

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: ACTIVISM AND LEADERSHIP
 DEVELOPMENT:
 EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP
 BETWEEN COLLEGE STUDENT ACTIVISM
 INVOLVEMENT AND SOCIALLY
 RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP CAPACITY

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The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between participation in student activism and leadership development among college students. This study applied the social change model of leadership development (SCM) as the theoretical model used to measure socially responsible leadership capacity in students. The study utilized data collected from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a research project examining the influences of higher education on leadership development in college students across the country. The sample of 12,510 students consisted of respondents who participated in a sub-study on student activism within the MSL survey. Hierarchical multiple regression models were constructed to investigate the research question using an adapted version of Astin's (1991) I-E-O college impact model. Regression models included participant demographic characteristics, pre-college experiences, institutional

descriptors, and consideration of select college experiences in examining the relationship between activism and leadership development.

Results indicated that the regression models explained a significant amount of the variance in participant scores. Participation and holding a leadership position in on-campus and off-campus organizations, community service conducted on one's own, and participation in an internship emerged as significant predictors of socially responsible leadership capacity among the collegiate experiences included in the model.

Participation in activism also emerged as significant, as awareness of local, national, and global issues indicated influence on all leadership development measures, and participating in protests, contacting public officials, signing a petition, and buying or not buying products due to personal views significantly contributed to measures of citizenship. These findings served to address the existing gap in the literature pertaining to the relationship of student activism and leadership development, and indicated the developmental and educational potential to providing these experiences for students on campus.

ACTIVISM AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: EXAMINING THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COLLEGE STUDENT ACTIVISM INVOLVEMENT
AND SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP CAPACITY

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Chapter One: Introduction

Post-secondary education in the United States has served many purposes since its inception, attempting to meet foundational educational outcomes that are constant as well as those that develop based on ever-changing cultural forces. One consistent goal since the beginning of higher education is the desire to develop students into citizen leaders who positively contribute to society (Chambers & Phelps, 1994; Hamrick, 1998; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; Papamarcos, 2005; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Black, 1995; Roberts & Ullom, 1990). Due to the various educational settings available on campuses, many such opportunities exist. Therefore, educators and administrators should be mindful of opportunities, both conventional and unconventional, that can be utilized in pursuit of this collective goal.

Activism and Higher Education

Since higher education's introduction in the United States, student activism has been a significant component in the fabric of this country's history (Altbach, 1989a; Boren, 2001). Activism provides evidence of the engaged student citizenry that the academy seeks to develop as an educational outcome. Yet the manner students choose to communicate their message is varied and can include both non-violent and violent methods. Thus, the effects of activism can be far reaching, impacting not only the students involved but the institution itself, the surrounding community, and the nation as a whole.

As the methods students have employed in activist behavior have varied greatly over time, so have the catalysts influencing such behavior. Early examples of activism include protests related to disciplinary actions and food quality at Harvard University

(Cartwright, 1995; Ellsworth & Burns, 1970). The tone of activism shifted during the Revolutionary War period, as a number of campuses experienced periods of student dissent related to the conflict (Brown, 1992). Student demonstrations in the nineteenth century displayed violent tendencies, including property destruction and death. However, despite the sometimes malicious methods employed by students, positive changes to higher education accompanied periods of protest. Debate clubs, literary societies and magazines, fraternities, student government systems, and sanctioned sporting events all resulted from the activism of the nineteenth century (Baxter Magolda & Magolda, 1988; Ellsworth & Burns, 1970).

Social and political concerns were the catalysts for activism in the early twentieth century. Students questioned the role of higher education in society as well as the social relevance of the curriculum in the 1920s (Baxter Magolda & Magolda, 1988). Two world wars spurred the presence of campus peace movements during the 1930s and 1940s, accompanied by unrest related to the Great Depression and equal rights (Ellsworth & Burns, 1970). Students of the 1950s, in contrast, were concerned with stability and conformity during the post-war period. This generation sought academic pursuits and campus activities rather than addressing social issues through activism. This trend changed toward the end of the decade, however, as the civil rights movement and the marches that accompanied it increased in frequency and intensity (Ellsworth & Burns, 1970).

Four primary issues fueled student activism in the 1960s and early 1970s: the peace movement, civil rights, civil liberties, and student life on campus (Baxter Magolda & Magolda, 1988). Activism surrounding the peace movement included student

demonstrations that targeted military recruiters and military industrial companies on campus during the Vietnam War (Rhoads, 1998a). As the war progressed, the movement saw more and more students participate, with estimates that protests occurred on more than two-thirds of college and university campuses during the period (Cartwright, 1995). Nonviolent forms of activism were introduced as part of the Civil Rights movement, such as students from North Carolina A&T who staged a sit-in at a segregated lunch counter. This initiated a wave of nonviolent protests that included picketing, voter registration projects, and additional sit-ins (Baxter Magolda & Magolda, 1988). The civil liberties movement was characterized, in particular, by the struggle for free speech. At the University of California at Berkeley, administrators enacted a policy prohibiting off-campus groups from distributing literature, soliciting funding, and seeking student membership on university grounds (Baxter Magolda & Magolda, 1988). This policy was viewed as restricting the actions of civil rights organizations, and as a result students protested for free speech and equal rights. Lastly, student life protests occurred in response to *in loco parentis* policies on campus, which situated the campus administration in place of the parent. Changes to women's strict behavioral rules and students' right to due process in disciplinary settings were among the positive effects of campus activism during this period (Miser, 1986).

Student activism in the 1980s tended to focus on relationships between US entities and countries abroad. In the mid-80s, students began protesting the United States' political involvement and foreign policy practices toward Central America (Vellela, 1988; Watkins, 1986). Students also began to hold their institutions accountable for their financial relationships with businesses. As a means of protesting apartheid,

students demonstrated on college and university campuses that had investments in companies with significant financial holdings in South Africa (Miser, 1986).

Cynical beliefs regarding government efficiency and a lack of confidence in broader political systems shifted the nature of activism from national concerns to local issues in the 1990s. As a result, political involvement became defined through community service as students sought to employ a “problem solving activism” (Hirsch, 1993, p. 36), focusing on realistic and practical changes that could be developed on the local level. This included the re-emergence of identity-based activism and the commitment of students to building a multicultural democracy. Instead of protesting discrimination on a national level, students sought change through activism on their individual campuses. Thus, institutional policies were altered, new academic programs were created, and awareness was brought to issues related to racism, sexism, and homophobia at the local level (Rhoads, 1997).

