affirm that the hidden curriculum may limit opportunity for some students. Dissolving these limits—transforming the school culture—is worth the effort. The study’s contribution to cultural transformation is discussed in Chapter 5.

Gaskel and Willinsky (1995, p. 103) sum up this review of literature on gender and role modeling, especially as it relates to literature study:

[In the literature classroom], a subject area the specific agenda of which is human subjectivity, it is reasonable to expect that women should have some opportunities
to examine and to assess the implications of varying ways of being and becoming feminine.

The current study will examine, among other things, gender variations in leadership perspectives found in a representative sample of Newbery books; implications for gender role models are discussed in Chapter 5.

**Effect of the Hidden Curriculum on Students**

As discussed above, definitions of the phenomenon known as the hidden curriculum have been honed and refined throughout the last half of the last century. Current areas of study include diversity, ethnicity, social class, and gender. Many have written about what hidden curriculum is; fewer have examined its impact on student attitude; fewer yet have studied what effect hidden curricula have on student achievement. Perhaps this is because it is almost impossible to select a control group that would not experience a hidden curriculum; content is delivered within a context; the hidden curriculum is part of that context. As Cornbleth (1982, p. 15) notes, "while there is considerable evidence regarding the presence and operation of implicit curricula, documentation of effects on students remains sketchy." As noted earlier, those students who have earned the highest marks may also be the ones who have learned, mostly, how to play the game called school (Jackson, 1968; Cornbleth, 1982). Many conclusions could be drawn between statistics on disenfranchised groups and the hidden curriculum they experienced, but causation cannot be verified (Cornbleth, 1982; Apple, 1995).

However, it seems tenable that there is a relationship between student attitude toward schooling and the hidden curriculum that the student experienced. Students react to implicit curricula in a variety of ways: "Between the extremes of commitment and
rebellion are options ranging from detached acceptance to resistance and subversion” (Cornbleth, 1982, p. 18). Yet, the author of the current study believes that it is of course unfair to blame the hidden curriculum for all student disengagement and failure. For just as the curriculum is embedded within larger school, community, and national contexts, so also do schools exist in larger contexts. In other words, the social, political, and economic contexts in which the curriculum develops has an impact on the content of the curriculum, both implicit and explicit.

Much research has been conducted which sheds light on the student attitudes that are, at least partly, influenced by the unwritten curriculum. Some of the negative and positive outcomes are listed below.

Hannay (1985) observed working-class tenth graders in a social studies classroom for five months. She also interviewed students and school personnel and conducted in-depth interviews with seven students. She was observing and analyzing the hidden curriculum behavior in the hallways of the school. She concluded that “the culture was perpetuated through uneventful daily practices” (Hannay, 1985, p. 3), practices that became part of an invisible web that builds future strands on a framework which determines the shape of the web. The resultant web retains a pattern which is, according to Hannay, “used to construct meaning and to understand the everyday lifeworld” (1985, p. 4–5), an understanding which leads to passive acceptance of the way things are. She notes that students accept “power, authority, social stratification, and the work ethic... [which for students in this study] seemed [to be] a working-class culture dominated by a managerial culture” (Hannay, 1985, p. 5–6). Furthermore (Hannay, 1985, p. 33), the evidence from this study suggests the created web of normalcy is not only used to understand the particular world of school, but is applied to the
general social world. Perhaps the lens through which the student views the world is unconsciously formed through the reflexive nature of the hidden curriculum. This possibility raises serious questions regarding citizenship education and student mobility.

Perhaps the most disturbing by-products of the educational experience for some students are learned helplessness (Hannay, 1985; Kretovics, 1986) and passivity or an unquestioning attitude (Hannay, 1985). Wren (1999) writes of student reluctance that may lead to the unquestioning attitude that Hannay (1985) notes. As evidence of one type of reluctance, he cites Sadker & Sadker’s (1985) study that discovered that boys rather than girls were the focus of teacher attention because females were reluctant to draw attention to themselves and their needs (Wren, 1999).

In addition, studies show that students learn that the world is hierarchical (Hannay, 1985) and that it contains groups of people with characteristics that don’t vary from person to person—stereotyping (Otto & Flournoy, 1956; Hemmings, 2000). Perhaps as a reaction to a world over which they believe they have no control, some students develop discipline problems (Wren, 1999). For others, the hidden curriculum can send messages about status, bullying, aggression, and hostility (Hannay, 1985; Hemmings, 2000). These two studies are discussed below.

Hannay (1985) found through her five-month observations and interviews of tenth-grade social studies students from working-class homes, that high achievers and athletic students had power in the school because of their status in the social hierarchy; therefore, they were able to manipulate, control, and get away with behavior that others further down the hierarchy could not. Hannay (1985, pp. 24–25) concluded that “the students appeared generally to accept different status levels for different groups, and that these levels resulted in privileges for certain groups.” Passive acceptance of the status
quo may be challenged by taking the hidden curriculum of status that she observed out of the shadows and into the revealing light of consciousness.

Hemmings' (2000, p. 3) study is based on qualitative data collected at multiple sites between 1995 and 1997; the data were “historically marginalized high school seniors views on critical social issues grouped under economic, political, kinship, and community spheres of life, and [was conducted] to determine how these views were being shaped by curricular and other factors.” She concludes that the “social lessons of the hidden corridor curriculum had a profound impact on students” (Hemmings, 2000, p. 3). The impacts manifested themselves in hostility, illicit activity, rituals of violence, and racial separatism (Hemmings, 2000). While Hemmings (2000) notes that school officials seemed aware of the negative social norms conveyed in the hallways, they did little to attempt a remedy. In summary, the hidden curriculum may have a negative impact on attitude toward and performance in school. Furthermore, it may foster the idea that knowledge belongs to others and cannot be created by the learner herself (Cornbleth, 1982). This negative side effect may rob students of opportunities to lead their own learning and be in charge of their education.

On the positive side, students can learn social interactions (Giroux & Penna, 1979), develop faith and an interest in community service (Wren, 1999), and political awareness (Cornbleth, 1982) from the implicit curriculum. These three studies are discussed below.

Giroux and Penna (1979) discovered that the socializing goal of school was fostered by the hidden curriculum. Wren (1999) notes that some studies have shown that the implicit and explicit curricula can work well together, and that Mennonite schools...
effectively use the hidden curriculum to promote faith and community involvement. Cornbleth (1982, p. 4), in an inquiry whose purposes include discovering "to what extent is the implicit curricula construct likely to facilitate efforts to describe, explain, or improve school social studies experiences," notes that the implicit curricula in social studies impacts political beliefs and practices more than do explicit curricula. For example, positive classroom climate, democratic classroom discussion, and participation in activities outside of the school curriculum do seem to have a positive impact on student's political attitudes and actions (Cornbleth, 1982). She goes on to say, however, that the issue is complex and is not a cause and effect relationship.

These positive consequences of the unstated curriculum—social interaction, cohesive curriculum, faith, community involvement, and political awareness—could have an effect on leadership behavior. While it would be tempting to conclude that the implicit curriculum may help students become better leaders by providing an unstated, supportive environment in which individual skills may develop, this conclusion is too simplistic and may even be untrue. In fact, some students may even reject the perceived social order and establish their own rules of conduct for their group (Cornbleth, 1982). Conflict with the implicit curriculum may also provide situations in which student leadership skills can develop. A seemingly negative situation may produce positive results, especially when dealing with something as complex as human behavior.
Part B: Leadership Perspectives

Introduction

Many of today’s American adults played the game “Follow the Leader” as children. The point of the game is to do whatever the person at the front of the line of children—the leader—did. Skipping, jumping-jacks, and crawling around obstacles were common approaches to the game. However, the game became more exciting when a bold leader was chosen. This type of leader took the other players—the followers—places they didn’t know they could go. Balancing on a high wall, walking through a field of raspberry bushes, and jumping over the local creek added suspense to the game and brought a feeling of accomplishment to the players.

Between the leader who played it safe and the leader who took many risks were a variety of leaders who were more or less able and willing to fulfill the role. Just as it is true for the childhood game, it is true that leaders in the adult world can be characterized as exhibiting a variety of skills and styles; these often are one of eight well-documented perspectives on leadership. An overview of the representative skills and styles, organized into leadership perspectives and an analysis of a variety of similarities among the perspectives follows.

It may seem simple to define what leadership is and what perspectives have been identified. Yet, as Stogdill is quoted as saying: “Four decades of research on leadership have produced a bewildering mass of findings... The endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership” (Yukl, 1998, p. vii). Developing a leadership theory has been slow (Hunt & Larson, 1977; Yukl, 1998);
furthermore, study results have been contradictory. Jennings' (1960) words confirm this confusion: “If we consider only the empirical studies, leadership turns out to be an omnibus term indiscriminately applied to such varied activities as playground leader...or politician...Leadership seems to represent a set of ideas which cannot be empirically described or operationally studied with ease” (Jennings, 1960, pp. 2–3). The analysis of leadership could even be hurt by attempting to build theory (Campbell, 1977).

Furthermore, identifying perspectives is just one level of understanding leadership; those within an organization may hold competing or complementary perspectives, thus complicating or supporting effective leadership (Hsieh & Shen, 1998).

The following eight perspectives, however, have been well documented in the literature, are cited in comprehensive resources on leadership, and provide a good overview of the range of interpretations possible when analyzing leadership. While not exhausting the list of possible perspectives, the discussion and analysis that follow do provide a picture of the wide range of perspectives that exist in the quality called “leadership.” The perspectives include the personality perspective, the formal perspective, the democratic perspective, the political perspective, the subjective perspective, the ambiguity perspective, the moral perspective, and the cultural/symbolic perspective.

The Personality Perspective on Leadership

The first perspective, the personality perspective, focuses on the leader and his or her personal traits and characteristics (Starratt, 1993; Gardner, 1995; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Charisma can be part of the leader’s personality, and this quality lends
a superhuman element to the leader (Jennings, 1960; House, 1977). According to Starratt (1993), empirical studies reveal that charismatic leaders have vision, an ability to put that vision into words, commitment, and the ability to turn thought to action; this in turn inspires the organization to use the leader’s message as a focus for the organization. Charismatic leaders offer followers a perspective on their own work that helps workers look beyond the tasks and jobs that must be accomplished (Starratt, 1993). Furthermore, followers who want to become leaders can be inspired to do so by reading about great leaders (Gardner, 1995). Similarly, adolescent literature that focuses on dysfunctions, pregnancy, and other social problems may help young peer leaders vicariously experience complex issues facing their peers (Beale, 1996), thus inspiring them as they attempt to lead others to successful outcomes of difficult situations. Northouse (1997) uses the term “trait approach” to describe the personality perspective on leadership.

Descriptors for leaders within the personality perspective include having (a) physical traits that indicate leadership: “As for features that make certain leaders appealing, young children are attracted to the overt features [such as] physical attractiveness” (Gardner, 1995, p. 35); (b) cognitive abilities that indicate leadership: “Since all individuals did not have these qualities [intelligence being one], only those who had them would be considered potential leaders” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 101); (c) affective abilities that indicate leadership: “Alert to social environment” and “socially skilled” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 102); (d) supernatural traits that indicate leadership: “Those leaders who exhibit...an enigmatic blend of ordinariness and extraordinariness often appeal to others” (Gardner, 1995, p. 35); Quoting Bryman, “...someone who is viewed as extraordinary....” (Carlson, 1996, p. 139); and (e)
creative/artistic abilities that indicate leadership: “Creative” [in a list of traits of successful leaders] (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 102).

In summary, the personality perspective assumes that leadership is a function of the leader’s charisma and personal traits (Starratt, 1993; House, 1997). Some who hold this perspective argue that leaders can be heroes who have a supernatural ability to lead (Gardner, 1995).

The Formal Perspective on Leadership

The second perspective, the formal perspective, seems to be a product of the Industrial Age (Bush, 1995). Efficiency was one of the rallying cries of the business world at that time; leaders tried to maximize productivity through division of labor, quality of employees, training, and managerial hierarchy; groups were able to do what individuals could not (Yuki, 1998). As Bush (1995) notes, Taylor, Fayol, and Weber are familiar names of the theorists and researchers whose ideas formed the roots of the formal perspective on leadership. Carlson (1996) notes that studies conducted in the 1940s at Ohio State were research projects that looked beyond leaders’ traits to consider what leaders actually did. Though these (and other) studies are inconclusive, the emphasis on actions not traits reveals a deeper understanding of what leadership is.

Descriptors for leaders within the formal perspective include (a) creating structures that promote leadership: “Formal models give prominence to the official structure of the organization” (Bush, 1995, p. 29); (b) demonstrating and/or valuing efficiency: “…a stress on efficiency” (Carlson, 1996, p. 4); (c) demonstrating management skills: “…the importance of managers personally setting overall directions...
and ensuring workers’ compliance” (Carlson, 1996, p. 5); (d) valuing productivity: “…devised techniques for increasing the workers’ productivity” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p. 12); and (e) valuing action: “Once the best way of doing something was established, [the leader] instructed workers to do exactly as they were told and only as they were told” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p. 12).

In conclusion, those who hold the formal perspective assume that leaders exist to create, maintain, and manage the workplace so that productivity goals are met (Bush, 1995). The heart of the formal perspective is both vertical and horizontal structure (Yukl, 1998). Some see the formal perspective more as managing and less as leading (Northouse, 1997).

The Democratic Perspective on Leadership

The third perspective is the democratic perspective. Rather than focusing on characteristics or actions of the leader, this perspective shifts the emphasis from the leader to the followers (Carlson, 1996). After all, it seems logical that those closest to the day-to-day work of the organization should be the ones whose voices should be heard in decision-making. Or, to put it a different way, the main players in the daily operation of an organization take responsibility (Carlson, 1996) for guiding its course. Fiedler (1967) describes the democratic style of leadership as one that shows consideration for others by permitting input and allowing for personal initiative. Such collegiality affirms that expertise rather than position in the organization gives one authority (Bush, 1995).

Descriptors for leaders within the democratic perspective include (a) demonstrating expertise: “They [teachers] have an authority of expertise that contrasts
with the positional authority associated with formal roles” (Bush, 1995, p. 53); (b) attempting to build consensus: “...A very strong harmony bias that assumes away the possibility of conflict. ...A strong spirit of genuine cooperation... Decisions are reached by consensus...” (Bush, 1995, p. 54); “resolves conflict through community consensus” (Carlson, 1996, p. 178); and (c) sharing responsibility: “Staff have formal representation within the various decision-making bodies; “Power is shared...” (Bush, 1995, p. 54); “more democratic structure ...built on shared...responsibility” (Carlson, 1996, p. 172).

In summary, the democratic perspective acknowledges that every voice in an organization should be heard when decisions need to be made (Bush, 1995). Consensus-building activities and shared responsibility are hallmarks of this perspective (Bush, 1995; Carlson, 1996).

The Political Perspective on Leadership

Whereas compromise defines the democratic perspective, power drives the fourth perspective, the political perspective (Bush, 1995). Both democratic and political perspectives focus on followers. The former perspective, however, looks at each individual as having the right to a voice; the political perspective, on the other hand, can become a way to manipulate the voices of individuals so that the leader retains power (Carlson, 1996). At its best, the political perspective acknowledges that conflict is inevitable and negotiation is essential. The group that the individual follower is identified with becomes more important than the individual himself (Bush, 1995). At its worst, powerful interest groups can refashion the goals of the organization; bargaining, negotiating, and compromising become the tools used to gain the upper hand (Bush,
1995). Decision-making can be lengthy. The more delay in achieving consensus, the more opportunity there is to use influence to satisfy the goals of the interest group (Bush, 1995).

Descriptors for leaders within the political perspective include (a) manipulating others to retain power: “Influence...operates through manipulation...” (Bush, 1995, p. 80); (b) negotiating to maintain control: “The language of power...negotiations...” (Bush, 1995, p. 74); and (c) using compromise to retain power: Quoting Blau: “Social exchange...refers to the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring...” (Bush, 1995, p. 83).

In summary, the political perspective emphasizes the negotiation and compromise needed to move an organization forward (Bush, 1995). Power becomes a driving force in an organization that has a leader who operates from the political perspective (Pfeffer, 1992).

The Subjective Perspective on Leadership

The fifth perspective, the subjective perspective, argues that because organizations are made up of individuals whose actions and beliefs almost constantly change the organization, new realities continually are created. Because of this, the organization and its accompanying structures and goals do not really exist; the organization is no more and no less than what the individuals in it interpret it to be (Bush, 1995). Consequently, this perspective also focuses on power, for the meaning ascribed to a certain situation probably is the result of the thoughts and actions of the person or group with the most power (Bush, 1995). Bush (1995) cites Thomas Greenfield as the driving
force behind this perspective, a perspective that grew out of weaknesses Greenfield
identified in formal models (Bush, 1995). Carlson (1996, p. 7) discusses Interpretism, a
close relative of the subjective perspective: “This theory tries to explain the motivation of
employees, how persons affiliate with formal and informal groups, what underlies
problems and conflicts, and what contributes to cultural norms. The theory also
recognizes the existence of context and its influence on the organization.” As Bush
assessment of the meanings of participants, these interpretations are of limited value
unless the more formal and stable aspects of organizations are also examined.”

Descriptors for leaders within the subjective perspective include (a) expressing
interpretations of situations: “Subjective theories emphasize the different meanings
placed...by individuals” (Bush, 1995, p. 102); (b) acknowledging changing realities:
Quoting Silverman, “The same individual even may, at different times or in different
situations, assign varying meanings to what appears to an observer to be the same act”
(Bush, 1995, p. 95); and (c) demonstrating personal qualities resulting in power:
“...Different meanings placed on situations are products of [the various participants’]
values, background, and experience” (Bush, 1995, p. 95).

The subjective perspective, in summary, argues that individuals’ interpretations
create the reality of an organization (Bush, 1995). It assumes that personal qualities
determine leadership roles in the organization more than position in the organization does
(Bush, 1995).
The Ambiguity Perspective on Leadership

The ambiguity perspective is the sixth perspective on leadership. Just as the political perspective can be seen as the dark side of the democratic perspective, so also the ambiguity perspective can be viewed as a less-desirable complement to the subjective perspective. Change is its hallmark, change which results in ambiguity, fragmentation, power struggles, and decentralization (Carlson, 1996). The perspective is fundamentally negative; Cohen and March, this perspective’s well-known researchers, dubbed their understanding of leadership the “garbage can” model (Bush, 1995, p. 117) because problems, solutions, and participants are thrown together in no particular order for no particular reason with no particular goal in mind. Confusion and chaos result.

Yet, this chaos is analogous to the disorder which some perceive in the scientific world. Wheatley (1999) claims that, just as patterns become visible after studying them in the scientific world, so also can leaders identify organizing principles in the chaos of the work world. Carlson (1996) uses similar analogies from other disciplines and philosophies in his discussion of leadership as a dialectical process, a process which includes balancing opposing views and searching for principles underlying ongoing dilemmas (Carlson, 1996).

Descriptors for leaders within the ambiguity perspective include (a) expressing uncertainty about the leadership situation: “Ambiguity models...stress uncertainty...” (Bush, 1995, p. 111); (b) experiencing unpredictability and ambiguity: Quoting March and Olsen, “Ambiguity is a major feature of decision making...” (Bush, 1995, p. 112); (c) experiencing chaos and disorder: “Problems, solutions, and participants interact and choices somehow emerge from the confusion” (Bush, 1995, p. 116); (d) expressing that
luck or chance determines situation: Quoting Hoyle, “The more unpredictable the
...environment, the more applicable is the ambiguity [perspective because] rationalistic
approaches will always be blown off course by the contingent, the unexpected and the
irrational” (Bush, 1995, p. 127).

In summary, those who hold the ambiguity perspective assume that leaders will
have trouble with purpose, power, experience, and success (Bush, 1995). They argue that
uncertainty is the only sure thing in an organization; therefore, leaders will experience
unpredictability and, perhaps, anarchy (Bush, 1995).

The Moral Perspective on Leadership

Perspective number seven is the moral perspective. Expanding the democratic
perspective, it values the individual over the organization or group (Burns, 1978). Some
who see leadership as a moral art believe that only when the individual’s own growth is
paramount will the organization itself grow; this growth occurs through relationship-
building, concern for others, and commitment to values and exemplary practice (DuPree,
1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Trust allows leaders to place power back in the
hands of the practitioner; empowerment then results (DuPree, 1990). Greenleaf (1980),
Bausch (1994), and Melrose (1998) identify vision, focus on people instead of on goals,
and transformation as the leader’s moral responsibility. Burns (1978) even goes so far as
saying that a leader’s task is to raise the followers’ consciousness of their own needs and
identities. The moral perspective on leadership has found its way into much of popular
understanding of leadership. Bowman (1997) notes that current authors such as DuPree
(1990), Kouzes & Posner (1988), Greenleaf (1980), and others have written popular
books on leading by empowering followers, by serving, and by exhibiting moral character.

Descriptors for leaders within the moral perspective include (a) valuing followers’ personal growth: “Quoting Maxcy, “leaders helping ‘followers identify and further what is of value” (Carlson, 1996, p. 162); (b) relying on a guiding principle to make decisions: Quoting Maxcy, “Moral authority [is] possessing superior moral knowledge and certitude” (Carlson, 1996, p. 162); and (c) putting own interests behind those of follower: “A commitment to place oneself in service to students and parents…” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p. 76).

In summary, this perspective focuses on individuals within the organization. A variety of emphases are possible within this perspective. Some say that the organization exists only to strengthen the individual (Greenleaf, 1980; DuPree, 1990); others within this perspective contend that the organization must be subjected to individual interpretation by those who participate in it (Bush, 1995). Still others within this perspective view leadership as a moral enterprise (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

The Cultural/Symbolic Perspective on Leadership

The eighth and final perspective on leadership is the cultural/symbolic perspective. This normative perspective acknowledges an emphasis on values, shared norms, and rituals within organizations (Bush, 1995). As in the personality perspective, leaders who promote the beliefs and ceremonies of the organization are seen as heroes who preserve the culture of the organization (Bush, 1995). Mission statements can be succinct descriptions of group goals, and leaders are expected to promote, sustain, and
develop the stated goals of the organization (Bush, 1995). In some cases, leaders may actually create culture; if this is the case, the leader will be responsible for creating symbols and ceremonies to communicate that culture so that others in the organization can own the new cultural norms (Starratt, 1993; Bush, 1995).

This ownership is essential to renewing the organization, a goal which, in this researcher’s mind, is part and parcel of a leader’s responsibility. Starratt (1993) advocates the use of discussion among organizational members, rather than the use of a top-down approach. Doing so will clarify the symbols and rituals of the organization, what Starratt (1993, p. 137) calls the “mythic content” of the organization. He goes so far as to say that this daily interchange among leaders and others is a drama in which the leader is player, director, stage manager, and critic. Expanding on Bush's analysis, Starratt (1993) acknowledges that cultural/symbolic leaders’ responsibilities go beyond that of the organization: “Leaders must recognize that they are players not only in the drama of the institution, but in the larger drama of society” (Starratt, 1993, p. 144). Their role is truly transformational.

Descriptors for leaders within the cultural/symbolic perspective include (a) Referring to group codes or symbols: “Shared traditions…reinforced by symbols….” (Bush, 1995, p. 130); “Leaders have the main responsibility for… sustaining culture and communicating its core values…” (Bush, 1995, p. 138); (b) Creating group codes or symbols: “Leaders have the main responsibility of generating… culture” (Bush, 1995, p. 138); (c) Acknowledging importance of rituals: “Culture is typically expressed through rituals...” (Bush, 1995, p. 133); and (d) Participating in ceremonies: “Culture is typically expressed through….ceremonies” (Bush, 1995, p. 133).
In summary, cultural/symbolic leaders acknowledge that the organization has symbols, rituals, and codes which communicate the vision of the organization (Bush, 1995). As an active transformer of society, the leader must be “raising questions, challenging assumptions, asking for another opinion, [and] looking beyond tomorrow’s solutions to the larger challenge,” (Starratt, 1993, p. 148) to engage others in discussions which promote renewal of the organization and the broader society.

This group of eight perspectives does not exhaust the list of possible perspectives; others such as the contingency perspective (Fiedler, 1967, 1971, 1993; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996) and the team perspectives (Northouse, 1997) also have been documented. However, the eight perspectives presented are well represented in the literature and are presented in comprehensive texts on leadership. The eight form a good overview of the range of interpretations possible when analyzing what leadership is.

Qualities or Characteristics Shared by Perspectives

To summarize, the eight well-documented perspectives discussed above are the personality perspective, the formal perspective, the democratic perspective, the political perspective, the subjective perspective, the ambiguity perspective, the moral perspective, and the cultural/symbolic perspective. While these eight perspectives have arguments and assumptions that separate them, they also have characteristics that unite them. Sorting the perspectives into groups helps the reader see similarities within a range of variation. The groups into which perspectives will be sorted include transformational and transactional orientations, power-oriented perspectives, and normative and descriptive
orientations; some of these orientations and perspectives will be discussed in Chapter 5 in terms of findings from the current study.

**Transformational or Transmissive Perspectives**

First, most of the perspectives fit clearly into either a transactional or transformational view of leadership. Burns (1978) makes the following distinctions between the two types. It seems that transactional leaders engage in "you scratch my back, I'll scratch yours" tactics to accomplish goals common to both. In transactional leadership, an exchange of "goods" is always made. These relationships can be short-lived. In fact, Burns (1978) says that the relationship will last only as long as necessary; it is fluid and changeable. Transactional leadership produces order and predictability (Carlson, 1996). To use an analogy, transactional leaders are like merchants, exchanging, bartering, and trading to achieve goals.

Transformational leaders, on the other hand, are intellectuals who use criticism, imagination, and thought to affect ends beyond present means (Carlson, 1996). Transformational leadership links people together by inspiring engagement with one another so that a common purpose is achieved (Carlson, 1996). Transformational leadership produces change, often to a dramatic degree" (Carlson, 1996). Trust, vision, and empowerment mark transformational leadership (Burns, 1978; Carlson, 1996). Transformational leaders are like gardeners, tending to the needs and growth of others.

This researcher identifies the formal perspective, with its emphasis on position and productivity, as the epitome of transactional leadership. Ambiguity and political perspectives also involve an emphasis on procedure rather than people. Transformational
leadership perspectives include the moral, democratic, and subjective perspectives. Personal growth, common purpose, individual interpretation, and flexibility, respectively—rather than protocol—drive these perspectives. Depending on the qualities of the leader, the personality perspective and the cultural/symbolic perspective can be transformational or transactional. It should be noted, however, that almost all leadership situations and perspectives have transactional—management—and transformational—true leadership—elements. Kotter (1990, p. 8) notes that “strong management without much leadership can turn bureaucratic and stifling, producing order for order’s sake. Strong leadership without much management can become messianic and cult-like, producing change for change’s sake.”

**Power Structure in Perspectives**

The second way in which the perspectives can be sorted is in terms of power structure. Again, Burns’ work (1978) is helpful in determining which perspectives share a similar view of power-holding. According to Burns (1978, p. 13):

Power is first of all a relationship... It involves the intention or purpose of both power holder and power recipient... On these [two] assumptions... the power process [can be viewed] as one in which power holders (P), possessing certain motives and goals, have the capacity to secure changes in the behavior of a respondent (R), human or animal, and in the environment, by utilizing resources in their power base, including factors of skill, relative to the targets of their power-wielding and necessary to secure such changes.

Power has positive and negative aspects: the motivation can range from self-improvement, to collecting possessions, to gaining recognition, to the satisfaction some get by dominating others. The biggest difference between power and leadership is that power does not attempt to satisfy the followers’ own needs. True leadership, on the other
hand, depends on satisfying the needs of followers (Burns, 1978). As Burns (1978) says, while “all leaders are power[ful]...not all power holders are leaders” (p. 18).

Using Burns' (1978) understanding of power, it seems that the two perspectives that easily meet his definition of leadership by empowering followers are the moral and democratic perspectives; both value individuals over groups, by affirming the worth of each member's opinions and input. The cultural/symbolic perspective, with its acknowledgement that the group defines the values, goals, and symbols that the leader is empowered to influence, also can result in appropriate power-holding. Likewise, this researcher believes that the subjective perspective, by affirming multiple interpretations of situations, can result in appropriate use of power. Interestingly, the personality perspective is also de facto a perspective that affirms appropriate power usage; as Gardner (1995) notes, though those who misuse power may draw others in, they are not true leaders. A misuse of power can exist in situations dominated by the formal, political, and ambiguity perspectives because of their respective emphases on hierarchy, special interest groups, and anarchy.

Normative and Descriptive Perspectives

Finally, some of the eight perspectives are normative and include practical advice for implementation and suggestions for how participants ought to behave; others are descriptive and offer only a picture of what the perspective encompasses (Bush, 1995). Bush (1995) identifies three normative perspectives: democratic (or collegial), formal, and subjective perspectives. In addition, this researcher identifies the moral perspective and cultural/symbolic perspectives as normative, thus bringing the total to five.
Descriptive perspectives, according to Bush (1995), include ambiguity and political perspectives. Likewise this researcher identifies the personality perspective is descriptive, not normative.

In summary, analyzing perspectives in terms of transformative/transmissive qualities, power structure, and normative or descriptive characteristics helps illuminate and broaden understanding of the complex human interaction known as “leadership.” Just as viewing a landscape from multiple perspectives gives one a more accurate picture of the entire terrain, so also viewing leadership situations from a variety of perspectives helps one create a more precise understanding of what “leadership” means. In the study, each of the eight perspectives was analyzed using descriptions from the literature, and declarative statements that identify each of the eight perspectives were created. The researcher used these declarative statements derived from the sources which are cited in the literature review as codes to identify leadership qualities and behaviors in the texts. For example, Code 1.4, “The protagonist has supernatural traits that indicate leadership,” is taken from Gardner’s (1995) description of a leader as having superhuman characteristics.

Opportunities for Adolescent Leadership Development

The human ability known as “leadership” is the focus of this section. Two questions guide this part of this investigation: Is leadership a skill that can be learned and under what conditions and in what ways should leadership themes be introduced to adolescents?
It would be hard to argue against the need for leadership development in adolescents. So many issues in young teens’ lives involve leadership (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999): peer pressure, success in sports, and dating are just a few. If leaders are natural-born, then some may wonder whether teachers even should attempt to teach and develop leadership skills. Fertman and vanLinden (1999, p. 11) say that leadership can be taught and learned: “Becoming a leader is a developmental process. The same can be said of the values and attitudes promoted through character education.” Furthermore, they claim that “all [emphasis mine] adolescents can develop these skills and attitudes” (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999, p. 1). They refer to a study which concluded that three stages of youth leadership development occur in a sequential, fluid way: Stage 1 is awareness of potential for leadership; Stage 2 is involvement in leadership activities; Stage 3 involves mastering the skills identified in previous stages and applying them to new situations. At each stage, opportunities for teaching and learning exist. Though not all youth will take on formal leadership roles, many will become leaders in informal or temporary situations; family and society both provide opportunities for many to act as leaders (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999).

Kathryn Cox (1988) surveyed one thousand leaders in the United States and came to a similar conclusion: Leadership can be learned. Furthermore, many means such as mentors, internships, and experiences can be used to develop leaders. Likewise, Kouzes and Posner (1988, p. 13) emphatically declare that “the belief that leadership cannot be learned is a far more powerful deterrent to development than is the nature of the leadership process itself.”

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Perhaps the second question posed at the beginning of this section should be raised negatively: Under what conditions and in what ways should leadership not be taught? A very poor way that is used most often is through leadership development training; overt attempts to change behavior seem ineffective (Fiedler, 1967, 1971, 1993; Burns, 1978). Fiedler (1971) discovered that “experience and training may simply not raise the overall effectiveness of leaders” (p. 3). Furthermore, the training didn’t seem to raise the effectiveness of the organization, either. The contingency model of leadership operates under the assumption that effective leadership involves the interplay between leader and situation (Fiedler, 1993). Ironically, accepting the contingency model also seems, according to the researcher, to accept that training may actually decrease effectiveness, in some cases. His study focuses on adults in the military, government organizations, and schools, so perhaps the scenario is different for youth.

Fiedler (1967) discusses why training may result in less effective leaders. According to Fiedler (1967), training probably will develop a leader in one of two ways: To be task-oriented or to be human-relations oriented. Because the contingency model assumes that situations will change, half of the trained leaders will have knowledge that is not appropriate to the current situation. Even training that focused less on modifying the leader’s behavior and more on training the leader to become more sensitive to changing situations is suspect. Fiedler (1967) says that such difficulties keep training from being a productive approach.