Activism and Millennial College Students

Today, as in the past, campus activism is present in both passive and active forms. However, the effects of globalization and the worldwide economic downturn, combined with advancements in technology, have played a significant role in recent instances of activism. Students have been involved in protests related to the global labor market, including the operation of sweatshops and worker’s rights issues (Rhoads, 2005; Smith, 2005). Students have also had a significant presence during protests at meetings of the World Trade Organization, the World Economic Forum, and G-8 summits (Rhoads, 2005). In the 2004-2005 academic year alone, 79 protests were reported in local, regional, and national newspapers (Biddix, 2006). Issues catalyzing the protests included

federal, state, and campus governance, tuition and fee increases, military policies and the war in Iraq, identity politics, labor rights, and various other political concerns (Biddix, 2006). Tuition and fee increases have led to what is being called a “new wave of student activism” (Epstein, 2009, p. 1). Organized protests have occurred at colleges and universities in California, and have quickly spread nationwide as students face significant cost increases due to budget cuts and decreased funding for higher education (Stripling, 2010b).

As in the past, contemporary students employ varied techniques in activism. A study conducted by the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) sought information on political behavior among 15-25 year olds in 2006. Results indicated 30% of young people refused to buy a product because they did not like the social or political values of the manufacturer (Lopez et al., 2006). Additionally, 29% “buycotted,” or purchased a product or service because they supported the values of the company producing or providing it (p. 17). Respondents indicated participation in signing petitions as well, as 18% noted signing a paper petition, and 16% signed an email petition. Finally, students today are maintaining involvement in demonstrations, as 11% indicated participation in protest activities.

Readily available forms of technology have had a significant influence on contemporary activism. As early as the 1990s, protests began to include cell phones and laptop computers (Brownstein, 2001; Levine, 1999). Accessible “long distance rates, photocopiers, word processing, desktop publishing, databases...[and] portable video cameras” (Kreider, 2005, p. 118) have led to the employment of multiple forms of technology in instances of activism on campus. From utilizing email and text messaging

for the purpose of mobilizing groups (Rheingold, 2003) to communicating through social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter (Stripling, 2010a), technology and activism are inseparably linked on college and university campuses today.

Regardless of the techniques employed, or the cause or catalyst of the incident, students participating in activism engage as citizens in their communities in a unique way. Research on today's youth indicates that the Millennial Generation (born after 1985) is more engaged in both civic and political life than Generation X students (born between 1965 and 1985) (Kiesa et al., 2007). They "seek to be involved with others and believe in the power of collective actions to address public issues" (p. 14). Millennial students are characterized as being optimistic, technologically savvy, civic-minded, confident, open-minded, and more diverse than previous generations (Morukian, 2009). They are also greater in number, more affluent, and better educated (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Pew Research Center, 2010).

Since they have been raised through experiences working in groups, such as organized team sports and volunteer activities, they are particularly team-oriented (Howe & Strauss, 2003). Holding high levels of trust and optimism, students today perceive the future as bright for both themselves and their peers (Howe & Strauss, 2003). These characteristics serve to indicate why Millennial students on campus are more engaged civically and politically than their predecessors. These student participants in activism and civic engagement represent viable examples of the engaged citizenry academe seeks to foster, and stakeholders in higher education should take notice accordingly.

Leadership and Higher Education

Participation in leadership development opportunities is another method of

campus involvement that fosters active citizenship among students. The changing value placed on these experiences is evidenced by the increasing inclusion of student leadership development practices within institutional mission statements and the continued deployment of leadership development programs (Astin & Astin, 2000; Boatman, 1999; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Just as the nature and place of activism has varied throughout higher education's history, conceptualizations of leadership have changed and evolved. From envisioning leaders as the dominant members of a group and focusing on the traits inherent in these individuals (Northouse, 2004) to looking at the manner in which group members relate to one another and examining the elements of change presented in their collective goals (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002), student affairs practitioners' understanding of leadership theory and the settings available to promote leadership development in students has expanded immeasurably. Needless to say, this collective body of knowledge continues to serve educators as higher education seeks to cultivate citizens capable of leaving campus prepared to positively impact society.

While participating in activism provides a unique setting for student engagement in comparison to traditional involvement experiences (i.e. student organizations), the methods and behaviors that typically accompany activism have historically been viewed as negative by those asked to respond to the incident (Chambers & Phelps, 1993). Yet regardless of the techniques or the conduct of students, activism remains present on today's campus (Powers, 2006; Rhoads, 2005). Due to its potential pervasiveness in campus impact, it is important that stakeholders in higher education constantly seek to study the phenomenon. Attempting to examine how student participants are affected both positively and negatively, as well as individually and collectively, should be an

undertaking valued among agents in academe. Doing so will best prepare the higher education community to deal with the sometimes harmful repercussions that coincide with incidences of activism, while also being able to embrace and accept the potential educational benefits that result from activism.

Statement of Problem

One of the areas of potential study related to outcomes of participation in student activism is how such experiences relate to the leadership development process of the student. As participation entails engagement between a student and a community, such an exchange takes initiative on the part of the student which distinguishes her or him from the broader campus population. Thus, activist students can be considered leaders within the campus community, exercising their voices and engaging in a manner distinct from classroom participation or non-political student organization involvement. Due to the differences between activism and traditional engagement in on and off campus communities, how activist participation relates to the leadership development process of the student must be studied.

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine the relationship between student activism and leadership development in college students. In order to do so, this study utilized data obtained from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a project examining leadership development among college and university students across the country. Students who participated in a sub-study on student activism within the larger respondent population will constitute the sample for this study, with participation in various co-curricular activities functioning as independent variables in the model. The dependent variables are identified through the social change model (SCM) of leadership

(Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996), which identifies eight variables related to leadership development in students. Designed to facilitate self-knowledge and to measure the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership, the SCM frames leadership development as occurring among individuals, groups, and communities in interrelated ways. Each of the eight SCM values falls under one of these three levels, and are identified as Collaboration, Consciousness of Self, Commitment, Congruence, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change.