Training to change behavior and training to recognize situations do not seem to be effective (Fiedler, 1967); therefore, perhaps training that encourages a flexible approach to situations in flux would work well. Fiedler (1967) is not optimistic. Experience leads
him to believe that an individual who is able to be that flexible is very hard to identify.

The best an organization can hope for then, is a leader who knows his style and can adapt the situation to maximize his abilities (Fiedler, 1967).

Burns (1978, p. 63) notes that

learning from experience, learning from people, learning from successes and failures, learning from leaders and followers...are such unique experiences that fruitful generalization becomes impossible. Hence, cutting across all cultures, we turn back to the basic forces that provide clues to the understanding of sources of leadership.

The sources are the wants that are transformed into needs of various types (political, sexual, and personal, for example) (Burns, 1978). Citing Toki’s study of Japanese children, conducted in the 1930s, Burns (1978, pp. 79–80) says that “specific requirements of the moment (rather than internalized, normative standards), determined the nature of the leadership, in most cases.” He seems to be making a case for experience, not training, as a shaper of leadership behavior.

Accepting that overt teaching can result in little leadership development, it seems plausible that leadership could be developed through an implicit approach. According to Burns (1978, p. 79), “in most societies [youth] who assume leadership of school activities, peer groups, athletic teams, and the like do so spontaneously, perhaps without awareness of their leadership behavior.” The situation or moment seems to determine adolescent leadership behavior, behavior which Burns (1978) says has two characteristics: First, adolescent leaders “operate close enough to the followers to draw them up to the leader’s level of moral development” (Burns, 1978, p. 78), development which is higher than that of the followers. These leaders must understand a variety of roles within the group, must acknowledge followers’ needs while staying true to the rules.
of the group, and must facilitate conflict resolution, all while being one with, yet also one above, the group—in terms of moral development. Second, the adolescent leader is the glue that holds the group together. Burns, (1978, p. 80) citing Whyte’s study of street gangs (as well as noting that “these findings could be multiplied almost endlessly”), concludes that, to one extent or another, smaller groups formed when an adolescent leader was absent from the group. This effect varied depending on factors such as how long the leader was absent, whether a replacement was available, and what situations led to the absence of the leader. It is important to know this because the fluid nature of leadership means that the experience may be one many adolescents have or may have.

Burns’ (1978) conclusions are based on theories of need hierarchy, moral development, and personal growth: “If the origin of the leader’s value system lies in childhood conscience, adolescence and adulthood bring new overtures and new closures as norms are interpreted and applied in ever-widening, ever more differentiated social collectives” (1978, p. 73). If this is the case, adolescent experiences with literature could very well be a new overture in the development of leadership attributes and characteristics, a premise that is discussed in the next section. Because it seems adolescent leadership is spontaneous and not influenced by overt attempts to develop it (Fiedler, 1971; Burns, 1978), implicit messages may be a powerful influence.

The study this researcher undertook investigates the implicit theme of leadership in Newbery Award-winning books. In a study similar in scope and method to this study, Shen (1994) argues that through illustrations, captions, word choice, and the like, a publisher can reflect the bias of the social environment of which he or she is a product. His subject of review is images of the United States as found in Chinese geography.
textbooks. His conclusion, that “textbooks should become an instrument for liberating rather than enslaving people,” (Shen, 1994, p. 210) returns the reader to the introduction of this literature review. If teachers are to transform culture, then they must critically examine the implicit curriculum and materials that inhabit the classroom. This study will enable decision-makers to understand what kinds of leaders are hiding in adolescent literature.

Part C: Adolescent Literature, Exemplified by Newbery Award-winning Books

Introduction

Classrooms, the textbook informs the learning that occurs (Kalb, 1988; Vacca & Vacca, 1989; Bazler & Simonis, 1990). Though curriculum is the foundation of learning, text of some sort (video, book, computer program) would most likely be used as a tool to transfer the curriculum from thought to action (Kalb, 1988). Distinctions have been made between official and experienced curriculum (Doll, 1996); a text, most likely, is a major part of the road between these two points. As Stolley & Hill (1996, p. 35) note by quoting Geersten, “Educators rely on textbooks to communicate information to students; textbooks often are the ‘central focus’ of a course.” Language arts texts include both anthologies and trade books (Hamilton, 2002). Additionally, trade books themselves are used in language arts classrooms for silent reading, pleasure reading, read-alouds, and to extend and reinforce content being taught (O’Neil, 1994; Sanchez, 1998, Friedman & Cataldo, 2002). Sources such as Peterson & Solt (1982), Lipson (1988), Gillespie (1998) and Children’s Books in Print (2003) can help teachers, students, and parents as they
choose books to extend and reinforce the curriculum (O’Neil, 1994; Sanchez, 1998; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002)

The study of the hidden leadership themes found in Newbery Award-winning books is conducted under assumptions such as the following: readers must interact with text to comprehend, reading involves the activation of schema, and reading is an active process of constructing, discovering, and assigning meaning to the written word (Vacca & Vacca, 1989; Herber & Herber, 1993); therefore, text is not so much a physical object that takes up space as it is a set of information waiting to be transformed into meaning in the mind of the reader. Text combined with personal insights result in meaning (Farber, Provenzo, & Holm, 1994). As Hall notes, discovering the text’s social and/or historical roots, its style and rhetoric, even the text’s form and appearance enable the reader to make meaning of the text’s perspective (Curtin, 1995). Methods available to researchers to enable them to discover meaning in texts in the ways described above are discussed in Chapter 3.

Description of Newbery Award-winning Books

The Newbery medal is “awarded annually to the author of the most distinguished contribution to American literature for children published in the United States during the preceding year (newberymedal.com).” The award was first given in 1922 with a three-pronged purpose: To encourage creative work in the field of books for children, to emphasize the contributions of children’s literature, and to give children’s librarians an opportunity to promote good writing. The American Library Association administers the award, and members of the American Library Association’s Association for Library
Services to Children choose the awardees (newberyaward.com). Those are the official details. But a less didactic view of the Newberys is given by Barbieri (2000, pp. 92–93):

The Newberys, founded in 1922 and named after an eighteenth century British bookseller, were multicultural long before the term was invented, and before diverse writers began to be honored by the major adult prizes...Hispanics, Native Americans, and Asian Americans have all been nominated frequently, and a child could tour the world, from Africa to Armenia, Iceland to Japan, reading the Newberys.

Nor do the judges favor our species unduly. Although children and famous adults are most often central characters, dogs have won twice (Sounder, 1970 and Shiloh, 1992), and horses are frequently nominated, though only one has won (Smoky the Cow Horse, 1927). Other nominees and winners include cats, mice, pigeons, deer, tigers, raccoons, scorpions, penguins, bears, moose, wolves, rabbits, and even microbes.

Particularly in the 1930s and the 1940s, the awards tended toward non-fiction and a serious dose of patriotism...For the past half-century, though, the Newberys have turned largely to fiction...

Effects of Literature, Including Newbery Books, on Adolescents

Literature study in middle school can be undertaken for many reasons: to teach reading skills, to serve as a model for writing, and to illuminate current events (Hamilton, 2002). Tambling (1991, p. 94) reminds readers of the ultimate purpose of reading stories: “It is interesting that the etymology of the word ‘narrate’ relates to... Knowing (cp. ‘cognoscere’): narrative is a way of knowing the world.” This “knowing” can take many forms, including knowing more about human responses to situations (Hamilton, 2002). Schwartz (1979, p. 6) says that “literature is read primarily in terms of how it illuminates life” (p. 6). Furthermore, she, quoting Rosenblatt, refers to literature study as a sharp, intense experience (Schwartz, 1979, p. 8):

More directly than most teachers, [literature teachers] foster general ideas or theories about human nature and conduct, definite moral attitudes, and
habitual responses to people and situations... These attitudes and theories are proffered in their most easily assimilable forms, as they emerge from personal and intimate experience of specific human situations, presented with all the sharpness and intensity of art.

Surprisingly, it seems that the best way for this illumination, this intense experience, to produce increased understanding is not by driving the point home directly: “If... information displaces the understanding, then didacticism has won out. Literature does not teach; it helps us understand. Nor does literature preach” (Lukens, 1986, p. 118). Lessons seem best learned when lessons are not taught; discovering themes in an inferential way is identified as effective. Lukens (1986, p. 113) expresses this idea this way, noting that insight is preferable to instruction:

When we think of theme as a “moral” or “a lesson,” or even as a “message,” we are turned away by the idea that we must learn how or how not to behave. But a good story is not meant to instruct us. Its purpose is to entertain us...[and] it gives us insight into people and how they think and feel. [It] enlarges our understanding.

This process of developing understanding is personal: “The theme we take to become part of ourselves is the one that enlarges our understanding and the one we discover for ourselves—not the one underlined and delivered didactically by the author” (Lukens, 1986, p. 123). Furthermore, each member of the actual audience is different, and each reads in his or her own way, with a distance from other readers, depending on such variables as class, gender, race, personality, training, culture, and historical situation (Rabinowitz, 1987; Hamilton, 2002). Adolescents are especially encouraged to discover meaning in works of literature; students at these formative ages can use “the moral and ethical struggles of literary and historical personalities and the potential meaning of those experiences in shaping their own ideals” (Brooks & Goble, 1997, p. 87). Likewise, Hamilton (2002, p. 61) notes that “part of understanding middle school students is the
recognition that they live in the moment and often do their best when the materials we
give them are grounded in the realities of their own lives.”

Literature study for students at the young adolescent stage has additional benefits.
In addition to building knowledge (Hanna, 1964), literature aids personality and social
development (Hayden, 1969; Friedman & Cataldo, 2002), and helps students discover
truths about the human experience (Peterson & Eden, 1977; Kinman & Henderson, 1985;
Sullivan & Yandall, 1990). Many students identify with book characters, and this
connection provides a stabilizing force in turbulent lives (Hart, 1964).

Sometimes, books can connect with students even better than other humans can.
Self-understanding can be facilitated by reading about others in similar situations
(Hamilton, 2002). Such role playing can be very powerful, especially if the reading is
guided by an adult who can help the student integrate new information; questioning can
help students have meaningful experiences with books, experiences that will help
students develop mature, reasoned understandings of how the world works (Hanna,
1964).

Friedman and Cataldo (2002, p. 102) affirm the premise that books can be
powerful influences; they bring the argument even closer to the focus of this study by
noting:

Understanding problems that characters face and how they weigh and
consider options as they resolve dilemmas offers young readers models of
effective decision making. Through encounters with these Newbery
books, middle school readers vicariously experience, ponder, and make
decisions about moral cognitive dilemmas that they might someday
experience. Main characters in these books are dynamic role models for
all of us as they reason through difficult dilemmas, making decisions
based on their developing processes of inquiry.

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Other researchers also have acknowledged the usefulness of studying Newbery books to gain insight into adolescent thinking, development, and problem solving. Long ago, Hayden (1969) used schemata or codes to identify problem-solving patterns and growth among characters in numerous Newbery titles. She found that literature contributed to the reader's own ability to navigate problem-solving through the vicarious experience of reading about similar situations in Newbery books. Similarly, Peterson and Eden (1977) identify the fifty-three Newberys they studied as an attitude source for teens as they formulate opinions about aging. Kinman and Henderson's (1985) analysis of sexism in Newberys noted that the books contained positive female images (as well as more images than in the past two decades) and everyday life experiences; they tie these two findings together when they note: “Whether authors are consciously developing nonstereotypic characters or if this is a natural growth process of writers and literature, the results are the same. From this survey it would seem that authors are observing society as it is and evolving stories and characters that fit into it” (Kinman & Henderson, 1985, p. 888). The authors note (Kinman & Henderson, 1985) that the realistic experiences in the Newbery stories studied are easy for readers to identify with and respond to.

Sullivan and Yandell (1990) studied the spiritual and religious messages in Newbery realistic fiction books, and drew conclusions about the power of literature, conclusions which are relevant to the current study. First, the researchers noted that both children and adults in the study were able to identify such implicit messages. Furthermore, they noted that protagonists in realistic situations become role models, so that readers are able to apply new insight to their own lives. That, however, is not the
The messages are not blatant or obviously stated in quality literature. Therefore, in discussing such literary works, children must respond to higher order questions which implement the goals associated with reading and education generally...

The utilization of quality literature with children can facilitate multiple educational goals. Not only can such material be used to practice reading skills, but, as a mirror of society, children's literature can convey spiritual values and promote development of critical thinking skills. Exposure to outstanding literary works can be essential in developing lifelong love of reading and learning.

Horning (2001), in her analysis of trends in Newbery books between 1986 and 2000, praises the quality of writing evident in Newbery books and recent children's books, in general. Following this applause, however, she notes that this 15-year time span has also revealed another outstanding, if not complimentary, feature: The children in these books are often orphaned or abandoned. She wonders what message this sends to young readers, and asks if we as adults are acknowledging that we have neglected our responsibilities and now rely on children to fix the resultant mess. Her premise that trends can reveal hidden themes complements the research being conducted in this study.

Furthermore, Newberys are worth reading (Kalb, 1988; Leal & Chamberlain-Solecki, 1998). According to Horning (2001), no other award, prize, or accolade has impacted literature for children more than this; it has fulfilled its founder's purpose of encouraging not better, but the best writing for children. Those who are interested in the field of children's books study the winners each year. Perhaps the greatest testimony to the worth of the Newbery Award is that argument and criticism always accompany the decision-making process (Horning, 2001).
Adolescents’ Unique Receptivity to Implicit Literary Leadership Messages

Adolescence is many things (Hamilton, 2002), most of which are outside of the scope of this discussion. However, adolescence as a time of identity exploration and formation is at the heart of why adolescents are the right target group for the study (Hamilton, 2002). First, exploration is a process of gathering information, testing hypotheses, trying on roles, and establishing relationships; the choices made using this process often result in long-term commitment to ideal or practice (Moshman, 1999). Second, adolescents are characterized by identity formation. This process has been studied from many vantage points. One, proposed by Sarbin and quoted in Moshman (1999, p. 89), “emphasizes the creative construction of narratives about our lives. The various stories we encounter in novels, plays, movies, and other plot forms...provide the plot structures for our own self-narratives.” Others, such as Hogben & Waterman (1997) note that identity is not constructed, but is discovered. This perspective posits that choices are made because one’s personality is what it is. Therefore, a choice of identity which produced negative feeling would be rejected because it didn’t fit, not because it was wrong (Moshman, 1999). Either one of these orientations seems to allow that identity formation in adolescents is an active, though perhaps unconscious process of sifting through choices and examples of identities (Hamilton, 2002). Perhaps adolescents who experience leadership situations through the lives of characters they can identify with, would develop or discover (depending on the perspective of choice) more complex leadership behaviors.

Students in middle school should be reading texts that connect to their experience (Broughton, 2002) because some characteristics of adolescents (as noted above) make
literature a powerful force and voice in their lives. Hamilton (2002) brings together the characteristics of adolescents and the value of literature study. He traces definitions and descriptions of adolescence from 1700 BC to present day, and he concludes that today’s emphasis on multiple perspectives on adolescence probably is closest to the truth. It seems then, that Piaget’s, Erikson’s, and Kohlberg’s respective emphases on cognitive, social, and moral dimensions, for example, are different ways to describe the complex reality called adolescence (Hamilton, 2002). Because of the complexity of the adolescent experience, great care must be taken “to organize ways that will help kids begin to understand and participate in adult reality” (Hamilton, 2002, p. 59).

Fiction often is chosen as one of these ways to promote understanding, and it appears it is a good choice for adolescents (Hamilton, 2002). Because adolescents are preoccupied with themselves, they should be ideal readers; adolescents are interested in relationships, responsibility, and decision-making (Probst, 1984). They want to make sense of the world, of good and bad, or work, even of death; these are the themes of distinguished literature, especially literature that has withstood the test of time (Probst, 1984).

Kinman and Henderson (1985, p. 887) highlight the importance of realistic fiction:

Adolescents are confused over what they will become, as well as who they are, and they role play attitudes and behavior. Literature then must deal with characters assuming adult behaviors and searching for adult identity. The books’ characters and situations must have an element of reality: Readers can then accept that the character’s experiences are similar to their own.

Because adolescent readers live in the present moment, the books that appeal to them probably will be “grounded in the realities of their own lives” (Hamilton, 2002, p. 61).
This study is crafted to analyze books in light of Probst's (1984), Kinman & Henderson's (1985), and Hamilton's (2002) parameters. First, it seems that Newberys have withstood the test of time; the award has been given every year since 1922. Second, the sample chosen for the study correlates to the lives (as measured by characters’ ages and realistic fiction) adolescents live (Hamilton, 2002). The study is also historical, so insight into changing social emphases also will come to light: “It is true now, as it was true when John Newbery published children’s books, that what is published for children reflects the contemporary society’s opinions of what children should read, and that opinions about that idea change with time and place” (Sutherland, 1997).

Current Studies of Leadership Perspectives Hidden in Adolescent Literature, Including Newbery Books

The review of the literature indicates that often leadership is a skill comprised of subskills: As the literature indicates, examples of skills which effective leaders may have include the ability to negotiate (Bush, 1995), to relate to others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996), to manage (Bush, 1995), and to serve (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Research and studies that examine literature study in light of themes such as heroes, values, and character development (a theme which can include descriptors related to leadership [Fertman & VanLinden, 1999]) are described below:

Sanchez (1999) notes that values are best taught as part of the core curriculum; the study of heroes, fictional, historical, and contemporary, encourages both emulation of positive character traits and also a desire to contribute to the common good. Biographies, trade books, and stories from many cultures should be used to help students learn by example (Sanchez, 1998). Newbery award winners have been deemed exemplary fiction

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by the American Library Association (Gillespie & Naden, 2001, p. xvii); therefore, they
are relevant sources to use for a study of leadership themes in adolescent literature.

Gordon and Ackerman (1984) claim that myth, a specialized kind of story, has
been ignored as a source of character development. However, they claim that such
stories are effective in developing character because they encode societies’ values in
characters’ roles. They use the role of the Israeli homeroom teacher, mentor, and,
sometimes, folk hero—the Mechanech—to illustrate their point that heroic values are
embodied in roles. This, it seems, would be true for characters in the pages of books as
well; worthy traits would be embedded in heroic roles. Because the Mechanech’s
function extends outside of traditional school subjects, the authors see values- or
character-education as anti-intellectual. Wynne (1984) notes that the Greeks had another
viewpoint; for them, leadership was considered the application of formal learning.

Using literature to learn character traits and values (some of which can be
descriptors for subskills used in leadership [Fertman & Van Linden, 1999]) has been the
subject of additional research as well. Leming (2000), echoing Gordon and Ackerman
(1984), points out that narratives give shape and meaning to cultural values. He
conducted a study of the implementation of a character-development curriculum for
students in first through sixth grade using analysis of covariance for three dependent
variables—ethical understanding, sensitivity, and conduct. He drew many conclusions;
for this discussion, the most relevant conclusion was that research must be interpreted
through a theoretical perspective (Leming, 2000); the current study uses the theoretical
perspective of leadership perspectives as its base of interpretation. The study also
attempts to build theory about adolescents, role models, leadership, gender, and historical

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perspective. Leming (2000) notes that there are four theories of the relationship between moral development and experiencing literature with a moral theme. First, moral narratives affect moral development. Second, a child’s developmental level affects interpretation. Third, narratives validate moral thought. Last, character education experiences based on literature study are a form of observational learning. His research suggests that a weakness of literature-based character education is lack of systematic theory in implementation. This study attempts to use leadership perspectives as a theoretical base and also as a means to develop theory about leadership and adolescence.

Smagorinsky (2000) advocates the use of literature, especially using a thematic approach, in teaching values. He does not support the didactic approach promulgated by the state of Georgia, an approach that encourages adults to provide examples of exemplary behavior for children to mimic. Instead he acknowledges the power of inference, an important consideration when discussing hidden curriculum. He calls for a reflective approach in which literature is used to help students construct—not adopt—appropriate character traits and value systems, some of which can be seen as subskills of leadership (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999). Leal (1999) also supports an interdisciplinary approach, a practice which she claims is widespread. Finally, researchers advocate the use of literature, especially, reflective, inferential approaches to literature to strengthen the reader’s character (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999). Though none of the research noted above focuses on leadership, the qualities heroes possess and the traits society deems desirable are the foundations upon which effective leadership is built (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999).
The category of literature known as Newbery Award-winning books has been analyzed for implicit themes. Houdyshell and Kirkland (1998) focus on the portrayal of central female characters in Newbery Award-winning books from 1922–1996. Their premise is that characters reflect social trends, and their purpose is to compare current portrayals with portrayals from the earlier days of the awards. The researchers conclude that the number of heroines as central characters has increased, and the recent heroines themselves show character traits of independence and self-reliance (Houdyshell & Kirkland, 1998).

Similarly, Leal (1999) used Newberys as the vehicle for determining what messages about character students are getting from literature. Though Newbery Award-winning books are hailed as outstanding, little research has been done to determine what traits are prominent in them. The current study attempts to begin to fill that void by discovering what leadership perspectives and characteristics are implicit in a representative sample of Newbery books. Literature is such a natural way to present character education (Sanchez, 1998; Leal, 1999); Leal (1999) studied both the theme and actions of the Newbery characters by keeping running records of incidents of specific traits such as compassion, respect, loyalty, courage, responsibility, and justice. The results were catalogued using two criteria: frequency of trait and strength or intensity of trait. She discovered that those who read the books (the research team) interpreted frequency and intensity differently. Discussion among participants was invigorating and helped participants clarify meaning. This result inspired Leal (1999) to develop a strategy for helping students engage in literature analysis. Her goal, she states, is “to encourage more compassion, more respect, and to produce discerning future citizens,
more cognizant of their own responses and responsibilities, in a society looking for integrity” (Leal, 1999, p. 248). These are noble traits for adolescent leaders to have.

In addition to these character-related studies of Newberys, others have focused on minority depictions (Miller, 1998), multicultural perspectives (Gillespie, Powell, & Clements, 1994, and gender-role socialization (Agee, 1993). Miller (1998, p. 34) notes: “When for twenty-one years a body of literature with the power of the Newbery gold [lacked] even one text by a minority lead, the message sent to children is that the ‘most distinguished’ protagonists and authors are white. This trend is most unfortunate.”

Gillespie, Powell, & Clements (1994) conducted a similar, though more comprehensive study than Miller’s (1998). They investigated the ethnicity and characters in Newberys from 1922–1994. Their study divides results into decades; their purpose was not to isolate non-white characters but to draw attention to them. Agee (1993, p. 166) examined how mother-daughter relationships are expressed in selected Newbery books; she concluded that “gender roles depicted in fiction for young readers often grow out of unexamined, long-accepted cultural assumptions about who women are and what they are supposed to do with their lives…”

Furthermore, authors and researchers have conducted practical, classroom-based studies on Newberys, and the studies illustrate the desirability of using Newberys as a data source: using Newbery Award-winning books to enliven history teaching through the use of literature both of and about historical time periods (Kalb, 1988), and examining the readability of the books (Leal & Chamberlain-Solecki, 1998), which, using the Fry readability formula, they calculated to be 6.8, overall, for the seventy-six books in the sample, are two examples.
Conclusion

In summary, the current study is focused on discovering the implicit or hidden curriculum of leadership perspectives found in adolescent literature, including Newbery books. Review of the literature was conducted to discover what studies have been conducted, what descriptions exist, and what information is available concerning the main indicators in the previous sentence: "implicit or hidden curriculum," "leadership perspectives," and "Newbery books." First, implicit or hidden curriculum was defined, discussed in terms of cultural transformation and in terms of texts, analyzed in light of research findings that exist (including gender and role models) concerning the hidden curriculum of texts and Newbery books specifically, and discussed in terms of effects on students. Second, eight major perspectives on leadership were described, qualities shared by the perspectives were discussed, and literature concerning adolescent leadership development reviewed. Finally, research and information about adolescent literature, including Newbery books, was discussed in terms of defining Newbery books as a group, discussing the effect of literature, including Newbery books, on adolescents, discussing adolescents' unique receptivity to literary leadership messages, and reviewing current studies of implicit or hidden leadership perspectives in adolescent literature, including Newbery books.

This study brings the three major constructs—implicit or hidden curriculum, leadership perspectives, and Newbery books—together. It uses the definition of hidden curriculum and information about hidden curriculum in texts, eight leadership perspectives discussed in the literature, and methods derived from current studies of
hidden curriculum in adolescent literature, including Newbery books, to discover,

describe, and discuss what leadership perspectives are hidden in the thoughts, words, and
deeds of the protagonists whose stories are told in a representative sample of Newbery
books.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This study uses content analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998) to discover the leadership perspectives found in a representative sample of Newbery Award-winning books, texts commonly used as part of the curriculum in language arts classrooms (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002). The sample represents Newberys that are realistic fiction, appropriate for adolescents, and have a human protagonist between 12 and 15 years old. Codes were developed, based on the literature on leadership, to describe eight well-documented leadership perspectives. Through a process of annotating and coding contiguous paragraphs of text which contain protagonist’s leadership thoughts or behaviors, the analysis will attempt to discover what leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books, which perspectives are dominant, whether or not the portrayal of identified perspectives changes over time, and whether or not protagonist’s gender has an effect on leadership perspective. These are the research questions for the study, which is cross-textual and cross-generational.

Because the researcher comes to the task with knowledge about common perspectives on leadership, many of the comments and categories will reflect that knowledge. However, the researcher was hoping to discover previously unknown (Charmaz, 1995; Riffe & Frietag, 1997) perspectives on leadership, especially themes
which are specific to adolescents. Some may object to a subjective approach which allows for discoveries beyond what has already been identified, and they may question the validity of the study. However, readers create meaning based on their own interpretations and situations; meaning isn’t latent, waiting to be pulled out; it is created (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). A variety of texts requires a variety of interpretive approaches, says Moore (1997). Reliability could have been enhanced by having a second researcher approach the selections; agreement between the two analyses could then be determined.

Research Design: The Process of Using Content Analysis

Introduction

Content analysis (described below) was used to quantify and analyze the leadership themes that exist in the chosen texts. Dominant leadership perspectives emerged; an adolescent leadership perspective was developed, based on these dominant patterns, and trends in the developing theories were identified and interpreted. Knowledge of characteristics defining the eight leadership perspectives, as discovered in the literature, was used as the content was analyzed, by applying codes to chapters of text.

The content which was analyzed helped the researcher discover what the text is revealing (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998) about leadership. A description of adolescent leadership based on sub-categories that were dominant was revealed. Certainly, patterns of leadership were evident from the analysis of seventeen exemplary texts for adolescent readers. These patterns are presented in Chapter 4.
A number of methods are available to researchers to enable them to interpret texts in the ways described above; however, only one is most relevant to the study at hand. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) identify three types of analyses, each with its own theoretical basis. The three analyses are narrative, semiotic, and content, each of which will be discussed below. Because content analysis is the method chosen to accomplish the purposes of this study, its treatment will be disproportionate to and broader than that of the remaining two perspectives.

Analysis of Text to Reveal Its Unstated Perspectives

Text can be analyzed in a variety of ways. Three are described below. The first two are briefly mentioned only to illustrate why they are not satisfactory methods to use for the study.

The first type of analysis is narrative analysis. Those who analyze narratives, be the narratives written, spoken, ancient, or modern, do so from the viewpoint of the one who created the story, not from a societal perspective (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Narrative analysis has been used to understand myths, medical reports, and court stories; the common thread in this rather diverse group of narratives is an interest in lives and experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Some modes of narrative analysis focus on external meaning-making while others emphasize the internal empowerment that self-interpretation brings. The latter perspective is, according to Denzin and Lincoln (1998), more typical. Sometimes, the individual narratives of a group are used to discover the corporate culture of an organization. To further illustrate the broad range of analysis which can occur under the heading “narrative analysis,” consider also that some see
narrative text as symbolic, a means by which society speaks; this view rejects the coding and quantifying common to content analysis and focuses instead on the text as a whole (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

Semiotic analysis, the second type of analysis used to discover hidden themes in text, looks closely at the signs and symbols of a society to gain insight into social interpretation. Interpretation is culturally created (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998); paradigms result from signs being clustered together for a variety of purposes. Paradigms and their resultant fields and codes vary depending on context and culture. For example, a sign for a common fast food hamburger restaurant would be interpreted differently by a child, an adult vegetarian, and by a hungry, homeless person. Semiotic analysis can be used in a number of situations because all human communication is a “text” which must be “read” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 252).

The research that will be conducted in this study will share some characteristics of semiotic analysis, because Newbery books can be considered an indicator of societal values (Thomas, 1994; Curtin, 1995; Miller, 1998). However, only the researcher’s interpretations will be studied. Interpretations of the larger society (other researchers, adolescents, school media specialists, etc.) could be subjects for future analysis.

Neither narrative nor semiotic analysis will fulfill completely the demands of this study. Rather, the study this researcher completed relies on the third type of analysis, content analysis. In this study, descriptors for existing leadership perspectives were used as a lens to identify occurrences of perspectives in the texts; the text also was allowed to speak for itself and display perspectives previously unnoted, through a process similar in ways to that described by Charmaz (1995). Trends within and among leadership
perspectives were used to develop theories about gender, role models, and adolescent leadership.

Content analysis is "a quantitatively oriented technique by which standardized measurements are applied to metrically defined units and these are used to characterize and compare documents" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 248). The units referred to in the quotation can be words, clauses, pictures, charts, titles, etc. The analysis contains quantitative elements, but the interpretation is qualitative. Therefore, content analysis carries the two-fold burden of methodological problems (validity, sampling, etc.) as well as the contextual problem of the interactions among reader and text (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). In the field of journalism and mass communications study in the United States and Canada, content analysis was widely used; almost twenty-two percent of postgraduate work (theses and dissertations) in the early eighties involved content analysis, a method which is becoming more statistically sophisticated (Riffe & Frietag, 1997). Furthermore, numbers of studies published in the field of journalism and mass communications dramatically increased between 1924 and 1983, a trend that seems likely to continue (Riffe & Frietag, 1997). Riffe & Frietag (1997) contend that content analysis is best used when used to develop theory. A number of theories and methods of content analysis will be addressed below.

Curtin (1995) divides content analysis into categories (including qualitative content analysis, discourse analysis, and textual analysis), and focuses her work on textual analysis, a process similar to the one used in the current study. Textual analysis emphasizes research design, theoretical perspective, text, and research questions; the interplay among these elements leads her to reject the idea that meaning in text resides in
the text itself (Curtin, 1995). Rather, meaning is produced during the dynamic interactions among reader and text (Vacca & Vacca, 1989; Curtin, 1995). Therefore, one text may have many meanings, though dominant meanings may be identified. The foundations of the beliefs and values of a society may be hidden within texts (Curtin, 1995). In fact, she continues, language itself is an indicator of underlying beliefs. Therefore, content analysis can be used as a tool to uncover societal norms, beliefs, and values (Curtin, 1995).

With content analysis, fragments of a whole are analyzed and then reassembled into categories; analysis of the relationship among categories leads to a variety of conclusions (Thomas, 1994; Curtin, 1995). Method of analysis involves which fragments should be analyzed. Thomas (1994) makes a case for content analysis by saying that analyzing phenomena in parts helps one more fully and precisely understand the whole. Curtin (1995) argues that inferences made from the study of artifacts (such as texts) do have a legitimate role in research. Thomas (1994) says that content analysis reveals an understanding of the cultural meaning embedded in artifacts. Allen (1997) claims that accumulated experience which is quantified and analyzed reveals general principles.

Texts contain layers of meaning that are created through interactions among the text, the reader, and the context (Herber & Herber, 1983; Vacca & Vacca; 1989; Curtin, 1995). It is this meaning or world view that is of qualitative interest to a researcher. Ahuria (2001) has taken this idea of interpreted text and melded it with the technique of content analysis and created a method he calls reception-based content analysis. The researcher codes the inferences that the person to whom the text is directed makes. This two-step interpretive process affirms the definitions of reading presented earlier. Potter
and Levine-Donnerstein (1999, p. 259-262) identify three types of content, one of which they label "projective;" it is a close relative of Ahuria's (2001) reception-based content. In summary, content analysis methods can be used to discover the underlying themes in a text; a variety of content analyses which have been used in recent research involving textbooks will be discussed below.