Using this framework, the primary research question for this study investigated the relationship between participation in student activism and socially responsible leadership capacity as defined by the SCM. As will be explained in the next chapter, this is a relatively unexamined area of leadership development research. Accordingly, this study employed a null hypothesis in examining the relationship between activism and leadership due to the fact that there is little existing research indicating a potential connection between these two variables. Specifically stated, this study tested the following hypothesis:

Participation in student activism will not significantly predict participant's scores on any of the eight variables contained within the social change model of leadership development, after controlling for participant characteristics, pre-college experience, and consideration of select college experiences.

Definition of Terms

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to develop a functional definition of activism. Chambers and Phelps (1993) described activism as “the active participation of individuals in group behavior for the purpose of creating change- in attitudes, knowledge,

behavior, and/or symbols” (p. 20). While participation in a group is a notable component of this definition, this study conceptualizes activism as engaging in behavior for the purpose of creating change, inclusive of both individual involvement and group membership or action. Activism is defined further in this study by focusing on undergraduate students in the United States, inclusive of instances of activism that occur both on- and off-campus.

Keeter, Zukin, Andolina, and Jenkins (2002) and Zukin, Keeter, Andolina, Jenkins, and Delli Carpini (2006) developed a series of indicators of civic engagement that assist in developing the definition of activism used in this study. Contributions to public life were divided into three categories: civic activities, electoral activities, and political voice. Civic activities include behaviors associated with improving an individual’s community and helping others, such as volunteering or community service, participating in a charity event, and active involvement in a group or association. Electoral activities are directed toward the political process and include voting, displaying campaign paraphernalia, or volunteering in a campaign. Political voice activities include behaviors associated with expression of political or social viewpoints, including contacting an elected official, buying or not buying a product due to the conduct of the company producing it, signing a written or email petition, and participating in a protest.

The activities constituting the political voice category represent the types of behavior consummate with the definition of activism employed in this study. Indicators of political voice activities described above are included in the activism scales used to identify activist behavior among study participants. It is important to note that the types

of engagement associated with activism range from a passive level of involvement, such as an awareness of local, regional, or national issues, to a more participatory type of involvement, including contacting an elected official or participating in a protest.

In order to further contextualize activism as defined in this study, it is important to examine the relationship between civic engagement, community service, and student activism. As has been described by Keeter et al. (2002) and Zukin et al. (2006), service and activism constitute different forms of civic engagement. Although literature has sometimes approached service and activism as concepts directed toward similar goals (Chambers & Phelps, 1993, 1994; Chickering, 1998; Hirsch, 1993; Komives & Harris, 2005; Loeb, 1994), evidence indicates they are perceived as separate experiences among students. In studies examining attitudes of student volunteers aged 15-25, Keeter et al. (2002) and Lopez et al. (2006) found that most volunteers are motivated by a desire to help others, while a much smaller percentage of volunteers seek to address political and social goals through their efforts. Among student volunteers in political groups in these studies, only 46% indicated their service was directed toward political or social goals (Keeter et al., 2002) while 41% indicated as such in the latter report (Lopez et al., 2006).

Situating activism and service under a civic engagement rubric is also present in *Learning Reconsidered* (Keeling, 2004), and *Learning Reconsidered 2* (Keeling, 2006). Within these documents, sample developmental experiences for student learning include involvement in service learning and community based organizations, and participation in teach-ins, activism and protests. Thus, by “recognizing the developmental potential of this learning environment, activism and protest experiences can lead to desirable outcomes” (Biddix, Somers, & Polman, 2009, p. 135).

Leadership development opportunities are another group of learning experiences described as contributing to the civic engagement outcome (Keeling 2004, 2006). Since leadership development functions as the dependent variable in this study, it is necessary to define the concepts of leadership and leadership development as well. Despite numerous conceptualizations of leadership across varied settings, Northouse (2004) denotes leadership as containing the following central tenets: “(a) leadership is a process, (b) leadership involves influence, (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment” (p. 3). Just as vital to the definition of leadership is the notion of leadership as a relational and collaborative endeavor attempting to accomplish mutual goals of those involved or to benefit the overall common good (Komives et al., 1998; Rost, 1993). Lastly, leadership development in this context is based on certain assumptions delineated in the social change model (HERI, 1996), indicating that leadership is a “purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change,” regardless of whether a student holds a position in an organization or group (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009, p. xii).

Significance of Study

It is hoped that this study will generate a new conversation regarding leadership development outcomes associated with student activism on campus. As the next chapter discusses, the bulk of literature studying activism fails to address educational impacts on the student, instead reporting on characteristics of student participants (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b; Astin, Astin, Bayer, & Bisconti, 1975; Duncan & Stewart, 1995; Flacks, 1970; Kerr, 1970; Levin & Spiegel, 1977), and on contributing factors to the presence of activism on campus (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b; Astin et al., 1975; Banning & McKinley,

1988; Brown, 1992; Brownstein, 2001; Chickering, 1998; Duncan & Stewart, 1995; Dunlap & Peck, 1974; Hamrick, 1998; Levine, 1999; Levine & Cureton, 1998b; Loeb, 1994; Mangan, 2003; Rhoads, 1997, 1998a, 1998b; Van Dyke, 1998a, 1998b). Thus, this study will address an area of research rarely discussed in the literature, shifting the conversation to outcomes associated with student activism and more particularly the nature of leadership development outcomes among student activists.

Prior to determining how the results of this study contribute to existing research on student activism and leadership development, it is important to examine the theoretical and practical bodies of literature on these respective topics. This will provide insight into what types of experiences should be considered in developing measures of activism, as well as providing an understanding of what constitutes student development in a leadership context. This is the focus of the next section of this study, which will serve to provide perspective on how these two areas of the research canon within higher education may interrelate and inform the structure and methods employed in this research project. This effort will best serve to address existing gaps in the respective bodies of literature and will promote the effectiveness of research strategies used to understand how student activism relates to leadership development.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

This chapter reviews literature relevant to how participation in college activism relates to leadership development in students. The literature review will begin with an overview of leadership development research pertaining to college students. This will be followed by a discussion of the theoretical framework used in this project, the social change model (SCM) of leadership development (HERI, 1996). The chapter will then present research addressing student activism over the course of the history of higher education. This will illustrate areas of study that have not yet been addressed in research, particularly related to outcomes of activist participation. Finally, a discussion of research examining the relationship between student activism and leadership development will be reviewed.