Elting and Roberts (1993) use a method called Linguistic Content Analysis in which key words are categorized and relationships analyzed using a self-made classification scheme (Krippendorf, 1980; Tamir, 1985; Weber, 1986). The unit of analysis in the Linguistic Content Analysis is the clause, a group of words that includes a complete thought (a subject and a predicate). Eltinge and Roberts (1993) used this method in their study of science as inquiry in textbooks; they discovered, among other findings, that inquiry was a focus in science texts more often in the sixties than in the eighties, perhaps because of a shift in emphasis in science education. Wineburg (1991), too, used the independent clause as a coding unit in his study of giving-patterns among Jewish children. Using observation and questionnaires, he found that, over a five-month period, young adolescents in a Jewish school gave more to charity than did older adolescent students (Wineburg, 1991).

Stolley and Hill (1996) expand on the Linguistic Content Analysis method by including context in their analysis of the portrayal of the elderly in marriage and family textbooks. Amount of space given to the topic "elderly" (results indicated space was limited), where the elderly are discussed (results indicated separate from other family topics), and number and type of visual images (results indicated little diversity in socio-economic categories) add additional information to the analysis of how the elderly are...
presented in these texts (Stolley & Hill, 1996). Analyses of photos and key phrases were used in Hogben & Waterman’s (1997) study of diversity issues in introductory psychology textbooks; they determined, among other findings, that diversity-related topics have increased over time. Hall and Stolley (1997) found that abortion gets more attention than adoption in family life textbooks; they used extent of coverage (including index citations and unique space devoted to the topic) and thematic analysis in their study of the presentation of adoption and abortion topics in marriage and family textbooks between 1950 and 1987. In doing so, quantitative (coverage) and qualitative (themes) analyses provide a comprehensive picture of the way adoption and abortion are addressed in these textbooks.

These last two examples show how researchers have expanded the idea of content analysis by moving beyond the unit of the clause to including visual images, index entries, and physical space in their analyses. McCabe (1996) offers another variation on the content analysis theme. He identified sections of text in current fifth-grade social studies textbooks in which the key words “African-American” or “black” were used, then identified one of the five case relationships that existed, basing his judgment on the verbs (or verbal phrases) the author used. In addition, he examined noun ethnicity to ensure that the sentences were considered in the proper context. The five cases were (1) state-patient; (2) process-patient; (3) action-agent; (4) experiential- (as a state) experiencer; and (5) experiential- (as a process) experiencer. An example of each type of case is (1) “African-Americans were slaves; (2) “African-Americans became slaves,” (3) “African-Americans fought for freedom,” (4) “African-Americans wanted to be free,” (5) “African-Americans learned the answer” (McCabe, 1996, pp. 384–387). His results
indicate that “the verbs used by these five textbook publishers when describing African-Americans nurture a feeling that African-Americans were active and not passive” (McCabe, 1995, p. 393).

Finally, Short (1995) helps researchers and readers understand the value of content analysis. She differentiates between qualitative and quantitative content analyses. Qualitative analyses, she notes, especially those that include practical application, offer more to educators than do quantitative analyses that count occurrences of selected items. Critical responses, more democratic classrooms, and discussion result from the former approach (Short, 1995). This study aspires to being included in this category of studies that promote active student response. This study uses elements of both quantitative (by coding text for occurrences related to leadership perspectives) and qualitative (by ranking occurrences and providing contextual support for conclusions, analysis, and developing theories) analysis (Hall & Stolley, 1997).

Validity and reliability must be maintained regardless of the type or method of content analysis being used (Riffe & Frietag, 1997). Reliability requires consistency while validity requires accuracy (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). Multimethod, complementary approach as such as content analysis combine elements of both quantitative and qualitative research; therefore, they achieve triangulation and improve validity (Miron, 1998). Also, content analysis can be used as a tool to build theory (Riffe & Frietag, 1997).

Riffe and Frietag’s (1997) assertion that theory can result from content analysis is evident in this study. Charmaz (1995) identified the generation of theory from the patterns identified in the data as inductive. Content analysis can be conducted in a
variety of ways: The researcher can identify, using thematic markers, categories that she expects to find before she analyzes the content of the text, or she can discover categories and themes as the text is read (Riffe & Frietag, 1997). Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) argue that theory can take one of three roles in a study: deductive, inductive, or no role. Beginning with a theory that guides the coding process is a deductive role for theory; beginning with observation and ending with generalizations which can become theory is an inductive role for theory. While doing without theory functioning either deductively or inductively is possible, Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) say the situation requires a unique plan for analysis of content. This researcher used both deductive and inductive approaches to discover leadership archetypes within Newbery Award-winning books. Categories and descriptors of well-documented leadership perspectives were used to analyze the texts (deductive); however, new insights into leadership were used to form new categories as they arose (inductive), and to develop theory concerning gender, role models, and adolescent leadership (inductive).

For this study, the researcher coded each selected novel with codes that correspond to the leadership behavior, actions, reactions, thoughts, words, etc. within each leadership perspective (see Appendix B for a complete list of codes). As text was labeled, patterns emerged; some codes were related, some similar, divergent, etc. Some of these patterns conformed to the schema that the researcher developed in her own discipline (deductive); others emerged from the text itself (inductive). As new codes emerged, texts previously read were re-read to discover if new insights affected previous coding; the literature concerning leadership was consulted to be certain the new codes were congruent with the descriptions in the literature. Also, comparison among resultant
categorizing helped hone the theories about role models, gender, and adolescent leadership that were being formulated. It seems that the researcher's job, as she is asking questions, annotating, assigning and creating codes, and categorizing data, is to create new perspectives on texts.

Beck and Murphy (1993) highlight the fluid nature of the interpretation process. The researchers searched, reviewed, and analyzed metaphors from the 1920s to the 1990s from literature that concerned the principal's role in the school. They then divided the metaphors they found by decade, and then, following discussion and reanalysis, decided on four categories to frame their results. Their quest was to understand, "to tap into language that conveyed the essence of the principalship..." (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 3), not merely to describe. They wanted to comprehend, not just know, and they desired that the analysis show historical trends as well. Such understanding is not only deep, it is also wide (Riffe & Frietag, 1997). The current study shares the same goal—to comprehend: Codes that emerge from the data and theories that emerge from patterns of codes will help the researcher and the reader comprehend role models, gender, and adolescent leadership as discovered in this sample.

Research Design: Choosing the Sample

Though almost all Newberys appeal to a broad range of readers, a system had to be developed to sift out those especially appropriate for young adolescents. Trade books are commonly used as reading material in schools (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002); therefore, many resources distinguish books according to grade level. Because sixth grade is a swing grade in many schools—some call it part of elementary, others part of middle
school—the researcher narrowed the focus of this study to students in grades seven and eight, representing adolescents generally from age 12 to age 15. The three-step process used to discover which titles to include in the study is detailed below:

Step 1 of 3: Determining Books Appropriate for Seventh to Eighth Graders

The first step in the sampling process was to identify which of the eighty-two books are appropriate for students in grades seven and eight, representing adolescents from 12–15 years old. Though it may seem a simple matter to identify appropriate level, it is not. Examples of the complications follow: First, the range of levels identified by Peterson and Solt (1982) for some books spanned mid-elementary and mid-high school years (e.g. fourth to tenth grade). Second, the New York Times parent's guide to the best books for children (Lipson, 1988) cautioned that while reading level may be appropriate for young adolescents, content may be too sophisticated. Third, while a variety of sources such as Best books for children (Gillespie, 1998) and Peterson and Solt (1982) usually included overlapping parameters for a single title (e.g. Matchlock Gun: fifth to seventh and third to sixth, respectively), sometimes a discrepancy existed (e.g. Rabbit Hill fourth to seventh and first to fourth, respectively).

For these reasons, a consistent way to ascertain appropriate level had to be determined. Almost all Newbery titles are referenced in Best books for children (Gillespie, 1998). It notes that some books for children may also be appropriate for students in junior high. The label used by the publication to identify these is IJ, for Intermediate–Junior High. The researcher chose this reference work as the source for determining whether a particular book was appropriate for students in grades seven and
eight. Step 1 in the sampling process was to list all the Newbery titles that *Best books for children* (Gillespie, 1998) identified as IJ.

Not all titles were included in this resource. Approximately a dozen books were not listed; these were ranked as appropriate for students in grades seven and eight if *Children's books in print 2003* (2003) indicated appropriateness as defined below: Not more than two levels below or above the seven/eight level. Therefore, a book listed as appropriate for fourth to eighth grade or sixth to eleventh grade would be eliminated. One listed at seventh to tenth or fifth to eighth, for example, would be retained. In other words, those listed below fifth or above tenth were eliminated. Doing so helped eliminate those books that generally are more appropriate for elementary and/or high school students.

This range—fifth to tenth grade—was chosen because *Children's books in print 2003* (2003) identified the greatest number of IJ books as appropriate for fifth to eighth grade (fourteen out of thirty-two IJ titles). The next most common range was sixth to eighth (thirteen titles). Much less common were the ranges from fourth to eighth and fifth to seventh (three titles each). The upper ranges (above eighth) probably are not noted because the focus in the publication is on books for children. It is good to note, also, that both *Children's books in print 2003* (2003) and *Best books for children* (Gillespie, 1998) are published by Bowker. Common editorial policies could ensure consistency of rating, thus making the two resources complementary. Interestingly, Frederic Melcher, the man who instituted the Newbery Award, was himself chair of the board of R. R. Bowker (Gillespie & Naden, 2001), the same company whose references
were used to identify the sample for this study. This is a fortunate coincidence that, perhaps, lends credibility to the sample set.

Step 2 of 3: Determining Which Books Identified in Step 1 are Realistic Fiction

Step 2 in the sampling process was to identify those titles from the narrowed list that were realistic fiction. Realistic fiction was chosen as the genre to focus on to accomplish the goal of choosing books with characters, settings, plot lines, and conflicts that were realistic and approachable for the age group under consideration (Beale, 1996; Hamilton, 2002), thus maximizing adolescent readers' identification with the protagonists' life experiences (Schwartz, 1979; Kinman & Henderson, 1985). A subcategory of fiction, historical fiction, was included. Biography, poetry (except for the verse used in *Out of the Dust*), anthologies, fantasy, myths, and information books were eliminated. This task of identifying the realistic fiction selections was easily accomplished by consulting publishers' information and Peterson and Solt (1982).

Step 3 of 3: Identify Which Books from Steps 1 and 2 have a Human, 12–15-Year-Old Protagonist

The resultant list was subjected to yet another screen, Step 3 of the sampling process: identifying which had a human, 12–15 year old protagonist. Because the study concerns implicit themes, it was important to have characters with whom the adolescent reader could easily relate (Beale, 1996; Hamilton, 2002), to ensure readers' identification with the protagonists (Kinman & Henderson, 1985). Again, this task was relatively straightforward. Resources such as publishers' summaries and the references listed above were consulted. At times, however, the age of the main character was not
revealed; instead of guessing the protagonist's age, the researcher eliminated these titles. Also, some characters aged during the course of the story. As long as one of the age parameters (12, 13, 14, 15) was represented, the title was retained.

The anticipated fourth and final step in the sampling process was to identify which of the remaining books had a plot line that was leadership oriented. Again, though this seems a rather straightforward task, it proved to be more complex than anticipated. Though books that include a quest may seem leadership-oriented, they may be more a search for personal meaning, coming of age, or self-discovery. It seemed more instructive to retain such books in the study to see what patterns and perspectives they may reveal. However, books that included a solo journey were eliminated, given that leadership is a communal activity.

All books remaining after step three above form the sample for this study. The list comprising the sample for this study, a list resulting from the three steps listed above, includes the books listed below. Reasons for books' retention in or elimination from the study are listed in Appendix A.

**Sample**

1929  *Trumpeter of Krakow* by Eric Kelly
1933  *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* by Elizabeth Lewis
1944  *Johnny Tremain* by Esther Forbes
1960  *Onion John* by Joseph Krumgold
1964  *It's Like This Cat* by Emily Neville
1967  *Up a Road Slowly* by Irene Hunt
1974  *The Slave Dancer* by Paula Fox
1975  *M.C. Higgins, the Great* by Virginia Hamilton
1980  *A Gathering of Days* by Joan Blos
1981  *Jacob Have I Loved* by Katherine Paterson
1983  *Dicey’s Song* by Cynthia Voigt
1993  *Missing May* by Cynthia Rylant
1996  *The Midwife’s Apprentice* by Karen Cushman
1998  *Out of the Dust* by Karen Hesse
2001  *A Year Down Yonder* by Richard Peck
2002  *A Single Shard* by Linda Sue Park
2003  *Crispin: The Cross of Lead* by Avi

Research Design: Gathering of Information to be Analyzed

The researcher read the books in alphabetical order by author’s last name, not in chronologic order, to discover implicit leadership perspectives. In doing so, the impact of any new meaning gained from each reading (Vacca & Vacca, 1989) was distributed along the points on the historical continuum which encompasses the books. The sections of texts which were analyzed for leadership perspectives are contiguous paragraphs. These units of analysis may have contained single words, sentences, or multiple sentences that were representative of the leadership thoughts or actions of the protagonist. If the thoughts or actions appeared in a paragraph, did not appear in the next, and reappeared in the following paragraph, each appearance counted as separate occurrences. Multiple-
paragraph appearances counted as one occurrence. This procedure is similar to that used
by McCabe (1996) in his examination of representations of African-Americans in fifth-
grade social studies texts.

Annotations related to the leadership behavior, reactions, or dialogue of the
protagonists in the text were made in the margins of the texts as the researcher read (in
alphabetical order by author's last name) each of the seventeen Newbery texts noted
above. As she read, she simultaneously collected and analyzed content. During this very
active reading process, detailed notations about each book were made (in the margins of
the text), using contiguous paragraphs as the unit of analysis. Examples of annotations
include: “refusing to respond to threats,” “seeing the strengths in others,” “wanting to be
liked,” “doing the right thing though others jeer.” These annotations merely describe
what is happening in each chapter of the text. They, like title lines or captions underneath
a snapshot, are summaries of thoughts and activities.

Then, the researcher consulted the code book which includes eight common
perspectives on leadership as categories and thirty-six sub-categories (at the beginning of
the study; thirty-eight at the end) as descriptors of these eight perspectives. The code
book was constructed using phrases and descriptions about leadership perspectives found
in the literature. The codes are described later in this chapter. Leadership-oriented
annotations made in the margins of the texts were assigned a corresponding code; the
codes became the lens by which the leadership themes in the texts were identified and
interpreted.

Some leadership sub-categories failed to fully describe the annotations. Two
possibilities occurred if this was the case: (1) The annotation was considered non-
leadership oriented and was not codified; (2) New sub-categories were developed by referring to the literature for additional descriptors as data fell into patterns previously undescribed by codes. By creating new sub-categories, the researcher allows the texts also to speak for themselves, revealing the leadership themes the author embedded in the text, a process similar in ways to that described by Charmaz (1995). Because two new codes were added to the code book, previously read passages were reread to discover if new insights into previously read titles could be gained.

Research Design: Assigning Codes

Thirty-six sub-category codes, based on descriptors for each perspective noted in the literature, were identified prior to the start of the study. Two codes were added during the study, as the annotations being made in the texts began to reveal patterns that had been not been codified previously. The added codes are 1.6: “The protagonist has creative/artistic abilities that indicate leadership” and 6.5: “The protagonist expresses that luck or chance determines situation.” Both are supported by descriptors in the literature.

The codes themselves are derived from the discoveries made while reviewing the literature about leadership; references to support the choice of codes are found in Chapter 2. Many descriptors for each perspective could have been used; however, the researcher chose only descriptors likely to be found in adolescent literature, and only enough codes to give a broad overview of what the perspective looks like in practice. Comprehensive literature such as that authored by Bush (1995) and Carlson (1996) are used as references.
in the literature review most often. Codes that indicate “other” are not referenced in the literature review.

**Code Book**

1. The personality perspective:
   
   1.1 The protagonist has physical traits that indicate leadership.
   
   1.2 The protagonist has cognitive abilities that indicate leadership.
   
   1.3 The protagonist has affective abilities that indicate leadership.
   
   1.4 The protagonist has supernatural traits that indicate leadership.
   
   1.5 The protagonist has other traits consistent with the personality perspective.
   
   1.6 The protagonist has creative/artistic abilities that indicate leadership.

2. The formal perspective

   2.1 The protagonist creates structures that promote leadership.
   
   2.2 The protagonist demonstrates and/or values efficiency.
   
   2.3 The protagonist demonstrates management skills.
   
   2.4 The protagonist values productivity.
   
   2.5 The protagonist values action.
   
   2.6 The protagonist emphasizes other structures consistent with the formal perspective.

3. The democratic perspective
3.1 The protagonist demonstrates expertise.
3.2 The protagonist attempts to build consensus.
3.3 The protagonist shares responsibility with others.
3.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the democratic perspective.

4. The political perspective
   4.1 The protagonist manipulates others to retain power.
   4.2 The protagonist negotiates to maintain control.
   4.3 The protagonist uses compromise to retain power.
   4.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the political perspective.

5. The subjective perspective
   5.1 The protagonist expresses interpretations of situations.
   5.2 The protagonist acknowledges changing realities.
   5.3 The protagonist demonstrates personal qualities resulting in power.
   5.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the subjective perspective.

6. The ambiguity perspective
   6.1 The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation.
   6.2 The protagonist experiences unpredictability and ambiguity.
6.3 The protagonist experiences chaos and disorder.

6.4 The protagonist demonstrates other reactions consistent with the ambiguity perspective.

6.5 The protagonist expresses that luck or chance determines situation.

7. The moral perspective

7.1 The protagonist values followers' personal growth.

7.2 The protagonist relies on a guiding principle to make decisions.

7.3 The protagonist puts own interests behind those of the follower.

7.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the moral perspective.

8. The cultural/symbolic perspective

8.1 The protagonist refers to group codes or symbols.

8.2 The protagonist creates group codes or symbols.

8.3 The protagonist acknowledges importance of rituals.

8.4 The protagonist participates in ceremonies.

8.5 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the cultural/symbolic perspective.

Research Design: Data Collecting and Recording

Through the process of annotating and coding, the researcher moves along the continuum of labeling to interpreting (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). Codes and
their frequency of occurrence were entered into a spread sheet for ease of analysis. The spread sheet included the seventeen titles on one axis and the perspectives and sub-categories on the other axis. The intersection of the axes contained a number corresponding to the frequency of occurrence of a particular sub-category for a given title. Numbers of occurrences for sub-categories within a perspective were summed to arrive at a total number of occurrences of characteristic leadership behavior and dialogue for each perspective. For instance, if the number of occurrences for the four sub-categories of Perspective 5 in a single book were 8, 12, 1, and 6, respectively, the total number of occurrences for Perspective 5 for that book would be 27. Books featuring a female protagonist were coded in the spread sheet by using bold type.

Research Design: Data Processing and Analysis

Frequency of Raw Data

Next, patterns among the codes were discovered. At this point, each text was used on its own; comparison among texts occurred later. The researcher observed frequency of occurrence of codings for each of the perspectives and for the sub-categories within each perspective for each title. Because these codes mean something (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999; Ahuria, 2001) and represent the perspectives discovered in the books, the researcher revealed underlying meaning (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999) by quantifying occurrence of perspectives and sub-categories. At this point in the analysis, the researcher could identify dominant perspectives within each single book (by comparing frequency of occurrence of codes per perspective) as well as
how any perspective noted was being portrayed in that single book (by comparing frequency of occurrence of codes within perspectives).

**Ranking Raw Data**

The quantifying process involves comparison because, for example, some sub-categories and perspectives within a book occurred at a higher frequency than others. However, because book length varied among titles, a system had to be developed to even out the effect that more pages (and hence, likely, more paragraphs) could have on frequency of occurrence of perspectives and sub-categories. To accomplish this leveling out, the researcher devised a ranking system which compared occurrences of codes within a perspective to each other and perspectives within titles to each other; comparisons were expressed by ranking occurrences of codings according to which were most and least represented. Doing so evened out the effect that longer works had on number of occurrences and allowed general patterns within the data to be described and discussed. For example, a book with the noted number of occurrences of each perspective would be ranked as follows:

Number of occurrences of each perspective: 12, 3, 6, 4, 7, 4, 10, 11

Corresponding ranking: 8, 1, 4, 2.5, 5, 2.5, 6, 7

The first table displays the result of this process for the eight perspectives.

Each title was ranked in two areas: First, perspectives represented within each title (determined by counting number of total sub-category representations per perspective) were ranked by frequency; because there are eight perspectives, 8 was the highest rank. Second, the sub-categories within each perspective (between 4 and 6 sub-
categories per perspective) were ranked by frequency. The rankings of perspectives and sub-categories, not frequency numbers, were used for the analyses found in Chapter 4.

The final step in this content analysis was to look for comparisons and similarities among the codes, and to draw conclusions about historical trends and gender variations based on the ranking of sub-categories described above. Highlighting cells corresponding to top ranks for each category and sub-category helped the researcher identify patterns in the data. The analyses which follow are based on appearing frequently either in the top or the bottom half of the rankings of each sub-category within a particular perspective; this is defined as prevalence: If at least nine books (over half of the sample) emphasized /didn’t emphasize the given sub-category, that sub-category was considered prevalent (in a dominant/recessive way, respective to emphasis or non-emphasis).

Appearing in the top half of the rankings was defined as dominant; appearing in the bottom half was defined as being a recessive category or sub-category. Sometimes, when rank places were shared (this occurred if frequency of occurrence of two or more sub-categories within a perspective were identical) a decimal was necessary to express rank position. Rounding decimals to determine placement in the top or bottom half of the total rankings per category or subcategory was dependent on the number of sub-categories per perspective. In perspectives with an even number of rankings, decimals were rounded up; therefore, a 3.5 rank in the personality perspective counts as a 4 rank; in those with an odd number (5) of rankings (ambiguity and cultural/symbolic), 2.5 marked the high end of the recessive trend. The following list identifies how dominant and recessive were defined for each perspective:
Personality and Formal:

ranking of 6, 5, 4 = dominant
ranking of 3, 2, 1 = recessive

Democratic, Political, Subjective and Moral:

ranking of 4, 3 = dominant
ranking of 2, 1 = recessive

Ambiguity and Cultural/Symbolic:

ranking of 5, 4, 3 = dominant
ranking of 2.5, 2, 1 = recessive

Many comparisons within the data could have been made; however, the researcher focused on the following seven findings:

1. Findings based on codings of eight major perspectives—dominant trends
2. Findings based on codings of eight major perspectives—recessive trends
3. Findings based on codings of sub-categories within perspectives—trends of dominant sub-categories
4. Findings based on codings of sub-categories within perspectives—trends of recessive sub-categories
5. Findings based on codings of sub-categories—historical trends
6. Findings based on codings of sub-categories—gender trends
7. Finally, other findings were described and discussed.
Limitations

This study has at least four limitations.

First, using only seventeen selections may limit the generalizability of the study. From a list of eighty-two exemplary titles, a representative sample was identified, using criteria described earlier. A variety of themes, protagonists, historical perspectives, cultural emphases, authors, and genre were available in the sample of books known as Newbery Award winners. Though care was taken in choosing titles that would lend themselves to a study of adolescent leadership paradigms, other valid sampling choices could have been made. Analysis of these alternate documents may have yielded different results.

Second, the historical nature of the study limits its practical usefulness. Focusing on more recent titles, those likely more commonly used within current curricula, could have produced a study with more practical implications for classroom use.

Third, reviewer bias could affect the analysis. Literary interpretation is by nature an intuitive process. Reading can produce many interpretations depending on readers’ experiences, world-views, and prior knowledge of the subject matter of the material (Thomas, 1994; Curtin, 1995; Ahuria, 2000). A second reviewer’s analysis and/or adolescent interpretations would have strengthened the study.

Fourth, new insights can color future analyses. As books are read, new ideas and perspectives are added to the reader’s schema, thus making it impossible to read future text without looking through lenses altered by this new knowledge that has been gained from previous readings (Vacca & Vacca, 1989). This is the nature of the reading and learning process, and it is a weakness of any comparative literary study.
Conclusion

This study focuses on what leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books, which perspectives are dominant, whether or not the portrayal of the identified perspectives changes over time, and whether or not protagonist’s gender has an effect on leadership perspective. Tables have been used to help the researcher and reader understand the relationships among leadership perspectives and sub-categories which have been discovered; these are presented in Chapter 4. The analysis used simple frequency, percentages, and rank to discover meaningful patterns among the codes.

So far, the study’s focus, current studies and information about implicit or hidden curriculum, leadership perspectives, adolescent literature, including Newbery books, sample to be used, and the method of textual analysis employed in the study have been described. Findings will be described fully in Chapter 4. Discussion and recommendations will be made in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction

This research project was conducted to discover answers to four research questions:

1. What leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books?
2. Which perspectives are dominant?
3. Does the portrayal of the identified perspectives change over time?
4. Does protagonist’s gender have an effect on leadership perspective?

The findings and discussion which follow in this and Chapter 5 will answer and illuminate these questions. Content analysis was used to quantify and analyze the leadership perspectives that exist in the chosen texts; conclusions about leadership related to gender, role models, and adolescents were drawn based on those findings.

The themes were quantified in two ways: Occurrences of major perspectives and occurrences of sub-categories within the eight major perspectives. Frequency of occurrence of perspectives and sub-categories was converted to rank order. A variety of analyses were possible once these occurrences were identified and rank orders assigned. These results are presented in this chapter in the following order: Findings based on eight major perspectives including dominant trends and recessive trends; findings based on coding of categories within perspectives including dominant trends, recessive trends,
historical trends, and gender trends. In addition, other findings were analyzed. These include apprentices as sub-group of leaders, orphans as sub-group of leaders, the role of peers in protagonists' leadership behavior, and the role model as nurturer of adolescent leadership. In summary, the analysis of data revealed dominant leadership perspectives and sub-categories, findings regarding sub-groups of protagonists, and the role of others in protagonists' leadership behavior. In addition, a new perspective based on adolescent leadership characteristics and behaviors is emerging from the data set.

Research Findings: Presentation of Results and Description of Tables

Tables were used to help the researcher and reader understand the relationships among and within perspectives which have been discovered; though they are mentioned here, they will be presented closer to the findings which they support. The first table displays the rankings of number of occurrences of each perspective per book. The second table summarizes the sub-categories within the perspectives that were prevalent (occurring in over half the sample). The third through tenth tables display the ranked results of coding for sub-categories within each perspective; they also display a highlighting (top ranks) and bolding (female protagonist) system to indicate a variety of variables within the sample. This highlighting and bolding was used for numerous analyses such as historical trends and gender variations among the books in the sample. Finally, the eleventh table presents significant gender variations (defined by the researcher as more than twenty-five percentage points) among the males and females in the sample regarding specific sub-categories within each perspective. Using these data tables, the researcher identified patterns in the data and drew conclusions.
Seven types of findings are presented in the following order:

1. Findings based on codings of eight major perspectives—dominant trends
2. Findings based on codings of eight major perspectives—recessive trends

Then, trends within sub-categories will be discussed in the following order:

3. Findings based on codings of sub-categories within perspectives—trends of dominant sub-categories
4. Findings based on codings of sub-categories within perspectives—trends of recessive sub-categories
5. Findings based on codings of sub-categories—historical trends
6. Findings based on codings of sub-categories—gender trends
7. Finally, other findings will be described and discussed.

Each of the sections noted above include an introduction, presentation of findings, and a brief discussion using examples and quotations to illuminate the patterns discovered. Complete discussion of findings is presented in Chapter 5.

Findings Based on Codings of Eight Major Perspectives: Introduction

Because each book was coded (see Appendix B for full list of codes used) for specific instances of leadership behavior, these codes could be used to discover patterns in the data. A complete discussion of the process is found in Chapter 3; a brief summary of the process used to rank occurrences of sub-categories is presented here:

Because book length varied and therefore, possibly, affected number of occurrences of sub-categories, a strict tally of occurrences per perspective would be a misuse of data. However, each book did tend to have more or less instances of certain
types of leadership behavior; these occurrences can be ranked as more or less emphasized, using a scale of 8 (most) to 1 (least).

Findings Based on Codings of Eight Major Perspectives: Summary of Dominant and Recessive Trends

The results of the ranking process, displayed in Table 1, show that the moral perspective was emphasized (i.e. in the top 4 rankings of the 8 perspectives) most often (16 out of 17 books), the personality and ambiguity perspectives were next-best represented (14 out of 17), and the subjective perspective was last in the top half (9 out of 17). In order from this point were democratic (6), political (4), and, last, formal and cultural/symbolic (3).

Second, the formal, democratic, political, and cultural/symbolic perspectives never were ranked first for any book. Personality, subjective, ambiguity, and moral perspectives were in first but never in last place. No perspective was represented somewhere in the sample in both first and last places, thus indicating that the coding process adequately identified trends of leadership perspectives within the books.

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<th>Persp 4</th>
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<th>Persp 6</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Key: Bold type = female protagonist
Highlights = top rankings (4.5–8) per perspective
Persp 1 = Personality perspective
Persp 2 = Formal perspective
Persp 3 = Democratic perspective
Persp 4 = Political perspective
Persp 5 = Subjective perspective
Persp 6 = Ambiguity perspective
Persp 7 = Moral perspective
Persp 8 = Cultural/symbolic perspective.
Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Finally, using the information in Table 1, the following ratios in terms of being ranked in the top four places and being ranked in first place can be determined:

Personality: 14 books in the top rankings / 7 in the first rank
Formal: 3 books in the top rankings / 0 in the first rank
Democratic: 6 books in the top rankings / 0 in the first rank
Political: 4 books in the top rankings / 0 in the first rank
Subjective: 9 books in the top rankings / 1 in the first rank
Ambiguity: 14 books in the top rankings / 8 in the first rank
Moral: 16 books in the top rankings / 1 in the first rank
Cultural/symbolic: 3 books in the top rankings / 0 in the first rank

Noteworthy is the moral perspective’s low “first finish”-to-“top rankings” ratio. Perhaps this is because a tale that is moralistic is unlikely to win a Newbery Award. However, infusing moral meaning and actions into complex situations helps redeem a story’s purpose, giving it a broader message that goes beyond engaging characters and exciting plot.

Findings Based on Codings of Sub-categories Within Perspectives: Introduction

One of the strengths of this study is that individual descriptors within perspectives were codified, so trends within sub-categories could be identified and interpreted. For instance, within the political perspective there is evidence that negotiating, compromising, and manipulating occur. By assigning different codes to different behaviors, a more detailed picture of leadership may emerge. These findings are
presented in Tables 3-10. Book numbers and corresponding titles are included in Appendix C.

To focus the scope of the findings, the first task was to identify which sub-categories within each leadership perspective were more prevalent than others. If at least nine books (over half of the sample) emphasized (dominant) or didn’t emphasize (recessive) the given sub-category, those sub-categories were considered prevalent. Table 2 delineates this discovery for prevalent dominant sub-categories. See Tables 3–10 for rankings per sub-category; these tables were used to generate the information in Table 2. Finally, many comparisons within dominant and recessive categories could be made; selected comparisons are presented below.

Findings Based on Codings of Sub-categories Within Perspectives: Trends (Dominant Sub-categories)

Most interesting within this group of results entitled “Findings based on codings of sub-categories within perspectives: Trends (dominant sub-categories)” are those books

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<th>Perspectives</th>
<th>Sub-category Number</th>
<th>Prevalent (9+) Number of Times Sub-category Appears in Top Ranks</th>
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<td>Perspective 7: Moral</td>
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<td>Perspective 8: Cultural/symbolic</td>
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### Table 3

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Personality Perspective (Perspective 1)

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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**
- Bold type = female protagonist
- Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

1.1 = The protagonist has physical traits that indicate leadership.

1.2 = The protagonist has cognitive abilities that indicate leadership.

1.3 = The protagonist has affective abilities that indicate leadership.

1.4 = The protagonist has supernatural traits that indicate leadership.

1.5 = The protagonist has other traits consistent with the personality perspective.

1.6 = The protagonist has creative/artistic abilities that indicate leadership.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 4

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Formal Perspective (Perspective 2)

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Key:  Bold type = female protagonist

Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

2.1 = The protagonist creates structures that promote leadership.

2.2 = The protagonist demonstrates and/or values efficiency.

2.3 = The protagonist demonstrates management skills.

2.4 = The protagonist values productivity.

2.5 = The protagonist values action.

2.6 = The protagonist emphasizes other structures consistent with the formal perspective.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 5

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Democratic Perspective (Perspective 3)

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Key: Bold type = female protagonist

Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

3.1 = The protagonist demonstrates expertise.