Leadership Development Theory

Theoretical developments in the study of leadership have come from a variety of disciplines over the greater part of the past century, including sociology, anthropology, history, military science, political science, and management science, among others (Rost, 1991). While the content of these theories vary, the research can be distilled into two distinct bodies of thought, the industrial and post-industrial paradigms (Rost, 1993). The following sections will introduce central components of both paradigms while highlighting theoretical examples.

Industrial paradigm. The industrial paradigm focuses largely on leadership as effective management, and as such leadership development is equated to leader development (Rost, 1993). Primary characteristics of theories within this paradigm therefore focus on the individual leader and not the group. Theories reflect

characteristics or traits of a leader and frame the concept in a manner in which there can be no such thing as bad leadership, only a bad leader (Rost, 1993). In short, leadership is “great men and women with certain preferred traits influencing followers to do what the leaders wish in order to achieve group/organizational goals that reflect excellence” (Rost, 1991, p. 180). Examples include the trait, behavioral, and situational approaches, detailed below.

Trait theories. Trait theories emerged during the early part of the 20th century, following what were considered “great man” theories. These initial attempts at studying leadership in a more empirical form developed as a result of attempting to identify what qualities and characteristics were innate within great leaders in various settings (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Northouse (2004) summarized major leadership traits that were identified in some of the more prominent trait theories, including intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Despite the intuitive appeal of these theories, and the amount of research conducted over the greater part of a century, legitimate challenges lead to a dismissal of these theories as an accurate representation of leadership development. These criticisms centered on an inability to identify a universal set of traits that accurately separated successful leaders from unsuccessful leaders and the application of a particular series of traits to a variety of contexts (Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Behavioral theories. The focus of leadership development theories shifted to behavior during the 1950s and 60s (Komives et al., 2007). Efforts were made to identify a specific behavior or behaviors employed by a leader or manager in a variety of settings. Results indicated that consideration for subordinates, successful structuring of roles

toward goal attainment, and concern for production and high performance standards were among the behaviors employed by effective managers (Komives et al., 2007). However, difficulty in integrating various behavioral categories from the research, lack of consensus regarding which behavioral categories are relevant, and a general failure to include situational and group process variables resulted in criticism of the behavioral approach and the advent of situational theories (Komives et al., 2007; Yukl et al., 2002).

Situational theories. Limitations in the two previously identified theory bodies lead to situational or contingency theories, which take into account that various settings require a variety of types of leadership, and that in order to be an effective leader one needs to adapt their style based on the context (Northouse, 2004). Developed during the 1950s through the early 1980s, these theories stressed that leadership contains both a directive and supportive dimension and that managers can characterize a situation by assessing the relationship between the leader and subordinates, the clarity of required tasks, and the amount of reward or disciplinary powers bestowed upon the individual. The effectiveness of these theories is limited, however, by ambiguity and difficulty in their application, as well as a lack of accurate measures of theory tenets (Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Post-industrial paradigm. Towards the later part of the twentieth century, a shift began to take place in the theoretical conceptualization of leadership. Theories included in the post-industrial paradigm moved leadership from a concept focused on the individual, to one illustrating leadership as a process and focusing on change resulting from group interaction (Rost, 1991). Rost (1991) proposed a definition of leadership that is particularly representative of this theoretical body, envisioning leadership as “an

influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 116). Thus, a retreat occurred from leadership as good management and understood through examining the behaviors and traits of the leader toward the completion of organizational goals, to one of leadership as a process distinct from management, understood through the relationship between leaders and collaborators toward substantive change (Rost, 1993). Examples of theoretical models within this framework include transformational leadership and relational leadership theories, and the social change model of leadership development (Burns, 1978; HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 2007).

Transformational leadership. James MacGregor Burns (1978) developed one of the first theories representative of the post-industrial paradigm, transformational leadership. Among the fundamental principles of transformational leadership is the outcome of the interaction between leaders and followers. Leadership is described as the process of engagement between leader and follower that results in raising “one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 20). The group is unified in its pursuit of higher goals through the collective concern for the values, emotions, ethics, and motives of the respective members (Northouse, 2004). Thus, power is wielded by the leader primarily for the common purpose and not for reasons of manipulation or exploitation (Komives et al., 2007).

Relational leadership. The relational leadership model takes central tenets of transformational leadership and extends them to society as a whole. Here, leadership is conceptualized as the process associated with a group of individuals working collectively towards change or to benefit the common good (Komives et al., 1998, 2007). This

theoretical model provides an important frame of reference for examining leadership in various contemporary settings. The five components central to this theory state that leadership is “*inclusive* of people and diverse points of view, *empowers* those involved, is *purposeful* and builds commitment toward common purposes, is *ethical*, and recognizes that all four of those elements are accomplished by being *process-oriented*” (Komives et al., 1998, p. 68). This approach reinforces the notion that there is no singular approach to effective leadership and that relationships are key to leader effectiveness.

Social change model of leadership development. The social change model (SCM) of leadership development (HERI, 1996) is among the most contemporary and widely-used models and was designed to be employed for use with college student populations (Dugan, 2008; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Komives et al., 2009; Moriarty & Kezar, 2000). Two basic premises of the SCM are important to note. First, as indicative of the post-industrial paradigm, leadership is conceptualized not as an individual in a position of power but as a collective process (HERI, 1996). Secondly, the SCM “explicitly promotes the values of equity, social justice, self-knowledge, personal empowerment, collaboration, citizenship, and service” (HERI, 1996, p. 18).

The model seeks to facilitate student learning and development in two critical areas, self-knowledge and leadership competence. Self-knowledge is characterized as “understanding of one’s talents, values, and interests, especially as these relate to the student’s capacity to provide effective leadership” (HERI, 1996, p. 19). Leadership competence is the “capacity to mobilize oneself and others to serve and to work collaboratively” (p. 19). Due to the model’s focus on leadership capacity and social

change, the SCM views leadership development from three different levels: the individual, the group, and community/society (HERI, 1996). Understanding leadership development from the individual level involves asking, “what personal qualities are most supportive of group functioning and positive social change?” (p. 19). With respect to group development, “how can the collaborative leadership development process be designed not only to facilitate the development of the desired individual qualities but also to effect positive social change?” (p.19). Finally, in relation to the community and society level, “toward what social ends is the leadership development activity directed?” (p. 19). In order to examine the questions inherent in the three levels of the model, critical values were designated accordingly. These values are identified as Collaboration, Consciousness of Self, Commitment, Congruence, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, and Citizenship (HERI). Each of these values function as catalysts for the penultimate goal of change and are thus identified as the “7 C’s of leadership development for social change” (p. 21). These values organize under the three levels of the model in the following ways (also see Figure 1):

Individual Values

- Consciousness of Self
- Congruence
- Commitment

Group Process Values

- Collaboration
- Common Purpose
- Controversy with Civility

Community/Societal Values

- Citizenship
- CHANGE

Change, as the ultimate goal, gives “meaning and purpose to the 7 C’s” and is therefore often represented under the community/societal values level (p. 21). Each of the 7 C’s are described further below:

Consciousness of Self. Awareness of the influence of one’s beliefs, emotions, and values in the personal motivation to take action.