3.2 = The protagonist attempts to build consensus.

3.3 = The protagonist shares responsibility with others.

3.4 = The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the democratic perspective.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
### Table 6

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Political Perspective (Perspective 4)

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**Key:**

- **Bold type** = female protagonist
- **Highlights** = top rankings per sub-category
- 3.1 = The protagonist demonstrates expertise.
- 3.2 = The protagonist attempts to build consensus.
- 3.3 = The protagonist shares responsibility with others.
- 3.4 = The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the democratic perspective.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 7

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Subjective Perspective (Perspective 5)

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Key: Bold type = female protagonist

Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

5.1 = The protagonist expresses interpretations of situations.

5.2 = The protagonist acknowledges changing realities.

5.3 = The protagonist demonstrates personal qualities resulting in power.

5.4 = The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the subjective perspective.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 8

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Ambiguity Perspective (Perspective 6)

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Key: Bold type = female protagonist
Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

6.1 = The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation.
6.2 = The protagonist experiences unpredictability and ambiguity.
6.3 = The protagonist experiences chaos and disorder.
6.4 = The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the subjective perspective.
6.5 = The protagonist expresses that luck or chance determined situation.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 9

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Moral Perspective (Perspective 7)

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Key: Bold type = female protagonist

Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

7.1 = The protagonist values followers’ personal growth.

7.2 = The protagonist relies on a guiding principle to make decisions.

7.3 = The protagonist puts own interests behind those of the follower.

6.4 = The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the moral perspective.

6.5 = The protagonist expresses that luck or chance determined situation.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
Table 10

Ranking of Sub-categories of the Cultural/symbolic Perspective (Perspective 8)

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Key: Bold type = female protagonist

Highlights = top rankings per sub-category

8.1=The protagonist refers to group codes or symbols.

8.2=The protagonist creates group codes or symbols.

8.3=The protagonist acknowledges importance of rituals.

8.4=The protagonist participates in ceremonies.

8.6=The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the cultural/symbolic perspective.

Book titles corresponding to book numbers: see Appendix C.
that clearly dominate the perspective within which they reside (16 times), because that means that all but one protagonist strongly displayed the given sub-category. Perhaps, then, these sub-categories help define adolescent leadership in this sample. These six sub-categories (1.3, 3.3, 5.1, 6.1, 6.2, and 7.3) will be discussed individually below. First in each discussion will be a brief description of the one protagonist who did not achieve top rank for the particular sub-category. Then, representative examples from the sixteen protagonists who did rank in the top will be described. Most examples and quotations used to illuminate each sub-category will be taken from the two books in the sample that had the greatest number of codings related to each relevant sub-category.

1. 1.3: The protagonist has affective abilities that indicate leadership
2. 3.3: The protagonist shares responsibility with others.
3. 5.1: The protagonist expresses interpretations of situations.
4. 6.1: The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation.
5. 6.2: The protagonist experiences unpredictability and ambiguity.
6. 7.3: The protagonist puts own interests behind those of the follower.

1.3: The Protagonist has Affective Abilities that Indicate Leadership

Among all the sub-categories of a leader within the personality perspective, the skill of relating to and understanding others rises to the top in this sample of adolescent leaders. The only protagonist who did not emphasize this skill in leadership situations was Johnny Tremain. His bold, selfish ways make this observation easy to understand. Johnny is even criticized by others for being self-centered. His arrogance (p. 12) and bad temper (p. 39) are signs of hubris (p. 29). Early in the story he is known as a "prodigal
son” (p. 69). Interestingly, most of the negative views of Johnny occur early in the story. The code 1.3 does occur later in the tale, such as when he shows he hates watching street brawls (p. 115), he cares for Rab (p. 244), and he has been numbed by war (p. 253).

Some in the sample show emotion for others more consistently; they are described below: Dicey Tillerman of Dicey’s Song is a model of empathy in action. Wise and caring, she demonstrates adult-like ability to understand the needs and viewpoints of her young siblings. She compliments James (p. 81), converses with Sammy (p. 54), and cooperates with others to overcome Maybeth’s reading problems (p. 162). When others act inappropriately, she steps in to right the emotional balance: “Sammy’s unfriendliness was making Jeff uncomfortable, and Dicey—reaching out again—wanted to make him feel better” (p. 237). Furthermore, Dicey thinks of Grandma’s needs: In the midst of her own grief over losing her mother, Dicey meets Grandma’s needs by making her a special meal (p. 357).

In a similar way, M.C. of M.C. Higgins the Great cares for his family. He hurts when others do: “It hurt me to see her spindly legs always so full of scratches” (p. 54). Even though his dad is distant and preoccupied, M.C. reaches out to him (p. 74), and he worries about his mother walking home alone. But M.C. doesn’t only empathize. He is affectively connected enough to enjoy the praise his mother implies when she chooses him to swim with her (p. 126). He is moved by his “family song” (p. 253), and, in his ultimate show of affective connectedness, he accepts the gravestones his inscrutable father gives him to help build a wall to keep the dangerous mountainside from collapsing on his family (p. 277).
3.3: The Protagonist Shares Responsibility with Others

Catherine in *A Gathering of Days*, the only protagonist who did not display dominance in sharing responsibility with others, begins her adventures by consulting with her friends about what to do with a note she has found asking for her help. However, her actions following the discovery of the note cause her so much inner turmoil that it is easy to see why she hesitates to again rely on her friends. In addition, she lives by a code that includes individual responsibility, so the ethos of the book would be violated had the author decided to develop a team approach to decision making.

Again, Dicey of *Dicey’s Song* is the top displayer of this sub-category. Through Grandma’s help (“You’re not the only one responsible, girl. You’ve been responsible a long time and done a good job” [p. 37]), Dicey learns to share responsibility. She trusts Maybeth’s teacher (p. 12), helps her illiterate employer fill out order forms (p. 77), and is consulted by Grandma about how she thinks the other kids are adjusting to their new life (pp. 114-117). Grandma relies on her when Dicey’s mother dies (p. 330), and Dicey lets go of some of her pride and accepts the generosity of another during this difficult time (p. 331). A sign of her growing dependence on others is her enjoyment of singing parts to a song: the harmony achieved is indicative of a wholeness in her life (p. 266).

At the beginning of the story, Andy in *Onion John* declares himself a team player. He shares responsibility for winning the team championship when he declares, “Me lose? How can I? There’s eight others on the team” (p. 7). Andy continues on through his tale consulting and helping. He participates in the demolition of the old and construction of a new house for his friend. He puts the democratic approach to this project in a nutshell analogy when he observes that sharing a crowbar provides both power and accuracy (p. 127).
He acknowledges that everyone has a job to do, and as “Junior Carpentry Helper” he is as useful as anyone else on the job (p. 128). His ultimate demonstration of shared responsibility comes when his dad tries to determine his future as an astronaut for him. Knowing this plan will take him away from his job at his dad’s hardware store, Andy encourages his dad to let him share in the responsibility for his own life choices (p. 242).

5.1: The Protagonist Expresses Interpretations of Situations

Catherine from A Gathering of Days is the sole protagonist who is not characterized by a need or desire to interpret the situations in which she is the leader. Again, the story is set in a time when roles are well-defined and accepted, so this lack of interpretive activity may be more a sign of a cohesive world-view than a sign of the lack of ability to make judgments.

Onion John’s Andy, however, is bound by the need to interpret situations. In fact, that is the driving force behind the tale. Only Andy is able to interpret Onion John’s signs and garbled talk, and it is Andy’s job to interpret his wants and needs to the community that is so eager to help him. Andy tries to explain this process to a friend: “I described to Eech how you had to watch Onion John and keep hearing what he said all together without trying” (p. 26). When Onion John begins one of his strange ceremonies to rid Andy’s basement of spirits, it is Andy who interprets what John is doing to the others gathered there. And it is Andy who decides that enough is enough: “In my judgment, it was time we got over to the Rotary [and joined their dads at the meeting]” (p. 76). Not only does Andy interpret Onion John to others, but he helps Onion John understand what the community is up to when they decide he needs a better house to live
He explains and describes, and he helps others see the value of involving Onion John in the process (p. 124).

Jessie, from *The Slave Dancer*, lives in a world that is unlike Catherine's (*A Gathering of Days*) in almost every way. Not much is predictable in this microcosm. Jessie has to learn to interpret to survive. He calls the world "wicked" (p. 60), an adjective that well describes the foul, unfriendly ship on which he lives. He learns that each of the sailors has a logic of his own (p. 83), most of which seems illogical to Jessie.

After listening to Purvis contend that his own Irish-immigrant ancestors were as unfortunate as the slaves in the hold, Jessie realizes "that any interest, much less concern, I showed about the blacks meant to Purvis that I was demeaning his mother and father" (p. 66). Yet, Jessie continues to show concern, and he tries to imagine what they must be thinking as he "dances" them (p. 73). He comes to understand that they are all victims: "I danced the slaves, aware that the shrill broken notes which issued from my pipe were no more music than were the movements of the slaves dancing" (p. 100). His interpretation seems correct, and the kindness of the slaves seems silent sympathy to Jessie's own plight. For when disaster strikes, Ras, a slave boy, trusts Jessie to do what is best for both of them. In the end, Jessie realizes that the fatherly touch their black rescuer gives to Ras will be withheld from him, because of his ethnicity (p. 145): "'Daniel had saved my life,' Jessie thinks, 'I couldn't expect more than that.'"

6.1: The Protagonist Expresses Uncertainty About the Leadership Situation

Perhaps one of the reasons that *The Trumpeter of Krakow* seems quaint and full of stock characters is because the outcome of most events is fairly predictable. Therefore, it
should come as little surprise that the protagonist Josef most often knows what to do and how to do it. Unfortunately for the rest of the protagonists in the sample, life is not as predictable. Four protagonists fell into the top two slots as far as number of instances of this sub-category. Those four are Crispin, Johnny Tremain, M.C. Higgins, and Dicey.

Crispin lives in medieval times, in a world in which power is tied to land holdings. He is a poor orphan, so he is powerless. What's more, for reasons unknown to him, he is a wanted boy. When the priest who befriends him offers some information about the meaning of current events, Crispin is unsure about what he means (pp. 32, 37). The chance for further clarification never comes, because the priest is murdered. About the only thing that is clear to Crispin now is that his life will be short if he stays in the village, so he flees. He pledges allegiance to a wandering musician named Bear, and he is as uncertain about Bear's activities (pp. 150, 181) as he is about the hints that Bear keeps dropping about Crispin's true identity. Soon, though, it is clear that danger has not passed, and Crispin wonders, "Again and again the main questions returned: What would they do to Bear? What should I do? The truth was, I felt paralyzed" (p. 208). He repeats the phrase "What should I do?" numerous times (e.g., pp. 213, 221) as he tries to make sense of the uncertain situation in which he will play a major leadership role.

Similarly, Johnny Tremain lives in the uncertain world of the American Revolutionary War. His injured hand has changed his life, and yet he dreams of better things. His uncertainty is expressed through this dream, a dream that his stubbornness can't accept (p. 69). He wants medical attention to help heal his hand, but he is rude when the doctor offers treatment (p. 117). He doubts his ability to participate in the Boston Tea Party (p. 119), and he steeps himself in self-pity by repeatedly asking
“Why?” about his past hardships (p. 120). “But what could Johnny do? Not much, it seemed to him, except be bored to death for his country” (p. 146). Troops make him wonder (p. 133), girls confuse him (p. 139), war is uncertain (p. 170). He “shift[s] about (p. 191), doubts his courage (pp. 200–201), and is unsure about honoring the British flag (p. 224).

Perhaps if the reader lived in the shadow of a soon-to-collapse slag heap, he also would express uncertainty about what to do. M.C. Higgins is certainly sure about one thing: that heap is a threat to his family. He sees the “dude” who comes to audition his mother as the savior who will take them away from the mountain, but he is unsure how to treat him (p. 35). He wants his siblings to cherish the pole he sits atop, but he is unsure why (p. 54). He wonders about the future (p. 110), and he is not sure what his mother means when she tells him that the power the Killburn’s have can be good or bad (pp. 132–133). When he leads a new friend on a risky swim through a water-filled tunnel, he’s not sure how or whether he even can do it. But his friend insists, so he tells her, “You have to do just as I say...cause I know how to get through.’ They were in a world all their own, where she was older but he was the leader” (p. 157). His encounters with the “witchy” Killburn family leave him “part believ[ing] and part disbeliev[ing]” (p. 195). He expresses his dichotomous thoughts about his familial leadership roles this way: “It was as if his head contained two minds. The one knew they would never leave the mountain. The other knew they had to leave” (p. 179).

Finally, Dicey, for all her confidence and single-mindedness, also expresses uncertainty about her role in the family (pp. 66, 122), about what to do about Momma (p. 31), about what Grandma’s talks with her mean (p. 126). She’s not sure that two hands
are enough to hold on with (p. 181). When her mother dies, she says to Grandma, “You tell me to let go. But you told me to reach out, you told me to hold on. How can I do all those things together?” (p. 345). When she and Gram escort Momma’s ashes safely home, Dicey is uncertain about how she feels about this leadership role: “They were all here, and Momma too. Her hand tightened around the [ash] box. She didn’t know if she was sad or glad. She couldn’t sort out the sadness from the gladness” (p. 349).

6.2: The Protagonist Experiences Unpredictability and Ambiguity

About the best explanation for why Julie from *Up a Road Slowly* varies from the pattern set by all the other protagonists in the sample is that she doesn’t do a lot of thinking even to begin to wonder why the few leadership situations she finds herself in are potentially shaky affairs. Plus, unlike Dicey and Jessie, her home life, though initially traumatic, is mostly settled and tranquil.

It should be no surprise that both Dicey and Jessie find themselves top in the category that indicates feelings of ambiguity about the leadership positions they find themselves in. Dicey has taken over a parental role, and now she has to figure out her place in the family structure headed by Gram. Early in the story, family conflict makes her want to apologize to Gram, but then she rationalizes away that thought by thinking that no one forced her grandma to take them in (p. 97). She struggles to keep the concerns of all family members in mind as she makes decisions, but she discovers that “that was fine, except for when the wants and needs were at cross purposes” (p. 160). She’s unclear about how she went about writing a paper about her mother (p. 203), an effort that gets her ambiguous praise by being dubbed “plagiarism” (p. 207). And then,
when an understanding classmate hails her a “folk hero” for her attitudes and ideas, she’s ambiguous about whether she likes the title or not (p. 223). When Gram is upset about Dicey’s mother’s health, she wants to help but doesn’t know how (p. 290). She thinks Gram knows how to do everything, and is confused when she discovers that she doesn’t (p. 337). She shakes some of this ambiguity lose in the final pages of the book as she contemplates what it means to bring her mother’s ashes home: “Gone and home. Home and gone. It didn’t seem possible that both of those words could be true, but they were” (p. 354). She realizes that ambiguity is a permanent condition of life (p. 359): “The confusion was like a windy storm. And then she smiled to herself, because she had a suspicion that the confusion wasn’t a storm that would blow itself out, it was going to be a permanent condition.”

Lucky for Jessie Bollier of The Slave Dancer, his ambiguous experience on board the slave ship “Moonlight” is short lived. His kidnapping is, itself, an ambiguous experience, and when he finally discovers what leadership role he’s been kidnapped for, his ability to predict what will happen to him is not enhanced. When he expresses normal human emotion at the sight of a dead child, he is treated in a way he never was treated before: “I stared..., still wondering why he’d [Ned, a crew member] given me such a blow when I’d cried at the sight of the dead child. I hoped he’d been trying to protect me” (p. 70). His disdain for the crew causes him turmoil: “Although I had grown to dislike the slowness of his [Stout, a crew member] walk and gesture, I found his energy even more repulsive” (p. 71). He expresses his ambiguity in many couplets: “Why I was chagrined in one instance and hilarious in another, I don’t know” (p. 75), “I was both curious and fearful” (p. 114), “I played on...[though not wanting to]” (p. 76). He
wonders if he will ever get home (p. 106). His rescue even is ambiguous. Jessie, having led Ras to land, is mistaken as Ras’ captor by the man who saves them: “‘No!,’ Jessie croaked, ‘I’m not his master’” (p. 135).

7.3: The Protagonist Puts Own Interests Behind Those of the Follower

Dicey, the outlier in this sub-category from the moral perspective, seems to have been misplaced here. She is constantly concerned for her siblings and grandma, so how could it be that her own interests do not appear to take a back seat to those of others? Perhaps her grandma summed it best by saying, “You’re not the only one responsible, girl. You’ve been responsible a long time and done a good job. Take a rest now” (p. 37). Dicey’s own need is to care for others; her leadership role is in her best interest as well as the best interest of those who follow her.

Billie Jo, from Out of the Dust, is a model of selflessness. From returning change to the cheating grocer (p. 19), to feeding Ma even though it hurts her burned hands (p. 67), to sharing food from their meager supplies with the homeless (p. 121), to guiding a lost driver and his car through the driving dust (p. 143), Billie Jo puts the Golden Rule into action. In the end, it is this spirit that saves her. She has run away, out of the dust literally and figuratively, and she encounters a man who is also running away from his family. He helps himself to her small stash of food, and he leaves a picture of his family behind as a gesture of thanks. That picture convinces her to return to her place in the world, and in doing so she forgives her dad—and herself—for the past (p. 206):

As we walk together, 
side by side, 
in the swell of dust, 
I am forgiving him, step by step,
for the pail of kerosene.
As we walk together,
side by side,
in the sole-deep dust,
I am forgiving myself
for all the rest.

Crispin’s world is easily decipherable: It is divided into jobs, and Crispin’s job is
to serve a master (p. 101). This world order is so ingrained in his psyche that he can not
understand why Bear would give him money that he helped earn (p. 133). As it becomes
more clear to him that the danger he fears is not going to go away, he realizes that Bear,
too, is being drawn into the danger: “You’ve been protecting me...Maybe I should be
protecting you” (p. 195). This dialogue foreshadows the leadership event that the author
is preparing Crispin for throughout the story, for Crispin discovers that he actually is an
heir to the manor which he has been serving. When Bear is captured despite Crispin’s
self-sacrificial warning (p. 197), Crispin “resolve[s] to free him—even if it cost me [my]
new life to do so.” He rescues Bear, giving up his mother’s cross (which proves his
identity) and his title to do so (pp. 243–244). Giving up all that the world holds dear
transforms him into a free man.

Findings Based on Codings of Sub-categories Within Perspectives: Trends (Recessive
Sub-categories)

Just as some sub-categories within perspectives were well-represented in the top
ranking of the sample (dominant prevalence), so also nine sub-categories were not well-
represented (therefore, prevalent as recessive sub-categories). This discussion will focus
on the sub-category per perspective that had the least number of top (4.5–8) rankings.
These are 1.4, 2.4, 3.4, 4.3, 5.4, 6.4, 7.4, 8.2, 8.5. See Tables 3–10 for this information.
Three sub-categories never placed in the top 4 of 8 possible rankings. These were 3.4, 5.4, and 6.4. All of these reflect the “other” sub-category within their respective perspectives. By never placing in the top ranking, the reader can infer that the sub-categories that were delineated in these categories—democratic, subjective, and ambiguity—were descriptive of the range of sub-categories and behaviors possible within those perspectives. However, 7.4 and 8.5 represent the “other” sub-category for the moral and cultural/symbolic perspectives. These were represented, respectively, twice and four times in the top rank. This seems to indicate that additional descriptors may have been useful for these perspectives; however, because no patterns within these “other” sub-categories was evident, no new sub-categories were developed in these cases.

In addition to these sub-categories which indicate the “other” sub-categories within their perspective, four sub-categories were under-represented in the top four ranks: 1.4 (three times), 2.4 (six times), 4.3 (one time), and 8.2 (four times). Each of these will be discussed below.

1.4: The Protagonist has Supernatural Traits that Indicate Leadership

Because the sample focused on realistic fiction, the researcher expected to find few examples of supernatural traits. Perhaps it is noteworthy that any were discovered, not that this trait ranked low in number of times appearing in the top ranks. Which protagonists did exhibit enough supernatural qualities to place them in the top ranks? Andy in *Onion John*, M.C. in *M.C. Higgins, the Great*, and Crispin in *Crispin, the Cross of Lead*. 
The leader in this sub-category, by far, is M.C. In fact, his story, though realistic, has some qualities that indicate fantasy. He looks like a “ghost,” (pp. 10, 27), identifies his “witchy” friend Ben as his “spirit,” (p. 17), and pretends he’s God (p. 27). He has premonitions that sometimes make his palms itch (pp. 28, 95, 99, 141), visions (pp. 66, 83, 91, 139, 145, 171), and “second sight” (p. 75). The pole he climbs has secrets only he knows (p. 61), and he can hear his ancestors talking (p. 79). He’s mystical (pp. 129, 141), and he can transport thoughts to another person without talking (p. 218). It is a vision that drives him to build the wall of safety around his family home; by doing so he comes to terms with his place of leadership within his family (p. 267).

While Andy’s (Onion John) supernatural abilities are a little more common and ordinary than M.C.’s, he, too, has ability outside the norm. He is “like a magician” (p. 20) as he interprets Onion John’s strange speech, a task he performs numerous times during the course of the story (pp. 72, 84, 99–100). Furthermore, he believes a lucky flower is a source of strength during a tense ball game (p. 14). When Onion John concurs, Andy becomes a true believer in flower power (p. 24).

Finally, Crispin displays supernatural traits, though his are more of the second-hand variety. He is sure that God will protect those who believe, and he confidently calls on that supernatural power (p. 50). He receives mysterious protection from the priest (p. 41), and he vows to harness the power of the cross—or the dagger—to rescue Bear (p. 246).
2.4: The Protagonist Values Productivity

The ranking of the protagonists in books 1, 2, 7, 10, 13, and 16 were high enough to put them in the top ranking for this sub-category. The protagonists in The Trumpeter of Krakow, The Midwife's Apprentice, and The Slave Dancer all ranked high even though there were no incidents of any formal behavior among them. Therefore, all non-incidents were ranked at 3.5, rounded up as part of the top rank. Three protagonists beat the odds (because 2.3 was a prevalent recessive sub-category) and valued productivity enough to propel themselves into the top ranks in terms of this sub-category within the formal perspective: Young Fu, Louise, and Tree-ear see value in making more of whatever it is that occupies their time. For two of these protagonists, productivity is tied to survival: Both Young Fu and Tree-ear must work to live and support another. But what about Louise? Perhaps her drive to produce is related to her jealousy toward her twin's "unproductive" musical talent.

Young Fu, the first of two Asian protagonists in the sample, learns the ways of the business world early. When he ruins a piece of copper, he accepts punishment and works hard to replace the damaged goods (p. 68). He expresses his need for productivity through an analogous action (he, himself, being, figuratively, the piece of coal): "With a deft twist of the tongs the penitent apprentice rescued a piece of charcoal from the side of the oven and placed it where it would contribute its full flame to the fire" (p. 68). He acts as master to his master Tang: "It might be good for him to remind Tang...that there were important affairs awaiting them at the shop" (p. 158). Young Fu "was determined to advance in his work, and he had no intention of permitting anything to interfere with that ambition" (p. 182). His productivity does not go unnoticed: "The guild has a sliding
scale of wages, and Tang was paying him the maximum for a beginner. "There have been times...when [Young Fu] has served...better than is expected of an apprentice" (p. 201).

Tree-ear, the second of two Asian protagonists in the sample and an apprentice like Young Fu, gathers rice (p. 53) for the winter, and he enjoys keeping busy (p. 87) with tasks his employer gives him.

Louise, in *Jacob Have I Loved*, also values productivity. Crabbing is her passion during these war-time years, and she "did not take a holiday when peace was declared. There were still crabs moving in the Bay and peeling in the floats" (p. 199).

4.3: The Protagonist Uses Compromise to Retain Power

Only Johnny Tremain’s use of compromise moved this sub-category into the top of the ranking; no other protagonist’s "giving-to-gain" was extensive enough to warrant a top finish. As an apprentice, he has to compromise his hopes for his own shop, but he won’t "take much" from his employer (p. 5). Like it or not, he’ll marry his boss’ daughter because “smart apprentices were always getting ahead by marrying into their master’s families” (p. 6). He compromises his prideful behavior: "He decided to do nothing that would lay him open to such criticism for at least a morning, but he couldn’t help it" (p. 11). He compromises his belief that hiding his true name is in his best interest by revealing it in exchange for an oath of secrecy (p. 22).
8.2: The Protagonist Creates Group Codes or Symbols

Finally, only two protagonists created symbols or codes to move this behavior into the top rank for the stories they were a part of: Louise in *Jacob Have I Loved*, and Alyce in *The Midwife's Apprentice*. Dave in *It's Like This, Cat* and Mary Alice in *A Year Down Yonder* received the same ranking as the other stories, but their ranking is based on zero occurrences of 8.2 codings. What kinds of creation did Louise and Alyce perform?

Louise creates a code for Call, her friend, a logical event given their fascination with spies and espionage (p. 64). Alyce is herself a code. She renames herself "Alyce" from "Beetle," thus giving her life new significance (p. 32).

Findings Based on Codings of Sub-categories Within Perspectives: Trends (Historical)

Another set of findings taken from the sub-categories within perspectives involves those sub-categories that were in the top ranks either only early in the chronology of the sample, only mid-sample, or only late in the chronology of the sample. "Early in the chronology of the sample" was determined to represent a pattern of books including book 1 or 2 but not books beyond book 12 (end of the middle third of the seventeen books). "Mid-sample" was determined to represent a pattern of books clustered around the middle third, but not including either books 1, 2, 16, or 17. "Late in the chronology of the sample" was determined to represent a pattern of books including books 16 or 17 but not books before book 6 (beginning of the middle third of the sample). Five such sub-categories exist: 1.5 and 3.2 (early), 7.1 and 8.2 (middle), and 3.1 (late). Each will be discussed below. See Tables 3–10 for data.
Early In the Chronology of the Sample (1 of 2) 1.5: The Protagonist Has Other Traits Consistent With the Personality Perspective

Only books early in the chronology of the sample rank high in this sub-category: books 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, and 10. Perhaps these older tales include other personality indicators that are less familiar today. Some annotations from these stories reveal commonalities:

1. Sense of humor: *The Slave Dancer* (p. 34); *Onion John* (p. 144); *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (p. 142).
2. Literate: *Johnny Tremain* (p. 3); *A Gathering of Days* (good handwriting, p. 6).
3. Driven: *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (ambitious, p. 117); *Johnny Tremain* (perfectionist, pp. 25, 47); *Up a Road Slowly* (disciplined, p. 42).
4. Courageous: *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (pp. 117, 141); *Johnny Tremain* (pp. 34, 93).
5. Positive character traits: *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (independent, p. 70), (optimistic, pp. 122, 136); *Johnny Tremain* (reliable, p. 4), (self-controlled, p. 37), (loyal, p. 34), (trusted, p. 117).

Early In the Chronology of the Sample (2 of 2) 3.2: The Protagonist Attempts to Build Consensus

Books 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 involve protagonists who try to encourage agreement among participants. This is not true of the examples of modern youth in these Newbery books. One could speculate that a more modern virtue than building consensus is at work here. Perhaps individualism is a stronger drive for today’s adolescent.

The consensus-building of these eight protagonists varies; though the incidents could be analyzed a number of different ways, this researcher has chosen to divide the
relevant incidents into categories: consensus that serves both parties, consensus that serves self, consensus that serves another.

**Consensus That Serves Both.** Dave in *It's Like This, Cat* is a consensual social planner: He suggests he and his friend go to the theater (p. 76), he suggests options for leisure-time activities (p. 98), and he promotes healthy living by convincing his friend to walk with him instead of riding the subway (p. 11). M.C.'s obsession with the slag heap that looms in the backyard drives him to try to achieve consensus about its danger (pp. 74, 81, 105). Catherine, *A Gathering of Days*, visually shows consent by her “nod in agreement” (p. 19), and Dicey helps the other kids process a conflict with Gram (p. 105).

**Consensus That Serves Self.** Young Fu uses consensus to warm up to a companion (p. 25) and to achieve solidarity with someone who was mocking him (p. 100). M.C. enjoys the feeling of being one with his dad after he and his dad discuss their ideas about the place they live (p. 107): “When Jones came forward, M.C. got a hold on himself. He began to stalk when Jones stalked. Wide apart, they gauged the distance between one another by the sound of their breathing. They were still father and son in rhythm, surrounded by night,” a description that is a metaphor for the father-son give-and-take in their relationship. Catherine, in *A Gathering of Days* feels a similar affinity for her step-mom when she concedes and confides in her (p. 98). Finally, Louise in *Jacob have I Loved* tries to win Call’s assent about Hiram, someone she suspects is a spy (p. 60), and about the meaning she assigns to a poem she recites (p. 80). Furthermore, she gives up little when she agrees to not attend school so she can help her father hunt crabs, an activity she loves (p. 191).
Consensus That Serves Others. Young Fu achieves consensus with his Chinese acquaintances about the foreigners who some fear; in doing so he paves the way for medical help for a sick friend (p. 119) Andy, the protagonist from Onion John tries to convince others about the rightness of John’s thinking (pp. 43, 118). When he’s not convincing others, he is trying to convince John about many life experiences that most find ordinary: convince him to replace his stove and tub (pp. 102, 104), convince him to use appropriate words in his speech to the citizens (p. 134), convince him to leave town (p. 195), reason with him about other topics (pp. 212, 218). Jessie, the protagonist from The Slave Dancer has Ras’ best interests in mind when he convinces him of his peaceful intentions (p. 125), understands his troubles (p. 127), and urges him not to kill a chicken (p. 134). Catherine, A Gathering of Days, casts a ballot, a form of consent (p. 9). Louise in Jacob Have I Loved tries to convince her grandma of the truth of a situation (p. 212). Finally, Dicey expends much energy convincing James about the best plan of action for the siblings (pp. 33, 334) and discussing what to do about Maybeth (p. 186).

Mid-Sample (1 of 2) 7.1: The Protagonist Values Followers’ Personal Growth

Valuing the growth of others is a quality seen toward the middle of the chronology of the sample. The protagonists in books 4, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 all display this virtue. The discussion which follows is sorted by whether the concern for growth is directed at peers (least common), those younger, or those older than protagonist (more common).

Dave, in It’s Like This, Cat values his peers’ personal growth. He writes to Tom who is in jail (p. 19), and fosters a friendship between Ben and Tom (p. 99). M.C, in the
story with his name, takes a girl he befriended where she didn’t know she wanted to go (p. 165). Summer, in *Missing May*, prays for her friend, not for herself, though her needs seem bigger than his (p. 81).

Younger folks benefit from the protagonist’s concern for their personal growth. Dicey, in *Dicey’s Song*, changes her plans so that she can help Maybeth (p. 57), wants a better life for Maybeth (p. 79), and praises her when she begins to read (p. 185). In addition, she lets Sammy help her refinish her boat (p. 147), and she acknowledges that “part of holding on was letting [James] do things his own way” (p. 163). Likewise, Alyce in *The Midwife’s Apprentice* cares for the younger people in her life. She helps a boy choose a name, because she does not think “Runt” is a fitting one for a human being. But she doesn’t stop there: She gets him a job (p. 66), worries about him (p. 75), wants to see if he is alright (p. 90), and is happy when, despite her wishes to have him for her own, he is happy and well cared for (p. 96). She makes up a story for him about himself as a hero (p. 99). Finally, in *A Year Down Yonder* a thin, underfed girl benefits from the big slice of pie the protagonist gives her.

But older folks also are cared for by these protagonists. Onion John benefits from Andy’s concern (pp. 52, 64), and Andy supports his dad even though he opposes his viewpoint (p. 179). Dave in *It’s Like This, Cat* worries about Kate, an elderly neighbor (p. 144). Dicey, too, worries about Gram (p. 320) and encourages her to eat (p. 288). Likewise, Summer in *Missing May* shows her care for Ob by feeding him (p. 45), worrying about him (p. 37), and helping him (p. 87). It is Billie Jo in *Out of the Dust* who leads her dad to physical and emotional healing (p. 211), as does Alyce in *The Midwife’s Apprentice* for a laboring woman: “Shh mistress. ‘Tis the pain and fright
make you speak so, for else you'd never think of sending yourself to Hell and the baby with you" (p. 58).