Congruence. The act of “thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity, and honesty toward others” (p. 22). Thus, congruent students or leaders are those individuals whose behaviors are consistent with their beliefs and attitudes.

Commitment. Refers to the energy that motivates the student to act or serve, implying the presence of passion and dedication. This value has a dualistic focus, directed toward both the activity of the group and the intended outcomes of the group.

Collaboration. Working with others toward a common goal. It functions as the “cornerstone value of the group leadership effort because it empowers self and others through trust” (p. 23). Successful efforts at collaboration include capitalizing on the contributions and offerings of all group’s members, and functions best when a division of labor is employed.

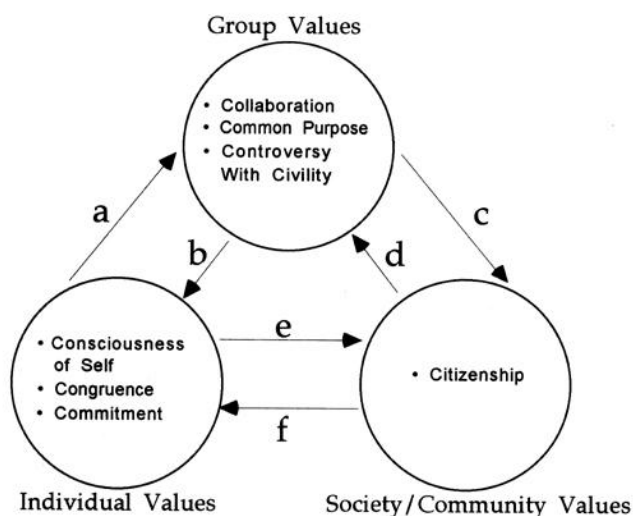
Common Purpose. Refers to working with a decided upon set of group values or goals. Is best facilitated “when all members of the group share in the vision and participate actively in articulating the purpose and goals of the leadership development

activity” (p. 23).

Controversy with Civility. Controversy, characterized as confrontation or conflict, can lead to innovative solutions to group problems. Civility refers to the practice of constructively responding to differences of opinion, focusing on respect for the opposing party. This value “recognizes two fundamental realities of any creative group effort: that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and that such differences must be aired openly but with civility” (p.23).

Citizenship. Defined as the “process whereby the individual and the collaborative group become responsibly connected to the community and the society through the leadership development activity” (p. 23). This value recognizes the contributions and presence of those involved in developing the activity, as well as the necessity to be cognizant of the needs and welfare of those individuals impacted by the efforts of the group.

These values identified in the three levels of the model interact in dynamic ways, influencing the manner in which social change results from leadership development efforts. Thus, “to apply the model in practice is to encourage students not only to exemplify the individual values in their own lives, but also to incorporate the group values in their interactions with others” (HERI, 1996, p. 27). Doing so successfully emphasizes the personal and interpersonal aspects of leadership development and group effectiveness, while remaining in congruence with the notion that activities that impact both on and off-campus communities provide a unique setting for student leadership development. The unique interaction between the central values and their contribution to the central goal of change is illustrated below.



The Social Change Model of Leadership

Reprinted from HERI (1996). *A social change model of leadership development: Guidebook version III*. Los Angeles: University of California Los Angeles Higher Education Research Institute. [Guidebooks are available from the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs; <http://www.nclp.umd.edu/>]

Figure 1. The Social Change Model of Leadership Development

As the history of leadership theory has been presented, it is now important to review empirical attempts to examine the impact of collegiate experiences on students' development as leaders. This knowledge will aid in determining which student involvement experiences to include in a model designed to assess the impact of such activities on the outcome of leadership development. This will be followed by an examination of student activism, including identifying previous research on the topic, and reviewing empirical attempts at identifying student development outcomes associated with participation in activism.

Leadership Development Research

Co-curricular involvement. Student participation in co-curricular experiences has been shown to positively impact leadership development in college students (Astin, 1993b; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000;

Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). As the significance of this participation on development varies greatly from study to study, it is important to undertake a thorough review of existing literature in order to best determine which types of experiences are most likely to positively impact involved students. Doing so will best inform attempts to develop a research model intended to determine how student activism experiences relate to leadership development.

A number of studies have sought to examine how participation in a variety of co-curricular experiences relates to leadership development of an individual. In Astin's (1993b) seminal longitudinal study on college impact, the construct of leadership was designed as a composite variable comprised of three self-reported items. How a student rated themselves in terms of leadership ability, social self-confidence, and popularity resulted in their composite leadership score. In examining co-curricular participation in numerous campus environments, Astin (1993b) found that participation in a social fraternity or sorority, volunteering, and participation in intramural sports contributed to larger than average increases in a student's leadership score. Furthermore, the amount of hours spent per week in student clubs or organizations and being elected to a student office were among the experiences demonstrating the highest correlations with self-assessed growth in leadership ability.

Kezar and Moriarty (2000) explored gender and ethnic identity variables in the context of the influence of collegiate experiences on student leadership development. This longitudinal study included a sample of 9,731 students at 352 different colleges and universities. Many types of co-curricular and extracurricular involvement were found to significantly contribute to student self-ratings on leadership ability over the course of

their undergraduate experience. Among White men, taking a leadership class, being a resident advisor, participating in ROTC, having an internship, and attending a racial or cultural awareness workshop were among the co-curricular experiences noted as significant predictors of leadership self-ratings. Extracurricular involvement demonstrating significance included being elected to office, intramurals, socializing with a different ethnic group, volunteer work, and being active in student organizations. Among White women, leadership courses, being a resident advisor, awareness workshops, elected office, intramurals, sorority participation, socialization with different ethnic groups, volunteering, and student organization participation were noted as significant. Results differed markedly for African American men and women, however. Leadership courses, ROTC involvement, awareness workshops, and volunteer work were the only experiences noted as significant predictors for African American men. For African American women, leadership courses, elected office, intramurals, and socialization with different ethnic groups played a significant role in predicting leadership self-ratings after four years of college.

In a dissertation examining high school and collegiate co-curricular experiences among regional community leaders, White (1998) asked participants through qualitative interviews to reflect on how different types of experiences played a role in their leadership education. Although participation in leadership experiences and student organizations influenced participant's leadership development, other factors such as student to student contact, paid work experience, academic major, community service, faculty and administrator contacts, and grades played a stronger role. Internships were also connected to leadership development; however, this was only a significant factor

among female participants.

Kuh (1995) interviewed seniors from twelve institutions in order to understand the impact of certain out-of-class experiences on student learning and personal development. Leadership responsibilities, a category consisting of such tasks as planning, managing, decision making, and organizing, was identified most often by participants as contributing to one's learning and personal development. When asked to reflect on which antecedent had the greatest influence on the participants during their college experience, leadership responsibilities were mentioned nearly as often as interactions with peers, the most frequently mentioned. Along with internships and work experience, leadership roles most often encouraged students to develop the skills necessary to succeed in the workplace, illustrating the vital position of these co-curricular opportunities to contribute to student learning and development.

These findings were similar to those found in a single institution survey of juniors and seniors conducted by Thompson (2006). In this study, students were asked to rate how eight different campus resources contributed to their attitudes and beliefs regarding leadership. These included: (1) arts, entertainment, or music groups, (2) coursework experiences, (3) faculty and administrative staff interactions, (4) intercollegiate or intramural athletics, (5) internships or other off-campus study, (6) political or social organizations (e.g. Greek or student government), (7) peer experiences, and (8) volunteering. Results showed that the strongest contributing resources to student leadership belief systems were interactions with faculty, staff, and peers. Internship and athletic experiences were also significant contributors to leadership attitudes and beliefs, albeit to a lesser degree.

Antonio (2001) sought to examine how interracial interaction influenced the development of leadership skills among college and university students. In this study, the dependent variable of leadership ability was represented by a student's self-rated score of interpersonal skills related to leadership. Students were grouped into two categories based on their self-assessment of close relationships among their peers, those that have friendships that primarily consist of members of their own race, and those that have racially heterogeneous relationships. In the case of students with primarily homogeneous relationships, higher levels of leadership ability were associated with involvement in group projects, studying with others, socializing with others, and participation in student government, Greek organizations, cultural awareness workshops, and protests. Participation in ethnic student organizations was the only measure where this was not the case, a finding reflected by Trevino (1992) which indicated that these organizations taken by themselves do not contribute to student self-ratings on leadership abilities gauged after four years of college. Among students with few same-race friends, leadership ability was positively associated with collaboration on group projects, group study, student government involvement, and attendance at cultural awareness workshops (Antonio, 2001).

In each of the studies mentioned above, leadership development was examined by placing it in context of a number of collegiate experiences or resources. Results illustrated the variety of ways in which leadership is conceptualized, as well as the myriad effects of participation in activities or contact with campus entities on student leadership development. The following sections highlight studies that focus on specific areas of co-curricular involvement in higher education, including fraternity and sorority

participation, leadership training experiences, and community service. Focus will then shift to research that has been conducted involving the social change model, specifically using data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). This will serve to illuminate the model in a more practical manner, while reiterating previously discussed out-of-class experiences impacting student leadership development and identifying additional involvement opportunities for consideration in the research model.

Fraternity and sorority involvement. In addition to previously discussed research highlighting the positive contributions of participation in fraternities or sororities on leadership development (Antonio, 2001; Astin, 1993b), other empirical attempts to understand the influence of involvement in these organizations have been conducted. Former chapter presidents of three international fraternities were surveyed ten years after their college experience to determine the impact of holding these positions on their individual leadership development (Kelley, 2008). The 134 participants representing 105 different colleges and universities reported that the experience did have a significant positive impact on the development of their leadership skills.

Participation in African American Greek organizations has also been examined in the context of leadership development. Kimbrough (1995) surveyed African American students who were both members and non-members of Black Greek-letter Organizations (BGOs) at a predominately White institution in order to assess their feelings toward membership and leadership. Results showed that approximately two-thirds of BGO members felt their leadership skills had improved since joining their respective fraternity or sorority. The hypothesis that members would participate in more leadership positions on campus also received support. Kimbrough and Hutcheson (1998) studied BGO and

non-BGO members at seven predominately White institutions (PWIs) and five historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs). Regardless of their campus type, BGO members indicated greater confidence in their leadership skills, as well as higher levels of student involvement, than their non-BGO counterparts. On HBCU campuses specifically, Greek organization members scored higher on measures of perceived leadership ability, leadership skill development, and student involvement.

Formal leadership training experiences. Efforts to design and implement formal programs focusing on leadership education and development have been occurring on campuses at an increasing rate (Astin & Astin, 2000; Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2009). One of the most sophisticated and thorough examinations of formal leadership programs were conducted by Cress et al. (2001). Using longitudinal survey data obtained from 875 students at ten colleges and universities, this study sought to understand the effectiveness of leadership programs and the impact of student development. Results indicated that students who participated in leadership development programs scored significantly higher on the three areas designed to assess leadership, identified as skills, values, and cognitive understanding. Five composite scales emerged from the data, designated as leadership understanding and commitment, leadership skills, personal and societal values, civic responsibility, and multicultural awareness and community orientation. Participants in leadership training and development programs scored higher than non-participants on all five measures.