Also, the examples above can be sorted into relative/non-relative categories. Doing so yields the following results:

1. Valuing growth of relatives:

   *Onion John; M.C. Higgins, the Great; Dicey's Song; Missing May; Out of the Dust*

2. Valuing the growth of non-relatives

   *Onion John; It's Like This, Cat; M.C. Higgins, the Great; Missing May, The Midwife's Apprentice, A Year Down Yonder*

**Mid-Sample (2 of 2) 8.2: The Protagonist Creates Group Codes or Symbols**

Last, protagonists in the middle of the chronology of the sample—books 5, 10, 13, and 15—all rank high in creating codes or symbols. Though it seems logical that a check of the dates of these books may reveal a historical fascination with secrets and symbol, they actually reveal something a bit different: Two of the books in this sub-category—*It's like This, Cat*, and *A Year Down Yonder*—have no occurrences of this code. The high rating is a result of low numbers of codes throughout the book. The two books that showed up in this sub-category that did have an instance of 8.2 were *The Midwife's Apprentice* and *Jacob Have I Loved*. The name Alyce chooses for herself in the former story becomes a symbol to her for a person of worth (p. 32), and, in the latter tale, Louise makes up a spy code for her friend Call: She ties his shoestrings in an uncommon pattern and says, "Why don't you think of it as a secret signal?" (p. 64).
Late In the Chronology of the Sample (1 of 1) 3.1: The Protagonist Demonstrates Expertise

Protagonists who frequently display expertise are a more modern manifestation of the democratic mentor. Books 9, 10, 13, 14, and 17 were ranked high for this sub-category. Perhaps this reflects an historical trend toward empowerment of youth. Instead of being looked at as leaders in training, perhaps these modern adolescents are depicted as experts in their own right, measured by standards appropriate to their situations. Selected passages will be used to illuminate this trend:

Adult tasks are the area of expertise for two protagonists in this sub-category. Catherine in *A Gathering of Days* mends (p. 60), cooks (p. 61) and picks berries (p. 106). She is proficient enough at household tasks to be consulted by her dad’s new wife (p. 74). Likewise, Louise in *Jacob Have I Loved* is an expert at poling a skiff (pp. 7, 128). She is so good, in fact, that her parents let her skip school to help during crabbing season. Alyce from *The Midwife’s Apprentice* knows how to do many things important to help her mistress (pp. 12, 52).

One protagonist who ranked high in this sub-category was “a part of something” (*Onion John*, p. 132) and another was asked what talents he had to contribute (*Crispin, the Cross of Lead*, p. 77).

Findings Based on Codings of Sub-categories Within Perspectives: Trends (Gender)

The sample is almost evenly divided between genders: 9 males and 8 females. Interestingly, most of the female protagonists are clustered in the middle of the chronology of the sample—books 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15. Perspectives were
analyzed per gender for number of times sub-category appeared in top ranks. Tables 3-10 detail this information (female protagonists are indicated in tables by using bold type). Percentages of either male or female demonstrating the chosen sub-category within each perspective were compared. Sub-categories listed below contain significant (determined by the researcher to be more than 25 percentage points) differences between genders. See Table 11 for this information.

The data indicate that female protagonists are less likely and males, therefore, more likely to be portrayed as leaders because of their physical characteristics (1.1) or supernatural tendencies (1.4). In addition, females are not as likely to be portrayed with the following formal sub-categories: creating structure (2.1), demonstrating or valuing

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<th>Male Percentage</th>
<th>Difference Between Percentages</th>
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<td>1.1</td>
<td>13%</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
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<td>Perspective 4</td>
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<td>Perspective 8</td>
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efficiency (2.2), or other structures consistent with the formal perspective (2.6). Females also are not often shown with the ability to acknowledge the importance of rituals (8.3).

Males seem less likely and females, therefore, more likely, to be portrayed as demonstrating expertise (3.1), manipulating others to retain power (4.1), experiencing chaos and disorder (6.3), valuing follower’s personal growth (7.1), and creating group codes or symbols (8.2).

Furthermore, the data show that, overall, females in the sample are less likely to be portrayed as formal or cultural/symbolic leaders. Males in the sample are less likely to be portrayed as democratic or political leaders.

Summary of Findings Based on Codings of Each of the Eight Major Perspectives and Their Sub-categories: Introduction

A strength of this study is that sub-categories within perspectives, as well as the eight perspectives themselves, were discovered, coded, described through quotations and examples, and, ultimately, used to compare a variety of variables within the sample group. Highlights from each of the eight perspectives and their sub-categories will be presented below. Each summary usually will include significant results based on the ranking within the eight perspectives, on the prevalent dominant and recessive sub-categories within the perspective, on historical trends, and finally, on gender trends. Findings used for these summaries are presented in Tables 1 and Tables 3-10.

Summary of the Personality Perspective (1) and Its Sub-categories

The personality perspective tied with the ambiguity perspective for number of books that ranked in the top ranks (14/17). Furthermore, seven books ranked in the top
rank for this perspective. This emphasis on the personality perspective is unsurprising. Because the category was so comprehensive—it included codings for physical, cognitive, and artistic capability, for example—it encompassed many of the qualities that make for engaging characters within a work of fiction. What was somewhat surprising was that affective abilities (1.3) were best represented among all the sub-categories (16 out of 17). This is a hopeful outlook for adolescent leadership: models for those who desire to connect with others are readily available in this sample of adolescent fiction. This sub-category, due to its prevalence among protagonists, seems to be a piece of the puzzle that is adolescent-leader shaped, a puzzle which will take shape later in this chapter.

On the other hand, given that this sample included only realistic fiction books, it is not surprising that supernatural traits (1.4) were under-represented. The fact that the "other" sub-category (1.5) within this perspective ranked high only in the early part of the sample seems to indicate that personality characteristics that lead to leadership were even more diverse and rich than the five descriptors provided in the code book; in fact, an additional descriptor was added, after consulting the literature, when patterns within the "other" sub-category indicated need for an additional descriptor for artistic/creative ability. Finally, two sub-categories within this perspective were presented in male characters significantly more often than in female characters. These were physical characteristics (1.1) and supernatural tendencies (1.4). The latter was never represented in the high ranks among females, and physical traits were only emphasized thirteen percent of the time, among books with female protagonists. Perhaps the Newbery selection committee consciously resists the stereotype of the beautiful heroine for books
worthy of the gold seal of approval; or, perhaps, they have yet to affirm the value of
physical strength (also a possible interpretation of physical characteristics) for heroines.

Summary of the Formal Perspective (2) and Its Sub-categories

The formal perspective ranked last (tied with cultural/symbolic) in the eight
perspectives for number of times it received a high ranking (3/17), and no book displayed
enough sub-categories of the formal perspective to move the perspective to the top rank.
Because the formal perspective is built on a factory production model, it is logical that
books concerned with adolescent relationships and adventures would contain few formal
elements. In fact, none of the sub-categories of formal leadership clearly dominated (i.e.
16 out of 17 books) the perspective they describe. When considering which perspectives
made the top rank but were not well represented (recessive sub-categories), only sub-
category 2.4 qualified. Three protagonists—the other three titles in this group of findings
actually had no instances of any formal sub-categories, thus producing a false high rank
of 3.5 for all sub-categories—valued productivity (2.4); for two of these, this productivity
is linked directly to survival: If Young Fu and Tree-ear don’t produce, they may not eat.
Though her situation is not as desperate as these two boys’ is, Louise in Jacob Have I
Loved displays productivity as she harvests crabs. Interestingly, all three of these
examples have economic implications, a common motivator for those within the formal
perspective. No historical trends in the portrayal of formal sub-categories were
discovered. Within the sub-categories defining the perspective, males tended to be
described significantly more often than females as creating structure (2.1), demonstrating
or valuing efficiency (2.2), and having other sub-categories of the formal perspective

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(2.6). Perhaps a male boss-management stereotype is evident in this sample, though the low incidence of formal sub-categories of any kind makes any analysis tentative. Furthermore, when all perspectives are taken into account, males were more likely than females to be portrayed as formal leaders.

Summary of the Democratic Perspective (3) and Its Sub-categories

The democratic perspective ranked in the top places in only 6 books, thus putting it in the bottom half of the sample in terms of emphasis on the perspective. It never was ranked in top place for any book. However, one of the sub-categories of the democratic perspective (3.3) was ranked high for all but one character. This quality, combined with others that are mentioned below, serve to begin to flesh out what an adolescent leader in exemplary literature looks like, a topic that will be discussed in the section entitled “Summary of adolescent leadership perspective.” The sample seems to be saying that sharing responsibility with others (3.3) is a significant activity for most adolescent protagonists within this sample. Furthermore, the sub-categories within the sample seem comprehensive enough to cover the qualities of a fictional democratic protagonist because 3.4 (“The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the democratic perspective”) never placed in the top 4 of the 8 possible rankings. Demonstrating expertise (3.1) is a modern manifestation of the democratic perspective. Perhaps this reflects an historical trend toward empowerment of youth. Instead of being looked at as leaders in training, perhaps these modern adolescents are depicted as experts in their own right, measured by standards appropriate to their situations. On the other hand, attempting to build consensus is evident in the protagonists in older books in the sample,
not in the more modern. Why is consensus-building not true of the examples of modern youth in these Newbery books? Again, one could speculate that a more modern virtue than building consensus is at work here. Perhaps individualism is a stronger drive for today's adolescent. Finally, males are less likely to be portrayed as demonstrating expertise (3.1) than their female counterparts within the sample. Furthermore, when all perspectives within the perspective are taken into account, females were more likely to be portrayed as democratic leaders.

Summary of the Political Perspective (4) and Its Sub-categories

The political perspective also did not fare well within the rankings of perspectives. Only four books were placed in the top rankings, and none ever achieved the top rank. No political sub-categories clearly dominated (16 out of 17) the sample. Sub-category 4.3 (“The protagonist uses compromise to retain power”) was represented only once in the top rankings of the sample. No historical trends were noted for any of the sub-categories within the political perspective. More interestingly, all the female protagonists in the sample ranked in the top rankings for sub-category 4.1—“The protagonist manipulates others to retain power.” Male protagonists were significantly less likely to demonstrate this quality (67%). Furthermore, when all perspectives are taken into account, females were more likely to be portrayed as political leaders. It is reassuring that adolescent leaders in this sample of exemplary literature do not often resort to this power-driven perspective as they face leadership challenges.
Summary of the Subjective Perspective (5) and Its Sub-categories

The subjective perspective was well-represented in the books of this sample (9 out of 17). However, only one book ranked this perspective highest of all. Interestingly, two-thirds of the books within the sample that emphasized the subjective perspective also were written from the first-person point of view. (Four other books that utilized this narrative viewpoint did not land in the top ranks, though three of these four did have a high low-rank of 4). Using the first-person point of view, an author tells a story through the eyes of the protagonist. Therefore, interpretation of events is often used to describe the character’s inner thoughts and to illuminate the motivation for action. The emphasis on the subjective perspective may be dependent on the point of view chosen to represent the character’s interactions and may or may not be representative of general adolescent processing of the leadership experience. Dominating sub-categories within the perspective is 5.1, expressing interpretations of situations. All but one book ranked high in this sub-category. This finding corroborates the researcher’s idea that first-person point of view may favor this perspective. Expressing interpretations, due to its prevalence among protagonists, seems to be a piece that will complete the puzzle known as “adolescent-leader perspective.” Apparently, the sub-categories within this perspective were descriptive enough to cover the range of characteristics and behaviors possible because the “other” sub-category (5.4) never placed in the top rankings. No historical trends or significant gender variations were noted in the findings.
Summary of the Ambiguity Perspective (6) and Its Sub-categories

Noteworthy is the emphasis on the ambiguity perspective; in fourteen out of seventeen books it ranked in the top half of the rankings, and in eight books this perspective ranked highest. Does that mean that leadership in this sample of realistic adolescent fiction is seen as an ambiguous, inscrutable affair? Yes and no. After all, the results do indicate that ambiguity is prevalent. However, it is important to remember that conflict breeds ambiguity—persons against others, self, supernatural events, nature, and things will find themselves uncertain about what to do when it comes time to lead. Novels use the conflict that ambiguity is born from to move the plot and characters' development along. Therefore, ambiguity’s high ranking may be as much a function of the genre chosen for the sample as it is indicative of a perspective that is representative of the adolescent experience. Sub-categories that clearly dominated the perspective are 6.1 ("The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation") and 6.2 ("The protagonist expresses unpredictability and ambiguity"). These two sub-categories, due to their prevalence among protagonists, seem also to be pieces of the adolescent-leader perspective puzzle, described more fully later. Perhaps most interesting about the sub-category 6.1 is that four protagonists fell into the top slots as far as number of instances of this sub-category go; that is twice as many as any other sub-category within "Findings based on codings within perspectives: trends in dominant sub-categories." Many protagonists are uncertain; again, this is a fine quality to help accelerate the excitement of a story’s plot. Just as 3.4 and 5.4—the “other” sub-category within their respective perspectives—never placed in the top 4 of 8 possible rankings, so also 6.4 (the “other” sub-category) didn’t place in the top rankings. In this case, this indicates that the
descriptors used within the ambiguity perspective were comprehensive enough to
describe the range of characteristics and behaviors possible. However, a pattern in the
annotations indicated that codes for this perspective were incomplete; after consulting the
literature, an additional code indicating the role of luck or chance in the protagonist’s
leadership events was added. No historical trends among the sub-categories within this
perspective were found. However, the data indicate that all the females in the sample
within the ambiguity perspective experienced chaos and disorder (6.3), while only fifty-
six percent of the male protagonists in books with male protagonists did. In fact, the 44
percentage point range between females and males is the highest for any sub-category (11
total) with significant gender variations. Though this is noteworthy, it is difficult to
interpret. Speculation includes females being out-of-step with the conditions under
which leadership occurred in the sample, and males being more aware and responsive to
the underlying causes of the problems that led to the need for a leader, though neither
speculation is offered as an explanation.

Summary of the Moral Perspective (7) and Its Sub-categories

The results of this ranking show that the moral perspective was emphasized (i.e.
in the top four rankings of the eight perspectives) most often (16 out of 17 books).
Noteworthy is the moral perspective’s low “first finish”-to-“first rank” ratio (16/1),
displayed in Table 1. Perhaps this is because a tale that is moralistic is unlikely to win a
Newbery Award. However, infusing moral meaning and actions into complex situations
helps redeem a story’s purpose, giving it a broader message that goes beyond engaging
characters and exciting plot. Sixteen of seventeen protagonists were characterized as
putting their own interests behind those of the follower (7.3). This sub-category, due to its prevalence among protagonists, seems also to be part of the puzzle that is adolescent-leader shaped, a topic that will be discussed later in this chapter. Sub-category 7.4, the “other” sub-category for this perspective, was represented twice in the top rankings. Perhaps additional descriptors were necessary for this perspective. Mid-sample was the place where an emphasis on valuing followers’ personal growth was found (7.1). Most commonly, this concern was directed at folks older than the protagonist. Least common was valuing the personal growth of peers. Perhaps adolescent self-interest is easier to overcome if the person being valued is not your own age. Finally, female protagonists were significantly more likely to exhibit this sub-category than males (63% for females and 33% for males).

Summary of the Cultural/Symbolic Perspective (8) and Its Sub-categories

This perspective tied with the formal for last place in number of times books were ranked high in the rankings for displaying this perspective (3 out of 17). Never was this perspective in first rank for any book. None of its defining sub-categories dominated the perspective. In fact, it is the only perspective that had two sub-categories in the group of findings of sub-categories that were under-represented in the top ranks: 8.2 and 8.5. 8.5 represents the “other” sub-category for this perspective; its inclusion in the recessive trends indicates that additional descriptors may have been needed in this perspective. Sub-category 8.2, “The protagonist creates group codes and symbols” may have been more prevalent if the focus of the sample had been on fantasy or science fiction books. Books in the middle of the sample emphasized this trait. Finally, both 8.2 and 8.3 (“The
protagonist acknowledges the importance of symbols”) show significant gender variations. Females in the sample were more likely to be portrayed as symbol creators (8.2) while males were more likely to acknowledge the importance of rituals (8.3). Furthermore, when all perspectives are taken into account, males were more likely to be portrayed as cultural/symbolic leaders.

Other Findings: Introduction

It became apparent as data was screened using the codes that some data fell into noteworthy patterns. These include apprentices as sub-group of leaders, orphans as sub-group of leaders, the role of peers in protagonists’ leadership behavior, and the role model as adolescent leadership mentor.

Other Findings: Apprentices as Sub-group of Leaders

Of the seventeen protagonists, five are apprentices: These include the four boys and one girl from Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze, Johnny Tremain, The Midwife’s Apprentice, A Single Shard, and Crispin, Cross of Lead. As the Appendix D summaries indicate, all of these young people are fine leaders, and all for a variety of reasons which are discussed in Chapter 5.

Other Findings: Orphans as Sub-group of Leaders

Many of the protagonists find themselves without a mother, father, or both. Ten protagonists have lost at least one parent. Discussion of these findings is presented in Chapter 5. Those without either parent (either actual or functional) are Dicey, Tree-ear,
Johnny Tremain, Crispin, Alyce of *The Midwife's Apprentice*, and Summer of *Missing May*. Motherless protagonists include Billie Jo from *Out of the Dust* and Julie from *Up a Road Slowly*. *Slave Dancer*’s Jessie Bollier, and Young Fu have mothers but no fathers. Discussion of these findings is presented in Chapter 5.

**Other Findings: Role of Peers in Protagonists' Leadership Behavior**

Adolescents often turn to peers for advice and assistance before consulting those older than they. The young people in this sample are no exception. Johnny Tremain follows his friend Rab's lead as war with Britain looms. Andy, in *Onion John*, bounces ideas off his friends as they all learn to love John. Julie in *Up a Road Slowly* needs her peers (p. 144) for comfort and advice. Similarly, Jessie needs Ras to give him hope in a hopeless situation in *The Slave Dancer*. Without Ben, M.C. would not have come to the understandings about land ownership that bring peace in his family (p. 274), and Catherine, *A Gathering of Days*, relies on the advice of her friends before making a big decision (p. 22). Without Cletus, Summer (*Missing May*) would not have come to know herself as she did. Discussion of these findings is presented in Chapter 5.

**Other Findings: The Role Model as Nurturer of Adolescent Leadership**

The sample contains many examples of young leaders looking to others for inspiration as they undertake the various leadership tasks that come their way. Not only do some protagonists shine as leaders, but also others in many of the stories also provide positive leadership input to the reader (see Appendix D for a full discussion of whole-book leadership rankings). Some protagonists find a role model in a relative. Others
look to an employer. Still others look to peers for help as they define their leadership responsibilities. Some who look to relatives are Josef (*Trumpeter of Krakow*), Andy (*Onion John*), and Julie (*Up a Road Slowly*). Young Fu, Tree-ear (*A Single Shard*), and Crispin all find leadership inspiration in their employers. Johnny Tremain follows in his peer Rab’s footsteps. In all but one case, the role models are male; only Julie (*Up a Road Slowly*) has a female role model (whose influence is supplemented by a male role model). Discussion of these findings is presented in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The seventeen Newbery Award-winning fiction books that bring to life the adventures of human protagonists between twelve and fifteen years old, convey a variety of leadership perspectives cloaked in narrative form. The protagonists in these stories exhibit behavior ranging from bossy arrogance to meek humility to noble service. They participate in diverse leadership tasks; leading a country to revolution and protecting the ashes of a loved one on a journey home are two examples. Authors who gave birth to this brood of eight girls and nine boys call them, “hero,” “prodigal son,” and “outcast.” Of the seventeen, most are Caucasian (or unspecified and, due to context and illustrations, identified as Caucasian), two are Asian, one is black. They are a diverse lot, and they react to the scripts written for them in diverse ways.

This research project was conducted to discover what leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books, which perspectives are dominant, whether or not portrayal of the identified perspectives changed over time, and whether or not protagonist’s gender has an effect on leadership perspective. The findings and discussion which follow will answer and illuminate these questions, and reveal the hidden curriculum related to leadership found in the sample. This chapter is organized as follows:
Answers to Research Questions: Summary of Results and Findings

This study discovered the following concerning these research questions:

1. What leadership perspectives are evident in selected Newbery books?

All eight perspectives are represented. The thoughts, behaviors, and actions of the protagonists were indicative, at various times, of all eight leadership perspectives. Five books, however, had no incidents of a particular perspective. These books and perspectives are: The Trumpeter of Krakow, The Slave Dancer, and The Midwife’s Apprentice—formal; It’s Like This Cat and A Year Down Yonder—cultural/symbolic.

2. Which perspectives are dominant?

The moral perspective was most often the top-ranking (between 5 and 8 in rank) perspective in terms of number of times per book data was coded as containing evidence
of this perspective (16 of 17 times); the personality and ambiguity perspectives were a close second (14 of 17 times, respectively).

The complete results of the ranking show that the moral perspective was emphasized most often, the personality and ambiguity perspectives were next-best represented, and the subjective perspective was last in the top half (9 out of 17). In order from this point were democratic (6), political (4), and, last, formal and cultural/symbolic (3).

Second, the formal, democratic, political, and cultural/symbolic perspectives never were ranked first for any book. Personality, subjective, ambiguity, and moral perspectives were in first but never in last place. No perspective was represented somewhere in the sample in both first and last places.

3. Does the portrayal of the identified perspectives change over time?

Five sub-categories of the leadership perspectives were well-represented in the top ranks only early in the chronology of the sample, only in the middle of the chronology of the sample, or only at the end of chronology of the sample. These sub-categories and their place in the sample are listed below in order of early, middle, and late in the chronology of the sample. No historical trends per the eight main perspectives were identified.

1. Early in the chronology of the sample:

1.5: The protagonist has other traits consistent with the personality perspective.

3.2: The protagonist attempts to build consensus.

2. Middle of the chronology of the sample:

7.1: The protagonist values followers' personal growth.
8.2: The protagonist creates group codes or symbols.

3. Late in the chronology of the sample:

3.1: The protagonist demonstrates expertise.


4. Does protagonist’s gender have an effect on leadership perspective?

The data indicate that female protagonists are less likely (and, therefore, males are more likely) to be portrayed as leaders because of their physical characteristics (1.1) or supernatural tendencies (1.4). Also, they are not as likely to be portrayed with the following formal sub-categories: creating structure (2.1), demonstrating or valuing efficiency (2.2), or other structures consistent with the formal perspective (2.6). Female protagonists also are not often shown with the ability to acknowledge the importance of rituals (8.3).

Males seem less likely (and females, therefore, more likely) to be portrayed as demonstrating expertise (3.1), manipulating others to retain power (4.1), experiencing chaos and disorder (6.3), valuing follower’s personal growth (7.1), and creating group codes or symbols (8.2). Furthermore, the data show that, overall, females in the sample are less likely to be portrayed as formal or cultural/symbolic leaders. Males in the sample are less likely to be portrayed as democratic or political leaders.
Additional Findings: Introduction to the Hidden Curriculum of Leadership Sub-groups

In addition to findings based on coding of the eight major perspectives and their sub-categories, additional comparisons were also found involving leadership sub-groups. It became apparent as data was screened using the codes that some data generated fell into noteworthy patterns. These include apprentices as sub-group of leaders, orphans as sub-group of leaders, the role of peers in protagonists' leadership behavior, and the role model as adolescent leadership mentor; conclusions drawn are elements of hidden curriculum of the sample.

Apprentices as Sub-group of Leaders: The Hidden Curriculum of Meaningful Work

First, of the seventeen protagonists, five are apprentices: These include the protagonists from *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze; Johnny Tremain; Midwife's Apprentice; A Single Shard*; and *Crispin, Cross of Lead*. Specifics about these apprentices are discussed in Appendix D. As the Appendix D summaries indicate, all of these young apprentices are fine leaders, and all for a variety of reasons.

Of these young followers in the sample who are turned into leadership paragons, two of them are smiths: Young Fu works copper, and Johnny, silver. One, Tree-ear, creates pottery, while Crispin learns to play music and juggle. The midwife's apprentice is her job title, book title, and name, all rolled into one. Both Young Fu and Johnny have had their apprenticeships arranged for them by their mothers. Tree-ear and Alyce, the midwife's apprentice, secure their own internships. Crispin is pressed into service by Bear.
Some patterns are evident: Three of the apprentices learn to lead by serving others, while two take the lead from the start. Tree-ear uses many personal qualities to puzzle his way through the daily events he encounters. He's not always sure what to do, but his overriding concern for others motivates him to action. He saves not only the master’s livelihood, but his own as well. His courageous trip to the capital transforms his employer from master to father. Similarly, Crispin, bound by sacred oath to a master he is wary of, knows that his place is to serve others. However, his subservient nature in the beginning of the tale is transformed: he becomes master both of Bear’s fate and of his own life. Alyce, the midwife’s apprentice, learns to trust her own instincts as she leads mothers through childbirth; her personal traits and care for others make her, like Tree-ear, a servant-leader. She is consumed by self-doubt, though, and even though her employer allows her to return after running away, it is because of her skill, not because the midwife loves her.

Johnny Tremain is master in his shop from the start. His bold, bossy attitude makes him more leader than follower. In contrast to Tree-ear, Johnny cares mostly for himself. This quality causes his downfall; however, his many personal traits and his acceptance of the role he now has to play, make him a valuable leader in his life after the shop. Young Fu, also, has no shortage of leadership potential. He strives like an entrepreneur from the start, suggesting improvements to the way things are done by his employer Tang. He leads many to safety, cares for his mother, and becomes Tang’s trusted confidante. Like his Asian counterpart Tree-ear, his employer treats him as a son.

All five of these adolescents engage in meaningful work.
All five of these adolescents engage in meaningful work, work that is the means for bringing them not only more comfortable lives but also deeper understanding of themselves and the societies in which they live. Adolescence is a relatively new phenomenon, born of industrialization, mandatory schooling, child labor laws, and menial employment opportunities (Hamilton, 2002). Because they are neither children nor adults, adolescents' role in society and family can be difficult for them to understand. Because they are neither fully dependent nor fully independent, the independence that they desire can take the form of rebellion. In a rightful desire for power over their lives, modern adolescents can mistake choices for freedom; some find themselves enslaved—to addiction, poor health, criminal penalties, and pregnancy—by choices they make. Too late they discover that, ironically, life without limits can be life without freedom.

The five adolescents who make up the sub-group of apprentices in this sample live lives in contrast to self-indulged youth. None of the five have full freedom; ironically, however, it is the lack of freedom that makes them powerful. For in serving the interests of their employers, they find value in themselves. Furthermore, two apprentices, Young Fu and Tree-ear, learn that being tied to a family brings the greatest freedom their spirits have ever known.

The idea of adolescents being apprentices who have important work to do, for present survival and for future livelihood, is contrary to the modern view of adolescents as on hold. The apprentices in the stories take their work seriously, and they invest their time and effort as if their lives depended on the job they were doing (which is true for most of them). Except for modern young people who are fortunate enough to work in a family business (itself a form of apprenticeship), too often the jobs adolescents are hired
to do seem meaningless and without social value. Furthermore, many adolescents work not to help their families but to accumulate possessions and to afford entertainment. It should not be surprising, given meaningless jobs and instant—and fleeting—gratification, that adolescents may find little satisfaction or meaning in their work. Such adolescents will find a contrasting view of work in the tales of the five apprentices. Adolescent readers who do find themselves in economic situations requiring employment (for necessities not desires) may find examples in these five exemplary apprentices of ways to redeem work experiences for a higher good.

Observing the gender of the protagonists in this group is also revealing. Though the sample was almost evenly divided into males and females, this group of findings includes only one female. Her story was awarded the Newbery in 1996, many years after the social changes that worked to bring about equal opportunities for women. If this group of findings is indicative, that equality has yet to be achieved in adolescent work experiences.

A socio-historical perspective on apprentices as a sub-group is also revealing. When these five stories were written, the time and place of the stories were long-ago and/or far-away. This may indicate a longing or desire for a time and/or place which affirmed meaningful work experiences for adolescents. The time parameters in which these books were written is also revealing: Two appear at the beginning of the chronology of the sample, and three appear at the end. As the Industrial Revolution began to upset agrarian patterns (and influence the rise of the period of life known as adolescence), two books about adolescents with important jobs to do appeared. Then, after a 50-year span, three more books with apprentice protagonists appeared. Perhaps
the historical perspective on apprentices in this sample indicates a recurring cultural
dissatisfaction with aimlessness in youth; expressed more positively, perhaps the fifty-
year time span after 1944 convinced society (or, at least, its children's book authors) of
the importance of providing meaningful work to young people. Those who read these
books could find fuel for transforming the world of adolescent work.

Orphans as Sub-group of Leaders: The Hidden Curriculum of Parenting and
Individualism

Many of the protagonists find themselves without a mother, father, or both: ten
protagonists have lost at least one parent. This occurs in a variety of ways and with a
variety of outcomes: some are without a parent due to death, some due to illness, others
for unknown reasons. In some cases, a surrogate parent helps ease their situation; at
times, the surrogate is a grandparent, relative, step-parent, or employer.

Those without either parent (either actual or functional) are Dicey, Tree-ear,
Johnny, Crispin, Alyce of The Midwife's Apprentice, and Summer of Missing May.
Motherless protagonists include Billie Jo from Out of the Dust, and Julie from Up a Road
Slowly. The Slave Dancer's Jessie Bollier and Young Fu have mothers but no fathers.
Surrogates include a grandma for Dicey, relatives for Summer, an employer for Tree-ear,
Crispin, and Young Fu, and a step-mother for Billie Jo and Julie. Johnny, Alyce, and
Jessie have no surrogates for the parents missing in their lives. The situations behind
these losses are described in Appendix D.

Certainly one reason why orphans and semi-orphans are so prevalent in this
sample is because such are sympathetic characters with whom readers empathize. Even
more than this, though, creating an adolescent protagonist who is self-reliant is also a way
for an author to affirm the period in a person's life known as adolescence. This is in contrast to a common understanding of this time of life portrayed as self-involved and narcissistic, which, indeed, it can be. The authors of these books seem to be using the orphaned protagonist as a means to evaluate this self-indulgent view. For, when life circumstances require it, these parent-less adolescents do not crumble into self. Instead, they reach out and lead, often redeeming others as they do so. Many who read these books may, themselves, be in circumstances involving little or no parental care. Therefore, readers may see their own stories in these characters' tales. In an era of single-parenthood and broken families, adolescents may learn to lead from these models of leadership who themselves are in unfortunate situations.

While the last group of findings indicated a male dominance, this group of orphans is evenly divided between males and females. Because the sample, also, was almost evenly split along gender lines, it seems that this finding indicates that not being able to count on two parents is a gender-neutral issue, affecting both males and females equally.

The majority of the titles that feature a parent-less protagonist occur from 1983-2003; that 20-year time span saw an increase in divorce and single-parenting in America; perhaps the authors are reflecting societal norms in their choice of protagonists' family situation. Horning (2001) speculates that the many orphans in Newbery books from 1986-2000 reveal that the adults in charge of the world are admitting that they haven't done a very good job; therefore, it is up to the kids to fix what adults have broken. To express Horning's (2001) idea positively, perhaps the authors of these tales recognized the destructiveness of some familial/social trends and addressed it in their fictionalized
accounts through the courageous leadership of the main characters they created. If so, this authorial trend displays an optimism that seems to say that individuals have power to overcome societal ills. The message that lack of parenting may not mean life without hope, mostly a contemporary message in terms of the sample, is a message that could have the power to transform individual lives.

Adolescent Protagonists Influenced by Peers as Sub-group: The Hidden Curriculum of Friends and Individualism

Third, adolescents often turn to peers for advice and assistance before consulting those older than they. The young people in this sample are no exception: Johnny Tremain follows his friend Rab’s lead as war with Britain looms. Andy, in *Onion John*, bounces ideas off his friends as they all learn to love John. Julie in *Up a Road Slowly* needs her peers for comfort and advice. Similarly, Jessie needs Ras to give him hope in a hopeless situation in *The Slave Dancer*. Without Ben, M.C. would not have come to the understandings about land ownership that bring peace in his family, and Catherine, *A Gathering of Days*, relies on the advice of her friends before making a big decision. Without Cletus, Summer (*Missing May*) would not have come to know herself as she did. These varied ways in which the protagonists rely on friends are discussed in Appendix D.

The protagonists in these stories associated with peers who had a positive influence on their lives and leadership. Peer pressure is often portrayed in popular media and in fictional works as a negative influence on adolescents. Peers are seen as the powerful forces that tug at the moorings that parents have provided for their sons and daughters. However, in these award-winning books, peer pressure is overwhelmingly positive. Perhaps this is part of the formula for concocting an award-winning plot. Or
perhaps the authors who wrote the tales in this group of findings from the sample wanted to provide an alternative view of the effect of peers on adolescents. Whatever the reason behind the trend, it is possible that those who read these books will realize the importance of positive peers in their own decision-making.

As is true for the orphaned-child findings, this group of protagonists is also almost evenly split along gender lines: four of the protagonists are boys and three are girls. Perhaps this indicates a universal need for peer support no matter whether an adolescent is male or female. Furthermore, because literature can help adolescents develop patterns for adult behavior (Hamilton, 2002), perhaps those who read these stories will realize the value of friendship for males and females in all stages of life.

This finding and the orphaned-child finding are related in another way; if children can’t rely on parents to help them in life, then they must turn to peers for this assistance. While many adults may fail to see the value of peers in children’s lives, the sample affirms the need for age-similar friends through its emphasis on peers. The findings are also related in another way: While orphaned protagonists appear most commonly later in the chronology of the sample, strong peer relationships are grouped mid-sample. A socio-cultural explanation for this lack of overlapping historical trend could be related to Horning’s (2001) analysis: Not only have adults failed to take care of the world, but, also, adolescents are on their own to fix it. The researcher suspected that more recent titles may reveal less leadership and more individualism. Though the first part of that statement did not materialize, the lack of historical overlap in the orphan and peer findings seems to point toward reliance on self to meet life’s challenges. To extend the discussion even further, this trend in the findings indicates that just as adolescent peer
support dries up (mid-sample), parents begin to disappear (late in the chronology of the sample). The only one left to rely on is the adolescent him- or herself.

Another overlap of findings related to orphans and peers is that four of the ten who were orphans also were fortunate to have peer support; to express this another way, the majority of those who relied on peers were parent-less (four out of seven). Most of these overlaps, however, occur in the first half of the sample. So, this seemingly hopeful discovery may indicate that society has, indeed, become too damaged and confusing for those in charge to fix it (Homing, 2001). Furthermore, these overlapping findings may indicate that if means to transform a flawed and hurting world are available then those means will be employed by individuals alone. For some readers, this implicit message could help muster courage and action. For others, such a realization could result in alienation and despair, leaving them powerless in the face of life's problems.

Protagonists Influenced by Role Models as Sub-group of Leaders: The Hidden Curriculum of Mentoring

Finally, the sample contains many examples of young leaders looking to others for inspiration as they undertake the various leadership tasks that come their way. These include Josef (Trumpeter of Krakow), Young Fu, Johnny Tremain, Andy (Onion John), Julie (up a Road Slowly), Tree-ear (A Single Shard), and Crispin. As described in Appendix D, these role models are varied; relatives, employers, peers, males, and females function as role models throughout the books in this sample. Responding to role models affirms a person's affective ability, ability to share responsibility, and ability to put one's own needs behind those of another. These three qualities were dominant trends within sub-categories in the perspectives. Knowing this gives credence to the idea that the role
model is essential to adolescent leadership development. Therefore, this finding seems quite significant.

The role model as nurturer of adolescent leadership also affirms the dominant sub-category trends noted earlier in the study. Six qualities are listed as dominant trends: 1.3, 3.3, 5.1, 6.1, 6.2, 7.3. Of these, at least three affirm the place of a role model in helping develop leadership potential. First, having affective abilities (1.3) helps a person relate to others, such as a role model. Second, sharing responsibility (3.3) is essential in role model situations. New ways of doing tasks and of looking at the world are often modeled by a role model; trying the new ways out is more achievable with the support of the role model. Finally, putting own interests behind those of others (7.3) is one way to express what a role model does. By acknowledging his place as a model for the life of another, he puts his own needs aside to help develop the strengths of the one modeling his thoughts, words, and actions.

This finding help the reader of these tales because those who discover from this sample that role models are often the inspiration behind positive leadership behavior may place themselves in situations where positive role models are experienced. Clubs, youth groups, and civic and religious organizations all offer opportunities for influence by positive role models. Furthermore, this active involvement may have a better chance of bearing fruit than overt training in leadership (Fiedler, 1967; Burns, 1978). Modeling seems a natural way for a mentor to demonstrate leadership skills in action. Showing and doing can be more effective teachers than explaining and telling. Many protagonists in the sample benefit from modeling; readers of these tales may learn to lead as they interact with the characters and stories discussed here.
In contrast to these positive conclusions that can be drawn from this set of findings, a socio-historical analysis reveals what has become a common trend in these groups of “other” findings: most of the findings for this category are grouped together. In this case, most role models are found early in the sample (five out of seven). Role modeling seems significant to productive adolescent development. However, the findings in this group seem to indicate that role modeling for adolescents fell out of favor between 1970 and 2001. Again, it seems that an echo of individualism is being heard: Not only are parents unreliable, but other positive influences in life (other than peers) may be hard to find. It is encouraging that the trend toward role modeling is reappearing in the last two books in the sample.

Beyond the fact that role models exist and cluster in the early part of the sample, another feature of role modeling is instructive: The significant models noted in the sample form a male-dominated group, and the group of those who are identified as having a role model are also male-dominated. Only Julie from Up a Road Slowly is female and has at least one female role model; even so, the influence of the female role model in her life was supplemented by a male role’s model’s influence. These findings corroborate the male gender bias found in school reading texts (Foley & Boulware, 1996), and they also seem to point to the truth of O’Keefe’s (2000) findings that girls find themselves in a male-dominated world when they read literature, and Bunting’s (1999) report that, while girls may choose a female role model, boys rarely will. If Zirkel (2002) is right, then females could be academically disadvantaged by the lack of female role modeling (from both sides of the relationship) in this sample of award-winning realistic fiction.
Summary of Adolescent Leadership Perspective

Before moving on to a discussion of various strengths and weaknesses of the study, it is appropriate to sift through all the information gleaned from the data to begin to untangle the adolescent leadership perspective puzzle. Certainly this study has made clear that adolescent leaders share many characteristics of leaders at any age. But it also seems clear that adolescents have a unique combination of characteristics that contribute to a previously underdefined perspective.

In six cases, all but one adolescent leader in the sample demonstrated a specific sub-category often enough to make it dominate the top half of the ranking for the sub-categories within a particular perspective. These six sub-categories are:

1.3: The protagonist has affective abilities that indicate leadership
3.3: The protagonist shares responsibility with others.
5.1: The protagonist expresses interpretations of situations.
6.1: The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation.
6.2: The protagonist experiences unpredictability and ambiguity.
7.3: The protagonist puts own interests behind those of the follower.

Using this list as descriptive of sixteen adolescent leaders from seventeen pieces of exemplary adolescent literature from a variety of eras, one could begin to understand the adolescent leader in this way:

The adolescent leader is emotionally connected to others (1.3) as s/he willing shares responsibility (3.3) in a selfless way (7.3), as s/he discovers solutions (5.1) to confusing leadership situations (6.2), and as s/he feels both interested (5.1) and uncertain
(6.1) about the leadership situation. In addition, the adolescent leader relies on peers and role models, evidence both of willingness to share responsibility and ability to connect emotionally with others. Developing a rubric against which this sample and other pieces of literature for adolescents could be measured would test whether or not this description of adolescent leadership is reliable.

Relationship of Results to Previous Studies

The review of the literature accomplished before the research in this study was conducted revealed three major constructs behind the research questions posed. These are “hidden or implicit curriculum,” “leadership perspectives,” and “Newbery books.” Highlights of each will be discussed in relation to the descriptions and discussion in this research study. Finally, results will be discussed holistically, considering the study results in the context of all three major constructs; analyzing results in this context helps one understand the hidden curriculum of adolescent leadership in the sample.

Overview of Results in Relationship to the Hidden Curriculum

Jackson (1968) was the first to use the term “hidden curriculum” (Giroux and Purpel 1983; Hemmings, 1999–2000; Wren, 1999). He understood this to mean all the interactions in a school day. He theorized that school success was dependent on the ability to master this hidden curriculum (Snyder, 1971). In the 1970s, Vallance (1973) went beyond description and contended that implicit curriculum not only exists but has a purpose, though that purpose may be unstated. Later, Giroux and Penna (1979) expanded the definition; they said the implicit curriculum includes unstated norms, beliefs, and
values that are transmitted through content and context, and they moved beyond looking at classroom interactions to the agenda that classroom decisions were built on.

In summary, an understanding of the hidden curriculum has gone from a focus on what happens in the classroom environment to what happens in the environment plus what expectations for reacting and adjusting to these environmental realities are, to a more complete understanding which includes the classroom environment, expectations for behavior within this environment, plus an often unstated moral agenda which informs the decisions teachers make regarding what is and isn’t taught and/or behavior that is/isn’t reinforced within the classroom environment (Apple, 1979; Giroux & Penna, 1979). Goodlad (1984) urged teachers to harness this curriculum. This study is part of that attempt. Implicit themes in literature are part of the unstated curriculum. All of the leadership perspectives noted in the books in this study, as well as the newly emerging adolescent leadership perspective, are implicit. Therefore, these books and others with implicit leadership themes could be a powerful tool for enhancing adolescent understanding of leadership as students develop their own leadership practices, influenced by the adolescent leadership perspective which is based on dominant prevalent sub-categories within the sample. This emerging adolescent leadership perspective is described in Chapter 4.

More important than the descriptions of the hidden curriculum is an understanding of the power it has. Apple (1982) sees the hidden curriculum as the fuel behind social change, as the key to justice and the transformative power of education. Studies show that student reaction to implicit curriculum ranges from commitment...to rebellion...to detached acceptance...to subversion (Cornbleth, 1982; Hannay, 1985;
Kretovics, 1986). The point is, hidden curriculum is not neutral; students do react to the implicit curriculum and the agenda of a school (Shen, 1994).

This study reveals that exemplary adolescent literature does contain evidence of eight well-documented leadership perspectives. In addition, the sample seems to be indicating a leadership model for adolescents, a model which emphasizes emotional connectedness, shared responsibility, selflessness, peers, and role models. The findings of this study could help educators harness this aspect of the hidden curriculum so that adolescents can be leaders who contribute to a more just teaching and learning environment.

There has been a progression over time in understanding the hidden curriculum. At best, the hidden curriculum is underused: at worst, it is exploitive: Anyon’s study (1980) shows that it perpetuated the status quo. Kohlberg (1970) hopes that schools will use implicit curriculum to transform education. Hannay (1985) writes about cultural reproduction as a spiraling web that can be overcome by using implicit curriculum for cultural transformation. The hidden curriculum is powerful. The goal of educators should be to use this hidden curriculum of adolescent leadership discovered in the sample to transform schools into more just places, a redemption that is necessary in many settings, and that will be discussed more fully below.

Overview of Results in Relationship to Well-documented Leadership Perspectives

The second construct behind the research questions posed is “leadership perspectives.” Eight leadership perspectives have been well documented in the literature. Each will be discussed below.
The personality perspective is identified by Hersey and Blanchard (1996) and Gardner (1995). It focuses on the leader's in-born traits and characteristics (Northouse, 1997). Many leaders within this perspective have charisma and vision (Jennings, 1960; House, 1997).

The formal perspective is a product of the Industrial Age. Its hallmarks are specialization, maintaining, managing, productivity, and hierarchy (Bush, 1995). Taylor, Fayol, and Weber (Bush, 1995) are known for this perspective.

The democratic perspective (Fiedler, 1967) emphasizes not the leader but the follower. Collegiality (Fiedler, 1967), shared responsibility (Carlson, 1996), and consensus (Bush, 1995) mark this perspective.

Fourth, the political perspective is a power-driven perspective. Interest groups influence the leader (Bush, 1995); lobbies and special interests exert power. Negotiating, compromising, and bargaining characterize this perspective described by Carlson (1996).

The subjective perspective contends that, in leadership, old reality is no reality (Bush, 1995). Every leader is autonomous, and every situation is unique. Therefore, interpretation is the key to leadership (Bush, 1995). This can be a power-driven perspective when interpretations are at odds.

Cohen and March coined the term “garbage can” approach to leadership; this describes the ambiguity perspective (Bush, 1995). Change, chaos, and confusion prevail (Carlson, 1996). Power struggles are expected.

Kouzes and Posner (1988), Greenleaf (1980), and many other popular writers see leadership as a moral enterprise marked by trust. The term servant-leader comes from this perspective. Leaders have a responsibility to strengthen individuals within an

Last, cultural/symbolic leaders are keepers of the traditions. They participate in and create rituals and ceremonies that define the organization (Bush, 1995). Mission statements are part of this perspective (Bush, 1995). The mythic content of the organization lies in these leaders' hands (Starratt, 1993).

Obviously, this study was crafted to affirm these eight perspectives, because the codes used to gather data were constructed from thirty-eight sub-categories that describe these eight perspectives. And, indeed, every perspective was represented to one degree or another within the sample. Analysis by perspective is recorded earlier in this chapter, so the results will not be repeated here. Rather, it would be instructive to know whether the dominant perspectives (moral, personality, ambiguity, and subjective) are indicative of a transformational or transactional emphasis on leadership. Burns (1978) makes the following distinctions between the two types: Transactional leaders engage in you-scratch-my-back, I'll-scratch-yours tactics to accomplish goals common to both parties. In transactional leadership, an exchange of goods is always made. These relationships can be short-lived. In fact, Burns (1978) says that the relationship will last only as long as necessary; it is fluid and changeable. To use an analogy, transactional leaders are like merchants, exchanging, bartering, and trading to achieve goals.

Transformational leaders, on the other hand, are intellectuals who use criticism, imagination, and thought to affect ends beyond present means. Transformational leadership links people together by inspiring engagement with one another so that a common purpose is achieved; trust, vision, and empowerment mark transformational
leadership (Burns, 1978; Carlson, 1996). Transformational leaders are like gardeners, tending to the needs and growth of others. This study favors transformational leadership, because most of the four top-ranked perspectives favor a transformational approach: Moral and subjective are part of a transformational emphasis, personality is either, depending on the leader’s qualities, while the ambiguity perspective is the only leading perspective clearly not within the transformational emphasis.

Finally, this study is valuable to those who wish to harness the implicit themes in stories to help develop leaders who are aware of the transactive and transformative powers of leadership. It affirms Burns’ conclusions, which are based on theories of need hierarchy, moral development, and personal growth: “If the origin of the leader’s value system lies in childhood conscience, adolescence and adulthood bring new overtures and new closures as norms are interpreted and applied in ever-widening, ever more differentiated social collectives” (1978, p. 73). Adolescent experiences with literature could very well be a “new overture” in the development of leadership attributes and characteristics. Because it seems adolescent leadership is spontaneous and not influenced by overt attempts (Fiedler, 1971; Burns, 1978), implicit messages may be a powerful influence. If teachers are to transform culture, then they must critically examine the implicit and explicit curricula and materials that inhabit the classroom. This study will enable decision-makers to understand what kinds of adolescent leaders are hiding in exemplary adolescent literature, and to use this understanding to transform culture, as detailed below in the context of the three major constructs as a whole.
Overview of Results in Relationship to Adolescent Literature Studies

The third and final construct is adolescent literature, exemplified by Newbery Award-winning books. Exemplary literature, such as that represented by Newbery Award-winning books, guides implicitly as adolescents respond to it (Tambling, 1991). It doesn’t teach or preach (Lukens, 1986). Rather, understanding is enhanced through personal discovery, unique to each individual (Rabinowitz, 1987). One researcher said that “stories...provide the plot structures for our own self-narratives” (Sarbin, in Moshman, 1999). In summary, text combined with personal insights result in meaning (Farber, Provenzo, & Holm, 1994). It seems exemplary literature is important as attitudes toward and skills for leadership and other life activities are developed. Great care must be taken to plan experiences that will help adolescents understand and choose to be a part of positive experiences (Broughton, 2002). This study can help educators carefully construct a learning experience that will help students understand and act as purposeful, transformative leaders both now and in the future, a topic which will be discussed below.

Studies have analyzed school texts for gender portrayals. Some have found improvement over time in fairness (Robson, 2001; Bazler & Simonis, 1990); others have found little progress in gender balance (Koza, 1994; Beyer, Ogletree, & Ritzel, 1996; Foley & Boulware, 1996). More specifically, researchers have analyzed literature, including Newbery books for gender messages (Agee, 1993; Houdyshell & Kirkland, 1998), character traits (Leal, 1999), minority depictions (Gillespie, Powell, & Clements, 1994; Miller, 1998), sexual stereotypes (Allen, 1999), and bias toward males (Houston, 1991; O’Keefe, 2000). Relevant findings of the current study based on gender and
leadership are part of the hidden curriculum of the sample, and will be discussed in the context of the major constructs of the study.

Relationship of Results to Three Major Constructs as a Whole: The Hidden Curriculum of Adolescent Leadership as Found in the Sample

While it is important to note the relationship of the findings to specific studies and trends documented in the literature, it is also instructive to consider the findings in a broader context, one that considers the constructs as a whole. At least four conclusions about implicit leadership perspectives that middle school students are exposed to through the reading of the selected Newbery books can be drawn in this holistic analysis; the four summarize the hidden curriculum of leadership found in the sample: First, adolescents will gain a picture of leadership that includes both male and female faces, but with little ethnic diversity, and with some gender-biased nuances. Second, adolescents who read these books will get a good look at a number of protagonists who are transformational leaders. Third, the wide range of historical time periods represented in the sample will allow adolescents an opportunity to see leadership as a universal experience, spanning time and place, and including a variety of effective approaches. Fourth, teachers, librarians, parents, and role models can help adolescents process their emerging discoveries about leadership by reassuring them that leadership often involves confusion and uncertainty. Each of these conclusions will be discussed separately below:
The Face of Adolescent Leadership

Fortunately, the face of leadership in this sample is gender-balanced. Boys and girls who read these stories will understand that both males and females have leadership roles to fill. Equally as fortunate, adolescents will understand that physical beauty is not a prerequisite to female leadership; as a corollary, they may also learn that females don’t need physical strength for leadership. Reading books from the sample and others like them (Allen, 1999) may help counteract some of the stereotypical heroine messages bombarding young people through omnipresent popular media.

However, nuances concerning gender also are present within the sample. For while girls in this sample lead, they also do so without the context for meaningful work that some males have and without female role models. They enjoy equality with male protagonists in terms of peer support, and they are equally affected by lack of a parent as males. Furthermore, while societal trends have encouraged equal treatment of genders since the 1970s, it seems that the literature represented by this sample has reflected those on the surface (almost equal number of male and female protagonists), but has yet to find full societal redemption in these underlying themes. Because literature has the power to influence—for good and for ill (Anyon, 1980; Kaya-Carton, 1986; Hemmings, 1999)—these underlying aspects of the sample are disquieting. It seems that Giroux and Penna’s (1979) distinction between the explicit and implicit curricula applies to the results of this study: While explicitly there is gender equity (in number of females vs. males in protagonist roles), implicitly gender inequities remain (in meaningful work and same-gender role models).
Unfortunately as well, the sample seems to promote a stereotypical view of ethnicity and leadership. Though not a subject of this study, it is obvious that few minorities are portrayed, thus possibly leaving the impression that leadership is a majority-based enterprise. If a reader discovers meaning (Brooks & Goble, 1997) from either these fortunate or unfortunate findings, s/he corroborates Schwartz’ (1979) contention that literature shapes thought.

Findings in the Context of Transformational Leadership

The findings in the study indicate that moral, personality, ambiguity, and subjective perspectives were in the top rankings of the sample. This is a very hopeful finding because two of the four (moral and subjective) are transformational in nature (Burns, 1978), while the personality can be (Gardner, 1995), depending on the character traits of the protagonist involved. This is hopeful in the context of schooling and adolescents: Middle school is a time of transition—hence its name. During this time, old patterns have a chance to emerge as new norms (Brooks & Gable, 1997). Often, old patterns of compliance, respect, and obedience are replaced with new norms of defiance, belligerence, and selfishness. While some of this transition is part of normal development, too often new patterns of behavior are founded on media images which glorify defiance of authority, reward lack of respect, and promote self interest.

However, adolescents who are exposed to the images and themes presented in the books in the sample have counter-images to combat the negative stereotypes common in movies, television, and video media. For in this sample there are kids with problems who decide that the status quo is not good enough; they transform situations through
leadership, thus helping to form a better life for themselves and, often, for others around them.

Many youth may find such an ideal unattainable in the abstract. By fleshing out situations through excellent narratives, these authors allow adolescent readers (Lukens, 1986) a chance to see transformative leadership in action. Because reading involves personal connection (Lukens, 1986; Moshman, 1999), literature such as that chosen for this study may transform lives; such transformations may then promote positive change in classrooms, schools, and communities. Change-agents are needed in all areas of life to help promote personal and social growth and to bring about a more just society; particularly appropriate to the current study is a look at how the sample either transmits or transforms culture through gender messages. As discussed earlier, on the surface, gender equity seems the norm in the sample. However, differences in the way genders are portrayed with regard to work and role modeling seems to transmit bias toward males.

Harnessing the power of the hidden curriculum (Apple, 1979; Giroux & Penna, 1979) informing this sample could be a step toward a more transformative approach to teaching and learning. Specific ways in which the sample perpetuates cultural stereotypes were discussed earlier; three ways to combat the transmission of cultural weaknesses and to promote cultural transformation will be discussed. First, all students in middle school (Fertman & VanLinden, 1999) could be encouraged to develop leadership capability through the discovery of the leadership roles played by the protagonists in these Newbery books. Second, teachers could become aware of any gender biases in the sample and could craft lessons to counteract that influence. This study reveals the hidden curriculum of these books; making the implicit explicit is a step
in building awareness that leads to action (Goodlad, 1984). Last, the diversity of characters and situations in the books make them suitable forum for interdisciplinary study, a means which supports the way adolescents process and apply new content (Smagorinsky, 2000). Affirming and supporting appropriate methods for the stage of development known as adolescence, through attention to the way content is delivered and received, planned and used, is transformative education in action.

While the seventies were a time of new opportunities for women, it seems the females in this sample have benefited only partially from these opportunities. Substantive social transformation is not yet fully realized in this sample of Newbery books. The females in the sample do not benefit (Houston, 1991; Zirkel, 2002) from female role models. This is an unfortunate finding because same-gender role models have the ability to empower the one who chooses to emulate them (O'Keefe, 2002; Zirkel, 2002). Males find no lack of same-gender role models (both in the protagonists and in those that the male protagonists choose to model). Awareness of this deficit could lead future authors to transform the culture of which they are a part.

Though weaknesses within the sample exist (such as lack of ethnic diversity and lack of gender-balance in meaningful work experiences and role models), strengths also do. Adolescents who read the books in the sample will meet leaders who, though struggles occurred, led others to better, more just life experiences. Many of them relied on role models; they themselves can be role models (Friedman & Cataldo, 2002) to those that read their tales.
Leadership as a Universal Experience

A third way in which the findings can be analyzed is historically. Adolescents will find through this sample that leadership has been practiced by others their age throughout history; the narrative stages on which the tales are set range from the 1100s to the present and include a variety of geographical settings. This is helpful to adolescent readers for two reasons: First, adolescents are complex (Hamilton, 2002); they are egocentric, and they tend to think that the problems they encounter are theirs alone. However, by meeting the protagonists in this sample, adolescents will understand that others struggle with similar leadership challenges (Moshman, 2002).

Second, those who read these books will also notice that societal transformation has occurred over time. The ancient worlds of Tree-ear and Crispin are worlds that were closed to many. Though problems in society still exist, few in America have to forage for food or escape from near slavery. Gender-bias is subtle in the depictions of work and role modeling in the sample; however, the overwhelmingly positive results of transforming one’s own corner of the world, through leading others, is an unmistakable message in this sample. Readers will be encouraged to add their own chapter to the long tale of leadership-for-justice being written by everyday citizens.

Teachers, Librarians, Parents, and Role Models as Leadership Facilitators

It is naïve to think that the insights to be gained through reading the books in the sample will emerge spontaneously from adolescent readers. Rather, learning situations must be constructed so that the implicit leadership themes in the books become clear to adolescents in their personal contexts (Schwartz, 1979). Good ways to accomplish this
worthwhile task are to craft thematic units (Smagorinsky, 2000), to allow for reflection and discussion of the emerging themes, to encourage personal connection to the situations presented in the novels (Brooks & Gobles, 1997), and to help adolescents process the experiences of the individual protagonists (Lukens, 1986; Tambling, 1991) so that a picture of transformational leadership may begin to form in the reader’s own mind and life. Furthermore, adult mentors can help encourage reluctant leaders by helping them discover that many of the exemplary leaders in the sampled books faced confusion and uncertainty—and kept on going until the leadership goals were realized.

Finally, those who read these stories will also learn that adults can be present as role models as well as absent as is the case for those who are orphaned. This balance in the literary sample reflects the balance found in life: adults can be relied on and they can fail in this task. Because literature reflects life (Schwartz, 1979; Hamilton, 2002), this realization could help transform individual adolescent lives that are marked by irresponsible adult influence.

Relationship of Results to Policy and Practice

This study is of academic interest because it uses content analysis to identify and interpret the presence of a variety of leadership perspectives and their sub-categories within a carefully chosen sample of Newbery Award-winning books. Beyond an academic interest, however, the study has value in terms of policy and practice.

Currently, educational policy and, therefore, practice are being influenced by state and national attempts to improve teaching and learning. Unfortunately the cause-and-effect assumptions being made by some have forced decision-makers to ignore other
means of analysis (such as informal and anecdotal) and to rely heavily on scientific methods to gather and interpret data related to what goes on in classrooms. This emphasis has led to the conclusion that subject area knowledge is paramount for educators to be effective in helping students discover meaning. The obvious result of this emphasis is that subject areas, especially at the secondary level, will become more and more segregated into separate classrooms. Apple (1982, p. 82) identifies “the growth of national testing” as one of many “encroachments of procedures for rationalization and management ideologies in schools.”

This is an unfortunate situation. For the brain works best when it is making connections; thematic instruction and interdisciplinary units help students diversify knowledge, connect new learning to what is already known, and engage the imagination in ways that are not possible if an idea is considered from only one subject-area based, cognitive viewpoint (Smagorinsky, 2000). Especially in middle school, when motivation for learning often is lacking, approaches that offer variety and activity need to be fostered (Hamilton, 2002). The current political situation does not seem to affirm this point of view.

This study could effect policy, though most likely on an individual school basis. It is clear that books in this sample of exemplary literature correspond to many subject-area contexts such as history, geography, economics, health, and human relationships (Sanchez, 1999). The very best use of the books in this sample would be to study them thematically in multiple settings, using multiple ways of knowing, and encouraging multiple responses (Smagorinsky, 2000). However, such collaboration among teachers does not seem to fit the current reality described above.
This study could affect practice, though most likely on an individual classroom basis. First, within the context of the language arts classroom, or, if possible, in an interdisciplinary arrangement, choices of books from the study could be made by teachers and students in an attempt to build an understanding of adolescent leadership. Not all the books in the sample will be useful for this task; some of the older books may not engage students' imaginations.

To aid teachers and students in making selections, an Appendix of summaries of each book in the sample is included (Appendix D). The focus of the research project was on the protagonist; the focus in Appendix D is on the books as whole units. The purpose of this method is to highlight the “wholeness” of each piece of literature. This tearing down (coding) and rebuilding (ranking) mimics the iterative process readers use to construct meaning from text (Vacca & Vacca, 1989). Each book was assigned a 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 (high to low) in terms of five categories: (1) Strong, clear leadership perspectives(s) presented in protagonist’s activities, attitudes, and behaviors; (2) Believable leadership tasks within probable plot; (3) Balanced protagonist who exhibits normal range of human emotions; (4) Engaging story; (5) Other leaders who also inhabit the story. This ranked list can be useful to teachers and students as selections within the theme of “adolescent leadership” are made.

A second way this study affects practice is by affirming the value literature study has as themes and ideas are discovered in an implicit way. Leadership ideals do not have to be taught; they can be caught (Moshman, 1999). Using the theme “adolescent leadership” as an umbrella for a study which involves close reading of a variety of the texts analyzed in this study, along with opportunity to discuss the variety of leadership
behaviors identified, could be a powerful shaping tool as students create their own vision of what leadership should be (Hogben & Waterman, 1997).

Teachers have a responsibility to provide the very best means for this personal meaning-making to occur. The information included in this study will help educators as they make decisions which have the power to transform culture and create a more just society. In the case of gender balance, this transformation will be fueled by a realization that while the sample appears balanced on the surface, gender bias in the portrayals in the books also exists. This is an example of harnessing the hidden curriculum for transformative purposes, one of the most important tasks in which a teacher can engage.

**Strength of Study: Coding Accomplishments**

Assigning codes to sections of text does have value. For one, it ensures a close reading of the text. Reading of any text is conducted for specific purposes—information gathering, pleasure, edification, etc. (Vacca & Vacca, 1989). Texts usually contain more than one level of complexity—words, sentences, format, headings, even type style—all are elements that contribute to the whole. Furthermore, reading is a process that requires concentration; a purpose for reading helps focus attention (Vacca & Vacca, 1989). So reading to identify leadership perspectives helps drown out competition from character development, plot elements, and descriptions of setting, to name a few.

This, however, isn't the only reason. Leadership patterns can be identified in the narrative texts under examination. By assigning codes while reading—in an active, informed way—the researcher begins to reveal these patterns (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). The lens of coding is used to magnify the leadership aspect of the multi-dimensional text.
Comparisons among stories can be made more confidently when the measure used has been standardized using the coding system.

Weaknesses of Study: Introduction

Three areas of weakness were identified. These include coding limitations, sample size, and three methodological weaknesses.

Weakness of Study: Coding Limitations

Just as it would not be fair to judge a person’s approach to life from isolated incidents, so also it seems incomplete and misleading to evaluate a character’s approach to leadership by singling out words, remarks, or actions initiated by each protagonist in the seventeen stories that comprise the sample of this study. An analogy may help the reader understand: When an orchestra plays a piece of music, the listeners are interested in the tone, mood, and emotion the music evokes. Each instrument contributes to this whole. While one instrument may dominate, the others contribute to the overall experience by enhancing, echoing, or reflecting the major themes played. Not only is this true among types of instruments, but even within a section of woods or brass or strings, a variety of roles contributes to the whole. Yet, still, the music is much bigger than the sound produced by individual instruments.

Also, a character’s approach to leadership is not the sum of all leadership incidents combined. In fact, specific incidents which are clearly identifiable as an expression of one leadership perspective may, in fact, be serving an entirely different perspective. For example, the jealous Louise in the book Jacob Have I Loved
demonstrates moral means serving political ends; Louise' norms for behavior are based on Biblical principles. However, her piety serves a larger purpose: she is not getting her fair share of attention (due to her twin's many gifts and talents), and her moralizing is a manipulative move for power. Narrative texts often have layers of meaning (Curtin, 1995), so this situation is not unique to this sample.

Furthermore, interpretation is necessary not only after codes are assigned; context must be considered as codes are affixed to sections of text (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). As an example, the word “hesitant” seems to be readily identifiable as an indicator of the ambiguity perspective. Hesitancy seems to point to uncertainty. However, what if prior to using the descriptor “hesitant,” the author noted a number of danger signals that the protagonist prudently observed, understood, and acted upon by avoiding action? Perhaps that resultant hesitancy indicates personal traits of caution, cognition, and carefulness, all indicators of a leader within the personality perspective. On the other hand, perhaps the protagonist realizes that a guiding principle will be violated by her intended actions, so she hesitates. This hesitant leader would, then, be operating within the moral perspective. Context affects coding.

Weakness of Study: Sampling

The size of the sample may have weakened the generalizability of the study.

Weakness of Study: Methods

Three problems affected the coding process. First, codes 7.4 and 8.5 both indicate the “other” sub-category for characteristics within the moral and cultural/symbolic
perspectives and both were represented in the top ranks, the former twice and the latter four times. Additional descriptors for these perspectives (moral and cultural/symbolic) probably were necessary; however, because no patterns within the “other” sub-category in these perspectives were evident, no additional descriptors were added (in contrast to the addition of new sub-categories in the personality and ambiguity perspectives).

Second, the codes were assigned by only one researcher, so bias is a concern. Validity and reliability of results would have been enhanced by triangulating results of reading and coding the books in the sample among two additional researchers. Also, comparing results of adult researchers with adolescent coders may have revealed differences and similarities in interpretation.