Community service experiences. Results from the Cress et al. (2001) study showed that as participation in leadership programs positively contributed to growth in all five developmental areas, so did hours per week spent volunteering. Additional studies

have indicated positive connections between community service and leadership as well. Astin and Sax (1998) used entering freshman and follow-up data for 3,450 students from 42 institutions, including participants in service opportunities and non-participants functioning as the control group. Leadership ability was among the life skills enhanced through participation in service activities, and such was the case for each of the four types of service identified in the study. Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, and Yee (2000) used longitudinal data collected from a national sample of 22,236 students, some of whom participated in service learning (30%) while others participated in non-course based community service (46%). Results indicated that service participation showed significant positive influences on all outcome measures, including leadership. In a case study of the Student Leadership Program, Holsinger-Fuchs (2008) interviewed individuals who participated in service bus trips, entitled “Make a Difference” tours. Using a survey conducted after the experience by SLP administrators, 78% of participants indicated they felt fairly or strongly impacted by the tour in considering themselves to be a leader. Holsinger-Fuchs and SLP administrators note, however, that these results are from a simple satisfaction survey without statistical analysis.

The review of literature examining the influences of college experiences on leadership development thus far indicates the variety of possible impacts on student populations. In order to continue identifying relevant experiences to include in the research model for this study, attention will shift to reviewing research conducted examining the social change model. In particular, research using collected data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) will be explored. This dataset receives specific attention due to its purpose of examining leadership development in numerous

educational settings, the vital role of the social change model of leadership in the instrument's construction, and the recent nature of the data collection process.

After determining which types of college involvement experiences should be considered in the research model based on results of relevant research, a history of student activism research, including outcomes of participation, will be delineated. This will be followed by evidence indicating the importance of studying activism and leadership collectively, as well as a critique of the literature including in these sections. Through these efforts, rationale will be provided for an empirical attempt at understanding the relationship between participation in student activism and leadership development.

Research using the social change model. Exploring previous research conducted on leadership development outcomes and the social change model of leadership provides insight into determining types of involvement to be considered in the research design of this study. Dugan (2006b) examined the impact of various types of involvement on leadership development as indicated by participant scores on scales measuring each of the social change model variables. Using a sample of 859 undergraduates, participants were asked to indicate if they were involved in community service, positional leadership roles, general student organization membership, or formal leadership programs. Results indicated significant differences between students participating in these experiences and those that did not. Students indicating participation in community service activities scored higher on Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Citizenship. Students in positional leadership roles were significantly higher on Commitment, Collaboration, Common

Purpose, and Citizenship. Compared to non-involved students, participants in campus organizations scored higher on Common Purpose and Citizenship. This result was also found among student participants in formal leadership programs. Albeit to varying degrees, the evidence clearly illustrates the positive relationship of participation in the four involvement environments on leadership capacity through use of the social change model.

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. Further evidence exists of the impact of co-curricular involvement on leadership development as defined by the social change model. Empirical conclusions using data collected in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) are particularly important to note. The MSL employed the social change model as its theoretical base, and it utilized an online survey instrument consisting of items from the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Tyree, 1998), the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) survey (HERI, 2005), the National Study of Living Learning Programs (Inkelas & Associates, 2004) and additional items constructed in order to measure specific outcomes related to student leadership. The purpose of the study was to address three fundamental issues with scholarship related to leadership development, the “significant gap between theory and practice[,] an unclear picture of the leadership development needs of college students[,] and uncertainty regarding the influence of the college environment on leadership development outcomes” (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 8).

Two dissertation studies used subsamples of MSL participants in order to study co-curricular involvement and leadership development. Rosch (2007) conducted a series of analyses using a specific campus population of 856 from a large private institution in

the northeast. Four different types of involvement were used in this study, including participation in community service activities, general campus activities, on-campus employment, and leadership activities and training. Of these four environments, participation in community service and campus activities were more successful predictors of students' self-reporting on socially responsible leadership through social change model variables.

Using a sample of 898 students from a Midwestern public university of 3,237 undergraduates, Gerhardt (2008) examined whether there were significant differences between students participating or not participating in four different levels of involvement identified by the researcher. The first level consisted of students involved with fraternities or sororities and one other category within the 21 different types of student involvement noted on the MSL instrument. The second level consisted of students participating in three or more types of involvement but not in fraternities or sororities. A third consisted of students involved in one or two types and not in fraternities or sororities. The final level included students not involved in any extracurricular groups. Mean scores for students participating in fraternities or sororities and at least one other extracurricular group were significantly higher than those involved in one or two student groups, as well as those not involved. Students indicating participation in three or more types of involvement but not in fraternities or sororities also scored significantly higher on social change model measures compared to students participating in one or two groups, as well as non-participants.

Throughout this section, empirical efforts to understand the impacts of a variety of collegiate experiences on the development of leadership in students have been

discussed. While the nature of the design of these studies vary, examining existing scholarship on the topic certainly yields promising indicators of how co-curricular and extracurricular activities influence students both during and after participation. These areas include fraternity or sorority membership, volunteering, athletic participation, student organization involvement, holding an elected office, taking leadership courses or participating in a formal leadership program, and having an internship. As a result of their contributions to leadership development, these are important educational environments to consider in designing this research study, with the purpose of combining these involvement opportunities in a model along with participation in student activism. Including these various settings in the design will serve to indicate the ways in which student activism relates to leadership development in addition to these other empirically tested environments.

The focus of this literature review will now move to research related to student activism. This will begin with examining the nature of research on the topic, particularly noting the challenges to studying activism as a phenomenon as well as students as activists. Next, a general overview of the results of studying activism over the last fifty years will be provided. This will indicate areas that have been well researched, as well as highlighting existing gaps in the literature. Activism and student identity issues will follow the overview, illustrating the increasing role of student demographic characteristics in the presence of activism on campus. Scholarship linking leadership and student activism will then be discussed, providing support to the need to address the intersections of these topics. The chapter will then conclude by addressing the limitations of the bodies of literature for both leadership development and student activism,

furthering the argument for empirically testing the primary research question of this study.

Student Activism Research

Despite activism's prominence in the history of higher education, it is a difficult phenomenon to study. Shoben (1970) stated that, because student populations on campus are constantly diversifying in new ways, attempting to isolate concrete variables related to student involvement in activism is difficult to construct. As student generations are short, the nature of activist movements is sporadic, with a one or two year duration being unusual (Altbach, 1997). Altbach (1981) critiqued the literature on activism in general, stating that activism "research and analysis was stimulated by the crisis of the 1960s rather than by an intrinsic academic concern for the topic" (p. 3). As such:

No widely accepted theoretical perspectives on student activism emerged from the massive outpouring of writing on students of the 1960s. Most authors found that the rational difference, academic traditions and movements were so different that methodological approaches and ideological predilections have made the emergence of an accepted theoretical base even more difficult, and this lack of a theoretical perspective has hampered further research (Altbach, 1981, p. 4).