Finally, the order the books were read may have affected results, given that new knowledge always informs future understandings. To attempt to minimize the effect on coding, the books were read and coded in alphabetical order by author’s last name, thus spreading the effect of new knowledge throughout the historical spectrum represented by the sample.

Future Directions

This study has value for future studies. First, the results could be compared with a similar historical sample of exemplary adult realistic fiction to detect similar and different emphases and patterns, especially in terms of the gender-based findings of the study.
Second, the acceptance speeches given by the authors of the books in the sample could be analyzed for intended leadership messages. Comparisons between intentions and perceived realities could be described and interpreted.

Third, Newbery Honor Books for the years of the sampled books could be coded as the sample was. Doing so would allow comparisons to be made among books which were deemed exemplary and those that received a lesser honor each year. Control over type of Newbery Honor Book studied would be essential so that the original parameters of the sample are not violated.

Fourth, analyzing how narrative point of view (Kinman & Henderson, 1985) affects leadership perspectives in stories could be useful in interpreting the prevalence of the subjective perspective in the sample and other trends within the sample.

Finally, developing and applying codes to test the adolescent leadership perspective defined above could result in greater understanding of a leadership perspective unique to adolescents.
Appendix A

Reasons for Retaining or Eliminating Titles from Sample
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Annotations</th>
<th>Retained/Eliminated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td><em>The Story of Mankind</em></td>
<td>NR, I</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td><em>The Voyages of Doctor Doolittle</em></td>
<td>NJ, F/M, O</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td><em>The Dark Frigate</em></td>
<td>NR, O</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td><em>Tales from Silver Lands</em></td>
<td>NR, A</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td><em>Shen of the Sea</em></td>
<td>NR, A</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td><em>Smoky the Cow Horse</em></td>
<td>NR, NH</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td><em>Gay Neck: The Story of a Pigeon</em></td>
<td>LJ, NH</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td><em>The Trumpeter of Krakow</em></td>
<td>LJ, HF, H, 15</td>
<td>R</td>
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<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td><em>Hitty, Her First Hundred Years</em></td>
<td>NR, NH</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td><em>The Cat Who Went to Heaven</em></td>
<td>NIJ</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td><em>Waterless Mountain</em></td>
<td>NIJ</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td><em>Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze</em></td>
<td>LJ, F, H, 13</td>
<td>R</td>
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<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td><em>Invincible Louisa</em></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>E</td>
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<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td><em>Dobry</em></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1936</td>
<td><em>Caddie Woodlawn</em></td>
<td>NIJ, H, Y</td>
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<td><em>Roller Skates</em></td>
<td>NIJ, F, H, Y</td>
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<td>1938</td>
<td><em>The White Stag</em></td>
<td>LJ, F/M</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1939</td>
<td><em>Thimble Summer</em></td>
<td>NIJ</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1940</td>
<td><em>Daniel Boone</em></td>
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<td>1941</td>
<td><em>Call It Courage</em></td>
<td>LJ, S</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>E</td>
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<td>1944</td>
<td><em>Johnny Tremain</em></td>
<td>LJ, HF, H, 14</td>
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<td>1945</td>
<td><em>Rabbit Hill</em></td>
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<td>1946</td>
<td><em>Strawberry Girl</em></td>
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<td>1948</td>
<td><em>The Twenty-One Balloons</em></td>
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<td>E</td>
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<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td><em>King of the Wind</em></td>
<td>LJ, NN</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td><em>The Door in the Wall</em></td>
<td>NIJ</td>
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<tr>
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<td><em>Amos Fortune, Free Man</em></td>
<td>LJ, B</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1952</td>
<td><em>Ginger Pye</em></td>
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<td>E</td>
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<td><em>Secret of the Andes</em></td>
<td>LJ, NN</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1954</td>
<td><em>And Now Miguel</em></td>
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<td>1956</td>
<td><em>Carry on, Mr. Bowditch</em></td>
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<td>E</td>
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<td>1957</td>
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<td>NIJ</td>
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<td><em>Rifles for Watie</em></td>
<td>LJ, HF, O</td>
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<td>1959</td>
<td><em>The Witch of Blackbird Pond</em></td>
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<td>1960</td>
<td><em>Onion John</em></td>
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<td>1961</td>
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<td><em>The Bronze Bow</em></td>
<td>LJ, HF, O</td>
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<td>1963</td>
<td><em>A Wrinkle in Time</em></td>
<td>LJ, F/M</td>
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<th>Annotations</th>
<th>Retained/Eliminated</th>
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<td>It's Like This, Cat</td>
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<td>LI, HF, H, Y</td>
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<td>LI, F, O</td>
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Key: Annotations below indicate reasons books were retained for (R) or eliminated from (E) the sample. Bold annotations indicate reasons to eliminate title from sample. If a disqualifying attribute is noted, then not all categories may be represented in each entry.

**APPROPRIATENESS FOR SEVENTH-EIGHTH GRADERS**

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**GENRE OR TYPE OF BOOK**

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**SPECIES OF PROTAGONIST**

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**AGE OF PROTAGONIST**

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Appendix B

Codes Used for Sub-categories of Perspectives
Codes Used for Sub-categories of Perspectives

1. The personality perspective
   1.1 The protagonist has physical traits that indicate leadership.
   1.2 The protagonist has cognitive abilities that indicate leadership.
   1.3 The protagonist has affective abilities that indicate leadership.
   1.4 The protagonist has supernatural traits that indicate leadership.
   1.5 The protagonist has other traits consistent with the personality perspective.
   1.6 The protagonist has creative/artistic abilities that indicate leadership.

2. The formal perspective
   2.1 The protagonist creates structures that promote leadership.
   2.2 The protagonist demonstrates and/or values efficiency.
   2.3 The protagonist demonstrates management skills.
   2.4 The protagonist values productivity.
   2.5 The protagonist values action.
   2.6 The protagonist emphasizes other structures consistent with the formal perspective.

3. The democratic perspective
   3.1 The protagonist demonstrates expertise.
   3.2 The protagonist attempts to build consensus.
   3.3 The protagonist shares responsibility with others.
   3.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the democratic perspective.

4. The political perspective
   4.1 The protagonist manipulates others to retain power.
   4.2 The protagonist negotiates to maintain control.
   4.3 The protagonist uses compromise to retain power.
   4.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the political perspective.

5. The subjective perspective
   5.1 The protagonist expresses interpretations of situations.
   5.2 The protagonist acknowledges changing realities.
   5.3 The protagonist demonstrates personal qualities resulting in power.
   5.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the subjective perspective.

6. The ambiguity perspective
   6.1 The protagonist expresses uncertainty about the leadership situation.
   6.2 The protagonist experiences unpredictability and ambiguity.
   6.3 The protagonist experiences chaos and disorder.
   6.4 The protagonist demonstrates other reactions consistent with the ambiguity perspective.

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6.5 The protagonist expresses that luck or chance determined situation.

7. The moral perspective
   7.1 The protagonist values followers' personal growth.
   7.2 The protagonist relies on a guiding principle to make decisions.
   7.3 The protagonist puts own interests behind those of the follower.
   7.4 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the moral perspective.

8. The cultural/symbolic perspective
   8.1 The protagonist refers to group codes or symbols.
   8.2 The protagonist creates group codes or symbols.
   8.3 The protagonist acknowledges importance of rituals.
   8.4 The protagonist participates in ceremonies.
   8.5 The protagonist demonstrates other actions consistent with the cultural/symbolic perspective.
Appendix C

List of Books in Sample and Corresponding Book Numbers
List of Books in Sample and Corresponding Book Numbers

Book 1: (1929) *Trumpeter of Krakow* by Eric Kelly
Book 2: (1933) *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* by Elizabeth Lewis
Book 3: (1944) *Johnny Tremain* by Esther Forbes
Book 4: (1960) *Onion John* by Joseph Krumgold
Book 5: (1964) *It's Like This Cat* by Emily Neville
Book 6: (1967) *Up a Road Slowly* by Irene Hunt
Book 7: (1974) *The Slave Dancer* by Paula Fox
Book 8: (1975) *M.C. Higgins, the Great* by Virginia Hamilton
Book 9: (1980) *A Gathering of Days* by Joan Blos
Book 10: (1981) *Jacob Have I Loved* by Katherine Paterson
Book 11: (1983) *Dicey's Song* by Cynthia Voigt
Book 15: (2001) *A Year Down Yonder* by Richard Peck
Appendix D

Whole-book Rankings and Summaries
WHOLE-BOOK RANKINGS AND SUMMARIES

Introduction

A familiarity with each protagonist in each book is essential for the findings to be understandable. What follows is a summary of each book, written to focus on the leadership activities, attitudes, and behaviors in each book as a whole. Instead of introducing the protagonists and their stories in historic order, they will be introduced in order of strength of leadership perspectives portrayed in the books under consideration. The focus in the rest of the study was on the protagonist; the focus in Appendix D is on the books as whole units. The purpose of this method is to highlight the “wholeness” of each piece of literature. This tearing down (coding) and rebuilding (ranking) mimics the iterative process readers use to construct meaning from text.

The order presented below was arrived at by assigning each book a 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 (high to low) in terms of five categories: (A) Strong, clear leadership perspectives(s) presented in protagonist’s activities, attitudes, and behaviors; (B) Believable leadership tasks within probable plot; (C) Balanced protagonist who exhibits normal range of human emotions; (D) Engaging story; (E) Other leaders who also inhabit the story. Ranking results are presented in Table A; bold type indicates book with female protagonist.

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Appendix Table A: Whole-book rankings in five categories.
This whole-book ranking produced the following results ranked from strongest to weakest leadership perspective. Ties within each place are presented chronologically:

2nd place: *Johnny Tremain* (1944)
4th place: *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (1933); *The Midwife's Apprentice* (1996); *A Year Down Yonder* (2001)
5th place: *Onion John* (1960); *Jacob Have I Loved* (1981)
6th place: *The Trumpeter of Krakow* (1929); *M.C. Higgins, the Great* (1975)
7th place: *Up a Road Slowly* (1967); *Missing May* (1993)
9th place: *It's Like This, Cat* (1964)

**SUMMARIES OF BOOKS**

First place (1 of 3): *The Slave Dancer* by Paula Fox

Ironically, the book that received one of the highest whole-book rankings has one of the most reluctant leaders in the sample. Thirteen-year-old Jessie Bollier is kidnapped from the streets of New Orleans in the mid-nineteenth century. Told he is going on a “fine sea voyage” (p. 11), he quickly discovers that that is a gross misrepresentation of the truth. In fact, Jessie’s talent for playing the fife has landed him on the ship; his dreadful leadership role is to play tunes to make the slaves—that soon will inhabit the filthy holds—dance, so that they arrive at port in marketable condition. His confusion is understandable, and expressed often in this first-person, historical fiction account.

Jessie fulfills his role, sometimes belligerently, but mostly uncertainly. He feels his “life [has] turned upside down” (p. 51), and he spends much of the rest of his journey expressing his confusion in contrasting couplets: he hates the crew’s cruelty but admires their fearlessness (p.40); he dislikes one man’s slowness but thinks his sudden burst of energy repulsive (p.71); he remembers the delight he felt when he spied on a young woman undressing but is mortified as he is now allowed to look at the naked bodies of the slaves (p. 75). Jessie tries to make sense of the contradictions in his new-found life, but his interpretations of his role in the sorry affair leave him unsatisfied. Even though he pities the slaves, he grows to hate them for being the reason he is on the boat in the first place (p. 79).

As master of the slaves’ exercise program, Jessie performs his duties with dread, so much dread that his music suffers (p. 101). In fact, he exhibits few personality traits that would make him fit for the task he has been pressed into. He does sort out the personalities of the crew, and he avoids those who will bring him harm. The rich cast of characters he learns to interpret include the dangerous Captain Cawthorne, kind Purvis,
dishonest Stout, and unfortunate Spark, a Mate who was bound and thrown overboard after killing a murderous slave—thus reducing the profit the Captain will reap. The crew members’ wives’ leadership roles are proscribed and rigid, and Jessie often cannot see the logic in the actions of others on board.

As if this human drama were not enough to keep the reader interested, Fox increases the tension in the final chapters of the book. When it becomes clear to the captain that an American ship has discovered their dirty trade, he orders all the shackles thrown overboard. Before the splash of the iron restraints hits the deck, the slaves are hurled overboard too. From this point forward, The Slave Dancer belongs to Jessie Bollier. Whether the leadership tasks he has been forced to perform or his own resources guide him, he takes charge and helps Ras, a slave boy his own age, escape the chaos on the deck. As the weather and the behavior of the crew becomes rougher and rougher, Jessie and Ras hide below deck, sharing a bit of food and “strange conversation” (p. 127), given that neither speaks the language of the other. The bond serves them well; they manage to survive the storm that crushes the ship (the only ones on board who do survive). Jessie’s heroic actions lead them to land and to safety. Daniel, the man who finds and cares for them, leads Jessie to his home and Ras to freedom in the north.

First place (2 of 3): Dicey’s Song by Cynthia Voigt

Getting kids ready for school, holding a job, planning for the family’s future, restoring a boat, and helping a child with a learning disability are uncommon tasks for most 13-year-olds. Dicey Tillerman, though, is a rather uncommon person. Her position as the oldest of 4 gives her the status she needs to ensure cooperation from the younger kids, and the unfortunate situation of being parentless (due to her father’s absence and her mother’s mental illness) creates a void that Dicey is ready and willing to fill. She is as confident in her leadership role as Jessie of The Slave Dancer is hesitant in his. This contemporary story opens at Gram’s house in Maryland, the destination that Dicey and her siblings hoped to reach from Boston before summer ended.

Grateful to Gram for taking them in, Dicey decides that having a job would ease the burden, so she negotiates hours and duties for herself with a local shopkeeper. She recognizes the same reading disability her young sister has in Millie, her employer, and Dicey broadens her influence at the store by helping her fill out merchandise order forms. Likewise, at home, Dicey’s self-imposed responsibilities increase: sister Maybeth’s inability to read is making her lag behind the other third graders. Dicey consults and cooperates with others to solve this problem creatively and successfully. So, with 30 pages down and over 300 to go, how is Dicey going to keep up this leadership pace? Fortunately, Gram rescues her: “You’re not the only one responsible, girl. You’ve been responsible a long time and done a good job. Take a rest now.” (p. 37).

Dicey takes the advice, though the book hardly becomes Gram’s Song. Dicey spends more time restoring her beloved boat, but even this activity becomes an opportunity to help brother Sammy figure himself out. James, her oldest brother, becomes her idea man; she realizes he has the brains while he has the management skills.
needed to carry out the plans he concocts. She tries to follow Gram’s guiding principle—“Hold on to people. They can get away from you” (p. 126)—advice which Dicey thinks may reveal her grandmother’s own regrets.

Though Dicey handles adult responsibilities better than many adults, she doesn’t fare as well in age-appropriate situations. She snubs and avoids two peers who show interest in her, she refuses to achieve in classes that don’t hold her interest, and she is falsely accused of plagiarism when she writes an essay about her ailing mother. Mina, a classmate who shares Dicey’s intellectual capabilities, declares, “You are a hard person to be friends with, Dicey Tillerman” (p. 84). But friends they become, and Dicey continues to learn that being part of a group can help one tackle life’s problems. Gram’s adoption of the 4 siblings is concrete evidence of the truth of that statement.

At the end of the story, life’s problems come to Dicey’s world via the postal service. Gram receives a letter from Boston, and she makes hasty plans to travel there with Dicey. Dicey follows, literally most of the time, as Gram leads her to her dying mother’s hospital room. As Dicey takes a break from the emotional scene to buy Christmas gifts for the others, she experiences the kindness of strangers.

Galvanizing Gram’s guiding principle—reach out and hold on to those you love—both Gram and Dicey discover who the dying woman was to them personally. Dicey leads the way home by calling and telling her siblings the news and by carrying her mother’s ashes in a hand carved wooden box that a sympathetic stranger gave to her. Though Dicey is again completing adult tasks, she does so with less pride and more good will to others who reach out to her, realizing the “confusion [called life] was going to be a permanent condition” (p. 359).

First place (3 of 3): A Single Shard by Linda Sue Park

Both of the other first place finishers in this whole-book leadership ranking lived and led in adult worlds. Likewise, Tree-ear, a Korean orphan from the 1100’s, wakes each day to forage for food for himself and his elderly companion Crane-man. For many in his situation, that would be the end of the story. But 12-year-old Tree-ear’s curiosity, courage, and creativity transform him from lackey to hero, and much more.

Tree-ear’s historical fiction adventure begins as he patiently, daily, fetches clay and wood to be used by the potter Min as he creates his celadon-tinted pottery, renowned in all of Korea. He has a debt to pay to Min, a master potter, and it was Tree-ear himself who suggested he toil for the man whose work he had carelessly broken. However, when the obligation is paid, Min keeps Tree-ear on as a willing servant, a very fortunate choice for both master and boy.

Tree-ear picks up the trade quickly, and daily he hopes for the chance to make a pot on the wheel. Min’s wife shows kindness to him, even providing food and clothing which he shares with Crane-man. His own personality serves him well in his new life:
he is courteous, curious, and contemplative. His humility (fostered by cultural norms) leads him to credit good fortune with much of his happiness.

But it is curiosity and a respect for doing the right thing that turns the tale into a great adventure. Tree-ear notices that a rival potter, Kang, is trying out a new technique, one that will be sure to catch the Emperor’s eye and earn him the highest honors. Knowing that taking ideas that do not belong to him is stealing, Tree-ear waits to tell Min of the pottery method. When Kang’s work is put on public display, Tree-ear knows that the idea belongs to everyone, and he shares the secret of the inlaid design with Min. Min, being a greater craftsman than Kang, produces 2 beautiful vases to be presented to the Emperor, in hopes of gaining a lifetime commission. Tree-ear volunteers to deliver them to the capital Songdo, a journey which will take many weeks. He is pleased when Min accepts his offer, but is heartbroken when Min also tells him that he will never teach him to make pottery; that honor can only be bestowed on a son, and Min’s son died long ago.

He leaves Crane-man in the care of Min’s wife (being careful to guard his elderly friend’s pride by telling him that she needs his help with household tasks), and he begins the journey which each day “is only as far as the next village” (p. 93). Nearing his destination, Tree-ear is robbed and his precious cargo is thrown over a cliff. Recovering a single shard which shows the handsome inlaid handiwork of his master, he continues on, gains the royal commission, and returns home. His happiness turns when he finds out Crane-man has died, but returns when Min helps him construct a pottery wheel and Min’s wife addresses him as a son.

Second place (1 of 1): *Johnny Tremain* by Esther Forbes

Another historical fiction character joins his male counterparts Tree-ear and Jessie in the Newbery exemplary-leadership lineup. His emotional life isn’t as balanced as Tree-ear’s, and, unlike Jessie’s tale, the length of the story makes it lose its steam by the time it reaches its destination. Like Dicey, he is a leader from the first page in the story, a story which includes fictionalized details about many leaders in early American history. He is a poster boy for the personality perspective. He’s “boss of the attic [workshop], and almost of the house” (p. 2), and, though his personality softens a bit, he finds ways to be in charge throughout the story that ages him from 11 to 16.

Johnny, like Tree-ear, is a craftsman’s apprentice. He is talented at silver smithing, and he is arrogant about his skill. He orders, argues with, and belittles the boys who work alongside him, and his “semi-sacred” ability (p. 4) and ability to read and write make him a rival, not a companion. He even disputes his master when he thinks it is necessary, and, fortuitously, obtains work from John Hancock after doing so. To top this hubreric personality off, he also has three names, unheard of among poor folk, and this link to a wealthier past proves to be both a stumbling block and a step up in the future. Johnny is setting himself up for a fall—which comes in the form of an “accident” which burns his hand and renders it useless for silver work. His detailed future plans disappear, and his new life in pre-revolutionary America begins.
Lucky for him, Rab, another orphan a few years older than he, gives him a delivery job for the *The Observer*, a newspaper. As a role model, Rab shows him how to dress to impress, how to temper his volatile personality, and, most importantly, how to be a member of the Sons of Liberty revolutionaries. When he is falsely accused of stealing a silver cup which his mother gave him (the inscription “Lyte” links him to a wealthy merchant), Rab and Johnny’s friend Cilla help in obtaining his release and in earning the anger of the wealthy man.

His life as a secret patriot begins well: he tames a spirited horse—“an almost impossible thing” (p. 93), learns about politics and current events, masters the use of his left hand, reads prolifically, and continues, through Rab’s prodding, to modify his character. His quest for revenge on Dove, the boy who orchestrated the maiming accident, fades as his interest in regaining his lost silver cup rises. The old, unsettled Johnny still surfaces.

However, he has earned the “implicit trust” (p. 117) of Samuel Adams, and Johnny is one of the many Sons of Liberty leading the Boston Tea Party. He is entrusted with delivering codes, blowing the whistle for action, and remembering a secret countersign, which he repeats to Paul Revere. Through Rab’s help, he earns a job delivering messages for a British doctor. By doing so, he discovers the plans of the British and helps the patriot’s cause. His crippled hand keeps him from learning to shoot, but his intellect keeps him at the center of the revolutionary drama. He predicts war will come as he interprets the events around him. When given the opportunity to take back the cup that is rightfully his, he refuses to have anything to do with the wealthy British: “This is the end. The end of one thing—the beginning of something else. ...[T]he cards are going to be reshuffled. Dealt again...” (p. 165).

The “something else” that is soon to begin frightens Johnny, for he is not prone to violence. Sam Adams asks Johnny to call the rebels together, and at the ensuing meeting Johnny realizes that the local fight is a battle against tyranny everywhere. His leadership in it takes on heroic status, and his work as a spy results in early victories. He befriends a British stable boy and negotiates a trade: a disguise for the boy so he can escape in exchange for his musket. But the young deserter is caught and shot, and Johnny wonders if he himself has as much courage as his role model Rab. His dreams evoke his wakeful leadership fears.

When Rab goes off to war with the musket Johnny acquired for him, Johnny’s world turns upside down: “He half wished he might cry and was half-glad he was too old for tears.” (p. 209). His continued spying helps alert the patriots; his continued quest for real action is denied. He has a role to play, and he saves many lives by doing it well. In a strange twist, he becomes the heir to the Lyte fortune: His mother was a Lyte, and, in an even stranger twist, his wealthy relative symbolically bestows the family fortune on him as she touches his widow’s peak—“all that he had ever got from the beautiful Vinny Lyte [his mother]” (p. 235).

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In disguise, Johnny surveys the war landscape. He discovers that Rab has been shot, and he comforts his friend before he dies. He is numb from all the bloodshed and confusion, but, as the doctor remedies his crippled hand by cutting the scar, Johnny also is freed from his crippling experiences, now able to see the larger significance—human freedom—of the current events in the American colonies.

**Third place (1 of 2): Out of the Dust by Karen Hesse**

Billie Jo is a protagonist who likes to think things through. She muses and interprets her way through the hardships of life. Her personality and introspective nature are reflected in this first-person historical-narrative poem. Rather than producing the tedious rambling of a 14-year-old, however, the author skillfully personalizes a very difficult time in a family’s life and in America of the 1930s.

Billie Jo tells us at the very beginning of the story that her daddy wanted a boy; thus, her feminized male name. Later in the story, Billie reveals that Ma is pregnant again, so the future is full of hope, even though dust, wind, and drought threaten their Oklahoma farm. Billie Jo has quite a life to live. She is an accomplished pianist, and she negotiates with her mom to let her accept an invitation to play weekly at the Palace, a local club. Her dreams to earn money to help the family and to play someday for President Roosevelt seem to be on track. Smart, talented, and honest, she rises above the chaos of dust and debt, joking about the family’s peppered potatoes and chocolate milk (p. 21):

> when really all our pepper and chocolate, 
it's nothing but dust.

She also is surly, loves companionship, tries to figure out her mom, and wants to move away. In other words, she is a character most adolescent readers could understand.

It’s that identification with the protagonist that makes what follows so compelling. Ma, preparing coffee, mistakes a pail of kerosene for water, and pours “a rope of fire” (p. 60) from pail to stove. As Ma runs outside for help from Daddy, Billie Jo wisely grabs the burning pail and flings it out of the door. But Ma was on her way back in, and she turns in to a “column of fire” (p. 61). More painful than the burned hands (cf. Johnny Tremain) that keep her from her piano are the nightmares Billie Jo has as she watches her Ma and baby brother die (p. 64):

Daddy called to me. He asked me to bring water,  
Ma was thirsty.  
I brought up a pail of fire and Ma drank it. She had  
given birth to a baby of flames. The baby  
burned at her side.

Billie takes on a familial leadership role at the funeral. When her father does not respond when asked the baby’s name, Billie Jo names him “Franklin,” after her beloved President
Roosevelt. Faulting her father for putting the kerosene by the stove in the first place, Billie Jo grows uncertain, afraid, and a co-leader in a household where she is quietly resented.

She continues to interpret life through analogies, and the encouragement of others makes her try playing the piano again. In little ways, hope seems to be returning: she longs to see a bigger world, she continues to do well in school, and she’s inspired by the creativity of others. She tries to fill the void left by her mother, but Daddy is preoccupied and distant, believable reactions given that (p. 102)

Dust
piles up like snow
across the prairie,
dunes leaning against fences,
mountains of dust pushing over barns.

The whole community is in the same boat, and others are even less seaworthy than Billie Jo’s (Out of the Dust) family. She takes the challenge, sharing and serving others who also are drowning in dust. She emulates Ma’s previous action by donating her brother’s feed-sack nightgown to a newly born baby. This generosity is a temporary catharsis; Billie’s piano playing earns third place at the Palace talent contest.

Billie Jo knows that she is no substitute for the wife that Daddy now seems to be looking for. As another bout of dust descends, Billie Jo seems even more in need of escape. She leads a car and lost driver through a storm, thinks of the cattle dying of muddy lungs, eats food laced with grit, and sees hopelessness in her father’s eyes. Life has to be better somewhere else.

So she leaves. Getting on a train in the middle of the night, she heads west, out of the dust. Her boxcar escape transforms her; a man who left his family also rides the rails away, and she realizes that her place is with her father (p. 206):

As we walk together,
side by side,
in the swell of dust,
I am forgiving him, step by step,
for the pail of kerosene.
As we walk together,
side by side,
in the sole-deep dust,
I am forgiving myself
for all the rest.

She leads her dad to physical and emotional healing by convincing him to seek treatment for the dust cancer on his face and by accepting his new wife. Billie Jo leads herself home.

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Third place (2 of 2): Crispin: Cross of Lead by Avi

The second third-place whole-book leadership contender is 13-year-old Crispin, an orphan living in medieval England. Unlike the orphans before him, Dicey, Tree-ear, and Johnny, he has even bigger problems than finding food and work. Like Johnny, he has a secret past, is falsely accused of theft, and learns the meaning of the word “freedom;” unlike Johnny, he lives in a more dangerous time where courts of law are hanging ropes. His life is endangered early on in this first-person historical fiction tale; the reason why is not resolved until the end.

Crispin is a product of his world; as a serf he feels both fortunate—he does have food, and unfortunate—he is not free to choose a life for himself. He expects God to produce both prizes and punishments, and he is sure he deserves the latter most often. He is shunned, even as his mother lives; he is hunted when he becomes an orphan. Known only as Asta’s son, he doesn’t know he has his own name—Crispin—until his friend Father Quinel tells him. All of this ambiguity adds up to mass confusion: For reasons unknown to him, Crispin has been declared a “wolf’s head” by the manor’s steward; he can be killed without fear of retribution, a most disgraceful situation to be sure. The kind priest gives him his mother’s lead cross, into which she scratched an inscription. He was not aware that she could read and write, and he certainly cannot, so he looks forward to the priest’s promised explanation.

Which never comes. The priest is murdered, and Crispin is pursued, finding himself leaving the only life he knows. He relies on Christ, crosses, saints, and signs for protection, protection which ironically comes in the form of a mere man named “Bear.” Crispin swears a sacred oath to this unpredictable man, and his life as a juggling musician’s apprentice begins. Bear recognizes Crispin’s talent and wit, but chides him for his religious beliefs: “As God is near—and surely He always is—He needs no special words or objects to approach Him” (p. 99). As if Bear’s view of the next world were not shocking enough, he tells Crispin that he is his own master. Crispin’s worldview is rocked: “Surely God Himself put us all in our places: Lords to rule and fight. Clergy to pray. All the rest—like me—were on earth to labor, to serve our masters and our God” (p. 101). Meek Crispin hardly sounds like an exemplary leader, but this story is full of surprises.

Under Bear’s guidance, Crispin learns his trade. He is shocked when Bear upsets the global order by giving him the coin he earned entertaining others. He remains undetected, though rumors about the “wolf’s head” circulate through the towns and villages they visit. Bear continues to help him interpret experiences, transforming him from servant to master, and teaching him to think for himself—essentials for the leadership task he will perform later.

His first experience of consciously choosing to be his own master turns disastrous. He leaves the lodging he and Bear share, even after being warned not to. He is recognized and pursued. His skill and plan help him escape, but it takes Bear to make...
a full rescue. He begs forgiveness, but Bear says none is needed because it is he who has forgotten how little Crispin really knows. Though his own past is mysterious to him, he is beginning to piece together Bear’s true life as a leader in a rebellion against the norms of medieval England. His suspicions are confirmed by the widow who provides them lodging. She urges Crispin to look out for Bear—to preserve the life of both master and servant. Crispin’s leadership role has been defined.

Fortunately, Crispin has many personality characteristics which help him through the ambiguity that crowds around him. He is observant, and he notices when armed men are about to invade the place where Bear and his compatriots are meeting. Furthermore, he recognizes that one of the men is John Aycliffe, the steward of the manor and the one who has declared him a “wolf’s head,” so he puts himself in mortal danger when he alerts Bear and his band. Bear assists the others as they escape, but he himself is captured. He cries out, “Go Crispin. Get out of the city. It’s you they want, not me” (p. 204).

Crispin returns to the widow’s ransacked house. He comforts her, and she reveals what has been secret to him throughout the tale: His cross is inscribed with the words, “Crispin—son of Furnival.” Though Crispin thinks he understands the significance of the revelation—Lord Furnival is nearing death and Crispin has a claim to his land—the widow makes it plain: “What ever noble blood there is in you is only... poison. Lady Furnival, who’s the power here, will never let you have the name. She’ll look on you as her enemy, knowing that anyone who chooses to oppose her will use you and what you are” (p. 217). Her other revelations about his past make his present clear: Bear is being held as bait to catch him.

He takes the bait, frees Bear from torture, and negotiates their release. He boldly declares himself Lord Furnival’s son, and compromises his own noble position by saying that if he and Bear are escorted safely out of the town gates they never will return nor claim his rights. To seal the deal he agrees to hand over the cross, the only evidence short of DNA testing that proves his parentage. They are double-crossed and a bloody fight ensues; Crispin and Bear gain the upper hand. True to his word, Crispin lays his cross of lead on the steward’s body and, accompanied by Bear, emerges from the town “a full member of the guild of free men” (p. 261).

Fourth place (1 of 3): Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze by Elizabeth Foreman Lewis

The second (and last) Asian protagonist in the sample is Young Fu. He has much in common with other protagonists in previous rankings. Like Tree-car, Johnny, and Crispin, he is an apprentice. He lives in China, a world proscribed by rules and roles, as does Crispin; but, unlike Crispin, he early-on questions the social order and suggests new interpretations. He is fatherless like Jessie Bollier, but Young Fu’s mother is less a victim of circumstances than Jessie’s is. Though he leads in many ways, the episodic nature of this historical fiction story set in the early 1900s fails to engage the reader as fully as the stories in previous rankings.
Young Fu begins his life in the city of Chunking, apprenticed to the coppersmith Tang. He is ridiculed as a country bumpkin, but he is driven to learn the trade so his mother will have life’s necessities. His mother’s superstitious ways are not his; for example, he shows no fear of foreigners who, according to his mother, could bring harm just by catching one’s eye.

He learns the ways of the shop and city: running errands for Tang, he becomes familiar with the city. He remains curious throughout the story, even after being victimized by a soldier. Work demands his time, but he longs to learn to read and write. Though he knows his duty is to Tang, he takes time to observe Chinese writing, and he welcomes Wang Scholar’s offer to teach him. However, he disappoints his wise neighbor by failing to see the ultimate value of learning: “It has been given that men might learn how to live, not to win fortune” (p. 54), Wang teaches. The lesson takes. Young Fu vows to live a life that is honorable to his father and ancestors. This proves a difficult promise to keep; immediately afterward he gets lost in thoughts of his own self-importance and damages the copper piece he was sent to deliver. Young Fu seems like a leader, but, as yet, an unpolished one. Once again he vows to do better, and he hopes his success will mean his mother does not have to work anymore.

His skill and knowledge increase (as does his overweening pride). He is conned into buying a watch and then sells snow (“Dragon’s Breath”) to pay his debt. His quick mind causes him to doubt superstitions; so, despite his mother’s warnings against foreigners, he rushes to watch as fire burns the foreign hospital. Serendipitously, he helps a foreigner save her house from the widening fire, an action which reaps future benefits. The grateful woman rewards him with money; Young Fu gives her a gift from the shop in return. He imagines what wealth a foreign patronage might bring the shop, and he concludes that, twice, he has tested superstitions and won.

Predictably, his bold defiance of accepted social norms produces fruit. When his friend Small Li collapses, he decides that the foreign woman can help him. He uses humor, charm, and negotiating skill to convince Li’s very traditional family to try the foreigner’s remedy. Small Li is cured and would surely have died from his ruptured appendix otherwise.

Next, Young Fu accompanies Tang on a journey down the river, to deliver brass pieces to a customer. He is honored to have been asked. He saves the silver that has been given in payment for the brass by hiding it under himself, undergoing severe discomfort as he is stepped on by the bandits in his hiding place. Again, his ability and personality save the day. His pride, once again, surfaces as he plans to share his tale with his shop mates. His mother’s superstitions are voiced again, but, even so, Young Fu doesn’t mind his next adventure either: spending the night outside the city gates. When the river floods, it’s Young Fu to the rescue! He leads many who live outside the gates to safety. His charisma and courage save the day.

When revolutionaries begin ruining businesses and attacking citizens, Tang puts Young Fu in charge of the shop while he is away. Young Fu turns away intruders, but
narrowly escapes death due to Tang’s intervention. Young Fu continues to think about his many experiences, to question superstitions and prejudice, to learn to read and write, and to look forward to owning his own shop. Echoing the confidence his employer has in him, his mother leaves him alone while she travels to visit a sick relative. Unfortunately, Young Fu gambles away the money she left him. He worries that she won’t trust him, and strikes a bargain with Tang to repay his debt. She is pleased when she returns, “you are beginning to fill your father’s place in the household” (p. 195), and admires him for his honesty about the gambling debt.

But his episodes of leadership are not over. He discovers his master’s stolen pieces in the marketplace, and his status and wages continue to rise. Though he credits the gods for his success, his drive to do well for his master also motivates him. Like Tree-ear, his merits are noticed by his employer, who treats him as a son. Like Dicey, he is adopted, and wears the garments in which “he would resemble one of Tang’s intimates rather than an employee” (p. 228).

Fourth place (2 of 3): The Midwife’s Apprentice by Karen Cushman

The fourth apprentice in the sample is also the first female apprentice in this whole-book ranking. Her life is ambiguous from the start: She is of indeterminate age (12 or 13), and her name changes in 5 pages from “Brat,” to “Beetle,” to “The Midwife’s Apprentice.” Her intelligence and cleverness get her into this job, and her personality gets her reinstated at the end of the tale. Furthermore, she dubs herself “Alyce,” and she makes a practice of symbolically legitimizing the people and animals around her by giving them respectable names.

She learns early on that “midwife’s apprentice” doesn’t necessarily mean “birth helper.” It seems she is more of a “supply carrier.” She’s quite sure the midwife doesn’t want to reveal her secret skills and spells, but she is smart and observant, and picks up the trade in her own way. She doubts that superstition and magic have much to do with the process (cf. Young Fu), though later in the story she may wish she had had some magical intervention.

Forced into tending alone to a mother in labor, she panics. Trying the midwife’s own routine of verbal assault on the laboring woman produces results: a shower of household implements thrown at her, but no baby born. When the midwife herself comes to the rescue, she slaps the mother, forces wormwood tea down her throat, and, order restored, delivers a baby. Beetle is frightened by the chaotic leadership situation she was forced into (cf. Jessie Bollier), but is even more afraid of being “turned cold and hungry out of the midwife’s cottage” (p. 24).

A case of mistaken identity transforms “Beetle” to “Alyce,” and she decides that, hard as it may be, she will answer only to that name. She proceeds to bestow the same favor on others; as though she were Adam himself, she names the cat, the cow, and the young boy she rescues, symbolically transforming them to creatures with lives of worth. She can be noble, but she can be manipulative too. Alyce dupes the superstitious
villagers into thinking the Devil himself has been wandering through the town, visiting those who have been less than scrupulous. The Devil leaves indeterminate tracks in the snow as he wanders about, courtesy of the blocks of wood Alyce carved just for this deceptive purpose. Not only does she gain retribution, she also reveals (only to the reader) her logical mistrust of superstitions (cf. Young Fu).

She is getting bolder and more skillful; some grateful mothers even pay her for her help, thus earning a little for herself (cf. Crispin). Ironically, she learns that kindness can assist a birth better than insults not through her experiences with human birth, but by watching a farm boy help twin calves enter the world ("Twins, Alyce!" cried Will. "You have brought me great luck, for Tansy be having twins" [p. 51]). She crafts her own trade by combining the best of what kindness and the midwife have to offer. Much more, now, than "the midwife's hand or arm" (p. 53), Alyce is learning to lead in her own way, though she worries about easing reluctant babies into the light, a foreshadowy foreboding. Her failure to do so for a villager named Emma forces her to leave the best life she has yet known.

She finds a place for herself and her cat at an inn, as kitchen sweeper and mouse chaser. A guest at the inn befriends her and teaches her to write letters. He respects her enough to ask what she wants, to which she replies, "A full belly, a contented heart, and a place in the world" (p. 81). She needs the help of others to see that she is entitled to those things, and, ironically, it is her hard-hearted mistress who gives her courage to try her craft again.

But not right away. Before she returns to Jane she makes sure Edward, the boy she rescued earlier, is safe, and she delivers a baby from a woman who didn't know she was pregnant. Her courage comes from remembering the words and advice of those in her past, and she returns to her "place in the world" (p. 81), to Jane's house, to a future as the midwife's apprentice.

**Fourth place (3 of 3): *A Year Down Yonder* by Richard Peck**

Though this protagonist lacks a strong, clear leadership perspective, the believable protagonist and the strong supporting actress kept it in fourth place in the whole-book ranking. Though the story is in the first-person narrative point of view, it seems less about "I" and more about the quirky grandma who the reader learns to love early on. It takes the protagonist longer to love her.

Hard times have hit Chicago in 1937, and desperate measures were used to survive. Mary Alice, 15, is sent south to live with her grandmother (cf. Dicey): "No telephone... [Y]ou had to go outdoors to the privy. Nothing modern" (p. 2). In other words, no good. But good does come to Mary Alice; though, with a sneaky, manipulative, heart-of-gold grandmother to watch out for, the road to happiness is a bumpy one. Most of Mary Alice's time is spent trying to stay two steps behind Grandma: she plays along as Grandma teaches a neighbor a lesson, she helps make glue that will mark the boys who intend to knock over her privy, she's a partner in crime as Grandma
steals pumpkins and pecans to make pies for charity, and she watches as Grandma manipulates others to raise money for a needy woman. "I walked in Grandma’s shadow" (p. 61) sums life up well.

Mary Alice is not entirely passive, however. She recognizes bad omens (cn. Young Fu and cf. Crispin) as she gets ready to play the lead in the Christmas nativity, a show that is talked about (for various reasons) for many years. Mary Alice begins to love Grandma by looking past her quirks to that good that inspires her. Mary Alice reaches out to others, adopting Grandma’s manipulative ways as necessary: She pens anonymous "Newsy Notes" for the local newspaper, revealing harmless gossip and highlighting community shortcomings in her cryptic words, and she orchestrates a Valentine scam to deflate the ego of an overbearing classmate. But she’s a mere amateur in the conniving department: As Mary Alice entertains her hoped-for-boyfriend Royce, Grandma, shotgun in hand, scares a woman clad only in a snake out of the attic she has rented to an artist. Mary Alice thinks the embarrassment will end her life, but, of course, Grandma has other plans for her.

Mary Alice’s concern and care for Grandma grows. She leaves graduation practice to check on her during a tornado. Grandma passes the kindness on by checking in on ailing neighbors during the storm. With Grandma as role model, they together clean up the community. It comes as no surprise when the author fast forwards through time, and the reader learns that Mary Alice will be married in her beloved grandma’s house.

Fifth place (1 of 2): Onion John by Joseph Krumgold

If the tenth book in this whole-book ranking followed suit with the previous nine, the protagonist should be the product of a home split by death, abandonment, uncertain paternity and/or financial hardship. But it doesn’t fit the pattern. Onion John is like an Ozzie-and-Harriet breath of fresh air in a place grown stale from the problems defining it. Twelve-year-old Andy starts his first-person narrative proclaiming the value of team work, and the book retains that theme throughout. He wins the championship baseball game by hitting a home run. He shares the credit for the win with his team mates, and he credits luck and superstition with partial responsibility (cn. Young Fu and Alyce, cf. Crispin and Mary Alice). Preferring to visit his friend John in the dump instead of joining the team for an ice cream celebration, Andy is again the recipient of magic power as he interprets what old John says: "'Cows in the sky?' I asked him. 'Is that what you said?' ...He nodded. They were right, the words I’d heard. No one else ever understood anything he said..." (p. 20). Andy’s ability to interpret both Onion John’s words, actions, and emotions fuel this story’s plot; the boy’s many personality traits are often used to determine what to do in the subjective situations Onion John draws him into.

The story contains at least three plots. One involves Onion John and his interactions with Andy and his friends. The second includes Onion John, Andy, Andy’s father, and his father’s friends. The third revolves around Andy’s relationship with his dad. So, first things first. Onion John is a mystical man who talks in indecipherable
codes (for most people, that is), lives in an unconventional house, and has unorthodox ways of dealing with the problems in his world. Andy is charmed by him, and, because of his stable home life, is able to form opinions about the man with the care and concern of his parents.

When Onion John wants to try to break the drought by fasting, having a procession, carrying torches, singing, etc., Andy doesn’t see what harm it could do to try: “It’ll make him happy. And it can’t do any harm. And what if it works? We’ll be the first ones in Serenity who ever made it rain!” (p. 30). His dad is less sure that this spectacle will do no harm, but he respects Andy’s right to learn for himself. When it pours three days later, Andy’s dad is the first to congratulate the rain makers. However, when Onion John cooks up a Halloween plan to fumigate Andy’s house of witches, dad draws a line in the sand: To be friends with Onion John either they have to regress to the fourteenth century ideas he has, or he has to be brought up to the 20th century life they are living. Andy is not sure he wants to give up the rituals, secret codes, and excitement that Onion John brings, but he accepts the obvious choice. His dad puts flesh on the bones of the plan by suggesting that building Onion John a new, modern house would be a step in the right direction. Onion John is consulted, agrees, and sub-plot 2 is underway.

The Rotary Club and the members’ wives are excellent examples of the formal perspective on leadership in action. They plan, schedule, assign, and act—all in an effort to construct Onion John’s house on schedule. Andy helps in this effort, and from demolishing, to framing, to shingling and painting, he is there to interpret events for the rather confused Onion John. The stove and the bathtub cause Onion John to fret, and one of these modern devices later causes Andy’s dad to do the same. When the house is finished, it is a marvel of modern construction. Andy helps Onion John prepare a speech to thank all those who helped. He steps out of the best-friend-of-Onion-John spotlight, and he declares his father the best friend Onion John could have. But Andy himself takes the blame when Onion John burns down the new house, thinking that the new stove needed wood to fuel it. However, through conversations and musings, he comes to realize that the loss of the modern house is a good thing, for now Onion John can choose his own life for himself, even if that life includes ritualized gold-making and unorthodox goat-based remedies.

Likewise, Andy and his dad are learning something about shared decision making. Andy’s dad sees the potential Andy has in science and math, and he dreams that Andy will become an astronaut. He even arranges a summer job for Andy at General Magneto, a local leader in technology. Rather than welcoming this opportunity, Andy realizes that it will take him away from his dad and their pleasant summers working together at the hardware store. He decides his only escape from a future that is being planned for him is to run away with Onion John. His parents get wind of the plan. Eventually, they reconcile in a way which values the worth of both parties’ opinions. Andy’s dad tells him his life is his to plan, and he leaves room for Andy to make his own decisions.
But Onion John already knew he was master of his own life, and he decides he will stick with the plan to run away. He feels that Andy has outgrown him, and he also wants to avoid having a new house built for him to replace the modern marvel that almost killed him. The town has learned a lesson about deciding someone else’s future: everyone agrees not to rebuild. Andy’s dad has learned a lesson: don’t use others to make up for your own loses. And Andy learned a lesson: he can confidently make his own decisions, knowing his dad will support him because “the only [person he] ever come across, who’s anything great, is [his dad]” (p. 241).

Fifth place (2 of 2): *Jacob Have I Loved* by Katherine Paterson

As good an example of the ambiguity perspective as *The Slave Dancer*, this tale falls to a lower place in the whole-book ranking because the main character is so consumed by jealousy she is almost crippled and because the book doesn’t offer much help for her in the form of other leadership examples, because most of the characters we meet are as self-involved as she.

It doesn’t take long to figure out what makes Louise Bradshaw, 13, tick. She’s barely welcomed us to her world when she reveals that the very sound of her twin sister’s voice makes her nauseated. Her animosity throughout the book seems to be fueled only by her own self-centered jealousy; the first-person narrative form makes this negativism immediate and raw. Twin sister Caroline, her beauty and talent well-known, seems much better able to handle the comparisons that are inevitable in twinships.

For Louise is no slouch. She has talents which bode well for life on an island: a sense of humor, skill at poling a skiff and finding oysters, and a love for the water. She is unhealthily introspective, and she spends a lot of time figuring herself out. Unlike Billie Jo’s (*Out of the Dust*), Louise’s observations about life make her less believable, especially if extent of hardship in the two cases is compared. Louise and her sister live with both parents and a grandmother, and, though poor, they all work together to make a life on Rass Island in Chesapeake Bay.

Early on, Louise gets rid of her victim mentality long enough to set out on an adventure with her serious-minded friend Call. They stake out the house of a man who has just arrived on the island; Louise dreams that he may be a spy and that she will be hailed as a wartime hero. Using many admirable leadership skills—planning, adopting a code, and being observant—they come face-to-face with the mysterious man. He turns out to be a former island resident, and almost as mysterious as a spy: “If he was not a spy, if he was indeed Hiram Wallace, why had he come back after all these years...?” (p. 83).

Louise catches crabs on the beach, and sells them to make money to help her family. She rationalizes keeping some of the money for herself, but makes a point to honor the conservative Christian values held by the islanders. She reminds the newcomer of the Biblical principles that guide the island, but realizes that her own life has its share of inconsistencies. She does reach out to another when she agrees to clean up the house.
of a neighbor, and she shows more love for cats than for her own sister. Her leadership—she quotes the commandments as her authority—spares the lives of many of the marauding felines. When Caroline comes up with an ingenious remedy to the cat problem, Louise’s jealousy resurfaces.

Her heroic deeds continue. During a storm, she alerts Hiram and helps him get to safety in her own home. After the storm, she poles him to the wreckage of his house, imagining herself like “a wise [Egyptian] slave who can read and write and dare to advise their masters” (p. 129). She comforts Hiram as he realizes all is lost. Her chaotic feelings about him reveal an adolescent crush, one that causes her many ambivalent feelings as she and her family offer their home to him as a temporary refuge. She is miserable, and she lets those around her know it.

But the world keeps spinning, and time moves on. Through a chain of events involving Hiram and his past, a sum of money is entrusted to him. He credits Louise with giving him the idea, and announces that he is going to use the money to send Caroline to music school on the mainland. How does Louise interpret this good fortune?: “God had chosen to hate me” (p. 181).

With seemingly nothing left to lose in her miserable, overshadowed, self-dominated life, she negotiates a deal with her parents. She’ll stay out of school so she can catch crabs with her father. She finds happiness in this teamwork, and she even manages to find humor in her grandmother’s strange outbursts. But this doesn’t last long. Her friend Call announces his marriage to Caroline, and Louise’s jealousy flares again. Grandma hits her with a Bible when she quotes deprecating Scripture, and Louise is befuddled about how her own mother can abide this woman so calmly. Is there any hope that Louise will find balance in her life, or will she forever identify with the Biblical Esau, the outcast twin brother of Jacob, who was loved?

Balance comes in the form of schooling off the island, marriage, and a family. The final scene is of Nurse Louise, a new mother herself, nursing a weak newborn twin for a mother who was feeding the stronger sibling. She is a leader who has learned, finally, that those who give get more in return.

Sixth place (1 of 2): *The Trumpeter of Krakow* by Eric P. Kelly

As readers get further away from the top whole-book leadership ranking in the sample, even noble characters in the stories have a harder time measuring up to a Billie Jo or a Jessie Bollier, two well-rounded characters who perform their leadership tasks in believable ways. The trumpeter of Krakow, Pan Andrew, is a very noble man, as is his son, the future trumpeter. The fifteenth-century Polish patriot hides a national secret in his home, and he has sworn that he will deliver the object safely to the king. On the journey to do so, his son carries on the family tradition of doing good deeds. Josef, at 15, demonstrates many traits which serve him well in leadership roles: He observes, plans, thinks ahead, wonders, and, most of all, interprets situations. In addition, he is brave, intelligent, pious, and humble. These characteristics and actions help him foil a bandit,
save a girl from a savage dog, and discover a place for him and his parents to stay in the beautiful city of Krakow. But life is about to take an unexpected turn, and the future of Poland seems to be falling into Josef’s hands.

Literally into his hands. For his father, in addition to harboring a national treasure, also has a job to do in the city. He stands at each of the four sides of the tower of the Church of Our Lady Mary, and he plays the Heynal, a hymn to Mary “which every trumpeter in the church had in the past sworn to play each hour of the day and night—‘until death’” (p. 4). In the past, death had come to one trumpeter before he finished the song, and a new tradition of playing the song without the final notes began. It is this tune that Josef’s father plays, and it is this broken tune that Josef wisely repairs to save the city.

He is a quick study and picks up the tune well. After a brief time of playing just one of the four Heynals with his father, his chance to go solo arrives. As the hourglass sands drop closer to the hourly duty, the same evil man who had threatened him and his family earlier in the tale shows up in the tower. He is after the hidden treasure, which Josef now learns is the Great Tarnov Crystal, and it is up to Josef alone to be sure that the traditions of the country—the Heynal and the crystal—are preserved. Can he do it? Fortunately, Josef had thought about just such a situation happening, and had arranged a code with Elzbietka, his friend. If he played the Heynal all the way through, she would know trouble was brewing. So he does. Elzbietka notices, alerts the authorities, and saves the day.

However, in an exciting twist, the author reveals that the crystal is not in his father’s possession, but that it had fallen into the hands of the alchemist Kreutz; his selfish experiment to make gold from brass almost torches the entire city. He gives the crystal that he has hidden in his robes to Josef’s father, and Kreutz declares madly that it is cursed. Realizing that the crystal must be delivered as quickly as possible, Josef, his father, Elzbietka, and the scholar-priest Jan Kanty set out with the alchemist to do so, thus fulfilling Josef’s father’s oath. The crystal’s significance and history are made plain, and the king promises him a proper reward. All seems well. However, the alchemist, realizing the power of the stone, grabs it and throws it in the river, where it still rests: “There had been in its history too much of suffering and misfortune to make it a thing at all desirable to possess, in spite of the purity of its beauty” (p. 214). Josef’s story, part of that suffering and misfortune, ends—happily—with his university education and his marriage to Elzbietka. He is a shining example of the positive characteristics of his people.

Sixth place (2 of 2): M.C. Higgins, the Great by Virginia Hamilton

In M.C., the reader meets the first and only black protagonist in the sample. Similar to his whole-book co-sixth place finisher, he takes family responsibility seriously, maybe too seriously. He and his family live in the shadow of an oily coil mine spoil heap that, M.C. believes, is going to dislodge and bury them. He is like a prophet, proclaiming
doom and destruction to those who won’t heed his words. His quest is to convince his dad to move, the outcome of which the reader doesn’t learn until late in the tale.

Though his obsession makes him seem weak, 13-year-old M.C. has many personality traits which equip him for his leadership roles. He is tall, intelligent, strong, imaginative, graceful, creative, has keen senses, and is in touch with people around him. He motivates a new friend to do an impossible thing, and he accepts the “witchy” six-fingered Killburn family. He, himself, is quasi-supernatural. M.C. has secret ways of doing things, and his visions and premonitions sometimes give him clues about the present. And why shouldn’t he be all these things? He is “the Great” after all, and the 40 foot pole in his yard that he sits atop seems a suitable throne for this God-pretender: “He fluffed the trees out there and smoothed out the sky. All was still and ordered, the way he like to pretend he arranged it every day” (p. 27).

He proves his greatness in a variety of ways. He loves his family, valuing the traditions and songs that have been passed down. He shows this love in at least 3 ways: First, “[m]ost of the time, the children were in M.C.’s care” (p. 72), because his father works, though sporadically. His mother’s employment and M.C.’s hunting skill keep them from starving, and the pole he sits atop inspires them: “It had been M.C.’s fancy to make the children cherish the pole even more than they would have, by putting shiny wheels and hard-looking pedals on it” (p. 54). He resents his custodial role because he has responsibility but little power to make the decision to move, the one decision that would really benefit his family. Another way he cares for his family is by encouraging his mother: he recognizes that her singing talent may be their ticket out of the shadow of the slag heap, and he directs the recruiter to their home and orchestrates the audition. A third way he shows he cares for his family is his concern for his father and his drinking problem. M.C. is comfortable enough with his dad to negotiate about moving, but he also fears and misunderstands him. It takes his mom to sort out some of this relationship, and the information M.C. gains from her helps him cope.

But M.C. leads others too. He encourages a new friend to swim through a tunnel, taking her where she didn’t even know she wanted to go: “They were in a world all their own, where she was older but he was the leader” (p. 157). He negotiates a good price for the supply of ice they need. Though he accepts the witchy Killburns and their six-fingered, ice-selling, snake-charming ways, he is wary of them. When he realizes that, despite their strange habits, their worldview makes sense, he accepts them.

His crowning achievement is the wall he builds at the end of the story. Accepting his mother’s explanation for his father’s unwillingness to move—the pole actually marks ancestral burial ground—M.C. begins building a wall. His father contributes the gravestones that he had tucked under the porch, and M.C., putting his own pride aside, accepts the building materials “to make the wall strong” (p. 277).
Seventh place (1 of 2): *Up a Road Slowly* by Irene Hunt

Julie lives in a house where something is “terribly wrong” (p. 2). Upset by news that she may be moving, she is sedated and sent off to live with her Aunt Cordelia. She describes herself in this first-person historical fiction account as overindulged. As she ages from 12 on, “self indulged” describes her best. To compound her troubles, her aunt is not only her no-nonsense guardian, she is also her emotionally-detached teacher. Uncle Haskell provides some comic relief in the plot, though his lying and thinly-disguised drinking hardly make him a good role model for this young person.

Her first act of leadership is to organize the ongoing shunning of a mentally-challenged schoolmate. Her next leadership role is to help her sister when her daughter, Julie’s namesake, is born. Even this role is clouded by self-interest: She resents her brother-in-law’s primary status in her sister’s life. The pages in between these events have to do with her inner life and “manipula[tion]... in the world of adults” (p. 29). She’s lonely, resentful, and dismissive of those who don’t suit her purposes: “I had no interest in anyone’s feelings save my own” (p. 37). Uncle Haskell does what he can to modify her character by talking to her and writing her pointed notes.

Well, she does reach out to Aunt Cordelia, assisting in the kitchen, and she defends her aunt’s strictness to a wealthy classmate. When her Father remarries, she is her one attendant. When it comes time for her to move back home, though, she negotiates to stay with Aunt Cordelia. She seems to be learning that marriage relationships do take priority, and her decision pleases all involved.

In a rather Gothic twist, Julie helps tend to a woman who, out of her senses, wanders off and gets lost. She offers to help Brett, another classmate, with his schoolwork. Soon, he takes advantage of her intellect and, in another Gothic twist, of her infatuation with him. Uncle Haskell rescues her, and her integrity remains untarnished. With Aunt Cordelia’s help, she recovers from her broken ego and heart, and finds room in her life for two new interests: Danny and writing. Contributing to her transformation, Uncle Haskell encourages her writing ability, (and dies soon after from a mysterious fall from the bridge), and little Julie “followed me around with a devotion I had never known before...” (p. 147). The book ends with a characteristically narcissistic Julie glowing with pride at the applause rendered for her marvelous graduation speech.

Seventh place (2 of 2): *Missing May* by Cynthia Rylant

Once again, the Newbery award-winner is an orphan. Summer tells the reader the story of her life with the aunt and uncle she has lived with for six of her twelve years. They are a loving couple who dote on Summer. Aunt May declares, “I always told [Uncle] Ob he was my moon and sun. And when you came to us, Summer, honey, you were my shining star” (p. 87). When May dies, this little universe spins out of kilter. Following his wife’s advice to hold on to those you love (cf. Dicey), Ob decides that the way to restore balance is to contact May through a spirit interpreter, an idea planted in his
head by Summer’s friend Cletus. Summer is so afraid that Ob’s grief is going to kill him, that she goes along with this plan “to mend his sorry broken heart” (p. 16).

Her care and concern for Ob are real and expressed often in word and deed. She cooks for him, encourages him to pursue his whirligig hobby, and tries to encourage him. Her own self worries are also real. She’s not sure happiness is always around the corner, and she wishes that she were enough to make Ob want to go on. The formal systemized funeral parlor way of dealing with death has left her cold, and books and popular media offer no answers. She is on her own in helping Ob.

Though she doubts that contacting May is possible, she sees it as her only hope: “...if it kept Ob grinning and chasing after some hope, I knew I'd have to be willing to follow him” (p. 54). Fortunately, some of her leadership burden has been shifted to Cletus, though she expresses doubts about the plan they have agreed to. After manipulating Cletus’ parents so that Cletus can accompany them, they, “like three visitors heading for Oz,” (p. 71), set out. Unfortunately, their savior, the Reverend Miriam Young of the Spiritualist Church, has died. They set out to return home; Summer is dejected, depressed, and worried, “praying for something to save Ob and me” (p. 76).

That salvation comes in the form of a detour to the West Virginia state capitol, a place Ob revered. When Summer breaks down in grief as an owl, May’s symbol, flies in front of her, Ob is able to comfort her, putting life back in her. The natural order is restored when Ob reclaims his parental duties and rediscovers the joy his whirligig hobby brought to him. In an authoritative, fatherly way, he states that the spirit messages’ purpose is to console those who suffer. Summer’s quest for Ob’s healing seems to be over.

Eighth place (1 of 1): A Gathering of Days: A New England Girl’s Journal, 1830-32 by Joan Bios

This first-person, historical fiction story begins with a letter from a great-grandmother to her namesake great-granddaughter, explaining that she, herself, penned the journal the year she turned 14. Similar to Out of the Dust, this story records details in the life of Catherine Hall, from daily events, to decision-making, to duties fulfilled. It is a tale of a life defined by goodness, guiding principles, and a girl’s own discoveries about herself. Catherine is motherless (cf. Dicey, Billie Jo, and Julie), but loved by her father. She is virtuous and skillful, valuing good handwriting, self-discipline, and care for others. When confronted with a moral dilemma—helping a stranger who left her a note by giving him one of her mother’s quilts—she agonizes over its many mysteries: is the stranger a sinner or sinned against, slave or free, young or old? She feels sorrow for leaving her father and her best friend out of the discussion about what to do. She decides, after consulting with her friend Asa and weighing the principles involved in the matter, to leave a quilt in the woods for the stranger to warm himself. She confirms her decision in her mind by praying for the man on Christmas. Her phantom, as she calls him, is not through with her yet.

Life goes on. She’s happy when spring comes, and she admires the schoolteacher for his stand on using classroom materials that advance moral development, though the
materials are not approved by the school officials. She has a birthday, and resents it when her father implies that her childhood has been taken from her because of her responsibilities (cf. Dicey). She wins a spelling bee, wisely uses their dwindling supply of food, mends, and does the family laundry. It appears that her adult-like duties may soon be over: Father has expressed interest in a new wife.

She is conflicted about this, (“I will not call her mother” p. 75), and her emotions spill over when the missing quilt affair is revealed and her father’s wife promises to help her make a new replacement one, the punishment decided on by the newlyweds. As the step-relationship grows, she begins to call her “Mammann”—a hybrid name which seems to fit the situation well.

Crisis comes to Catherine when her friend Cassie dies. Guiding principles offered by others help her cope. She realizes that Cassie was dear to others too. Moving beyond self pity helps restore order to her world of learning, farming, and news of unrest in the south. Aphorisms, Biblical sayings, and guiding principles are the wind in her sails as she moves on with life. When a letter arrives, written in the same handwriting as the message that began the quilt incident, Catherine learns that the man she helped is now free—and very grateful—in Canada.

Catherine discovers that life is full of opposing realities, and, as she prepares to leave home to care for her aunt’s new baby, she leaves the reader with this characteristic dichotomy: “...[N]ever is a place so loved as when one has to leave it” (p. 142). Reminding the reader of the writer of the journal, the author ends the tale with a letter written, again, from the great-grandmother. It closes characteristically: “Life is like a pudding: it takes both the salt and the sugar to make a really good one” (p. 144).

Ninth place (1 of 1): It’s Like This, Cat by Emily Neville

Meet Dave, a 14-year-old boy who decides to get a cat because his dad thinks a dog would be a good pet. Their bickering is a constant sub-plot in this book, though Dave does manage to overcome his adolescent rebellion long enough to convince his dad to help two of his friends. Neither of these humans, though, get as much page time as Cat, the pet who is loved because “[a]nything a cat does, he does only when he wants to” (p. 7). He acquires the cat from Kate, a reclusive cat-lover who, later in the story, inherits her brother’s fortune. Dave’s dad helps her manage both the cats and the cash.

When Cat gets lost and Dave trespasses to find him, he meets Tom Ransom, a young man who is a suspected burglar. Because he is nicer than the superintendent of the New York apartment in which he lives, Dave hopes that Tom makes a big haul. There seems to be a guiding principle here, but moral doesn’t describe it. Dave writes to him when he finds out he’s in jail, and he and his family befriend and help Tom.

Dave’s friend Nick is a little annoyed by Cat. He spoils a date he arranges for him, Dave, and two girls, though Dave’s reluctance to interact with the opposite sex
seems to be the real trouble here. Dave and Nick eventually come to blows, literally, and the friendship is put on hold.

Tom reappears, and, after meeting Dave’s mom, he and his friend explore the sidewalks and subways of the city. He interprets Tom as “an island” (p. 46). His ex-friend Nick shows up and he and Dave start summer vacation together, a “dull routine” (p. 54). Then Tom reappears, with a girlfriend, and Dave and Hilda discuss what Tom should do with his life. Dave decides to enlist his dad’s help, which he agrees to do. Dave takes the lead in suggesting employment, and his dad makes the contact. Tom gets the job.

One of Dave’s biggest dilemmas is whether or not to have Cat neutered. He gets advice from others and decides that the surgery is in his wandering cat’s best interest. Cat survives the surgery and Dave’s worrying. Cat is the beneficiary of Dave’s concern later when Dave braves traffic to rescue him.

Dave overcomes his girl-phobia and takes Mary, someone he met earlier, to see a play. The meeting wasn’t prearranged, and Dave doubts that he has the skills needed to make the effort needed to pursue a relationship: “I sort of can’t imagine calling up and saying, ‘Oh, uh, Mary, this is Dave. You want to go to a movie or something, huh?’” (p. 78). So, he takes the lead by orchestrating another “chance” meeting, leaving the details to work themselves out. Mary lives a bohemian life, and Dave thinks about the differences between his family and her family. Dave gets annoyed with independent Mary; he wants to be in the lead, and she won’t let him. When she turns to him for assistance, Dave recruits his dad and they help her.

Ben is the newest entry in Dave’s cavalcade of friends. He attends school with him, and Dave introduces him to Tom and to New York’s natural world. Tragedy strikes, however, when Cat pounces on the salamander that Ben captured. Dave and his dad agree to reduce bickering so mom’s asthma doesn’t flare up; Dave gives Cat partial credit for bringing together some of the people in this tale.

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