Abramowitz (1974) stated that attempting to integrate the literature regarding student activism is challenging due to its "widely scattered nature" (p. 104), while Wilson (1982) noted that although there are theoretical models, "there is no 'accepted theory' or comprehensive explanation of student political behavior" (p. 12).

In light of these issues in empirically studying activism, Corning and Myers (2002) sought to develop a measure to assess an individual's propensity for participating

in activism. The resulting Activism Orientation Scale (AOS) reported strong psychometric quality through utilization in the three studies reported in their article, demonstrating its potential utility in both on and off-campus settings across protests issues and movements. Besides this measure, however, much of the previous literature has sought to make sense of instances or movements related to activism, prescribing administrative responses or attempting to identify characteristics of activists. The next section will provide an introduction to this body of literature for the purpose of identifying variables related to student characteristics that will aid in developing the research model in this study. This will be followed with a discussion on an area of student activism that has been particularly well-researched in recent years, the connections between activism and issues of identity.

Themes in existing research. Much of the past literature and research on activism centered on understanding the topic from the mindset that it is a phenomenon that needs to be studied so that institutions can be prepared to deal with its presence and ultimate effect on the campus community. As a result, research exists on institutional factors related to activism (Astin et al., 1975; Banning & McKinley, 1988; Dunlap & Peck, 1974; Van Dyke, 1998a, 1998b), catalysts or causes of activism (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b; Astin et al., 1975; Brown, 1992; Brownstein, 2001; Chickering, 1998; Duncan & Stewart, 1995; Hamrick, 1998; Levine, 1999; Levine & Cureton, 1998; Loeb, 1994; Mangan, 2003; Rhoads, 1997, 1998a, 1998b), characteristics of students involved in activism (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b; Astin et al., 1975; Duncan & Stewart, 1995; Flacks, 1970; Kerr, 1970; Levin and Spiegel, 1977; Wilson, 1982), and methods employed by activists (Brownstein, 2001; Long and Foster, 1970; Rheingold, 2003). A common theme

through much of this literature is that activism is portrayed as a negative and problematic phenomenon. Therefore, the accompanying posit is that activism should be understood so that its impact on individuals or communities on and off-campus could be minimized or better controlled.

The tone and perception of activism has shifted significantly in recent years, however. Where research conducted during the 60s and 70s framed the presence of activism as problematic, welcoming activism as a unique developmental activity has become more prominent from the 80s forward (Biddix et al., 2009). Activism has been investigated for its positive effects during college and after (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), used to assess quality in undergraduate education (Kuh, 2001), and has been embraced for various educational contributions by other scholars (Astin, 1993a, Chickering, 1998; Hamrick, 1998; Komives & Harris, 2005). The following sections provide details regarding themes identified through examining existing research on activism, inclusive of various periods of research and related perceptions of activism. This is accompanied by a figure summarizing these components of the literature body, which highlights factors to be considered in developing the research model in this study (see Figure 2).

Institutional factors. Researchers have illustrated the role that campus climate plays in the evolution of student protest at an institution. Van Dyke (1998b) tested three hypotheses related to the type of campus most likely to be susceptible to protest activity. Results revealed that institutions that are selective, contain a large student population, and have a noted history of activism on campus are more likely to experience campus dissent. These results coincided with studies conducted two decades earlier illustrating that

<i>Institutional Factors</i> →	<i>Catalyst or Cause Related to the Incident</i> →	<i>Characteristics of Students Involved in Activism</i> →	<i>Methods Employed by the Activists</i> →
<p>Selective institution</p> <p>Large student population</p> <p>History of activism</p> <p>Comprehensive university</p> <p>Liberal Arts institution</p> <p>Activist movements currently in place</p> <p><i>Campus diffusion of a movement:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Similar endowment - Similar level of prestige - Similar institution type <p><i>Student perception of climate types:</i></p> <p>Political</p> <p>Bureaucratic</p> <p>Collegial</p> <p>Rational</p>	<p>Key political event or issue with broad social impact</p> <p>Provocative local decision or event</p>	<p>Studies social science or humanities</p> <p>Affluent SES background</p> <p>Well educated parents</p> <p>Raised in urban environment</p> <p>Liberal method of child-rearing</p> <p>High achieving student</p> <p>Student of color</p> <p>Reside on campus</p> <p><i>Kerr's (1970)</i> <i>Characterization of Protesters</i></p> <p>Issue by issue protester</p> <p>Liberal radical</p> <p>Radical radical</p> <p><i>Astin et al.'s (1975)</i> <i>Categories of Protesters</i></p> <p>Non-radical White students</p> <p>Student Government</p> <p>African American</p> <p>Radical Left</p>	<p>Violent Protest</p> <p>Physically destructive but non-violent</p> <p>Physical but non-destructive</p> <p>Diplomatic protest</p> <p>Use of technology as a tool</p>

Figure 2. Themes in student activism research

greater size and selectivity were significant factors in the presence of activism (Astin et al., 1975; Dunlap & Peck, 1974). Astin et al.'s (1975) research also showed that comprehensive universities and liberal arts institutions were more likely to host activism than their counterparts. In a separate study, Van Dyke (1998a) found that protest activity regarding one issue influenced the likelihood that protests would be taking place regarding other issues on the same campus, suggesting the "presence of multi-movement subcultures or movement communities" at an institution (p. 213). In an attempt to identify the ways in which a particular activist movement moved from campus to campus, Soule (1997) found that shantytown protests as a component of the student divestment movement spread among institutions with similar endowments, levels of prestige, and institution type.

Ropers-Huilman, Carwile, Lee, and Barnett (2003) investigated the ways in which perception of the campus culture influenced how students used change strategies. By interviewing twenty-six student activists at a large public university, four different types of culture were identified. If students perceived campus as political in nature, they would seek to form coalitions in order to forcefully encourage change. If they viewed campus as bureaucratic, they would work with formal leadership positions (i.e. student government) to create change. A collegial campus culture encouraged open dialogue related to issues. Lastly, a rational culture would encourage students to "present arguments that will appear reasonable and compelling in initiating change" (p. 15).

Catalyst or cause related to the incident. A great deal of research has been conducted on potential causes of activism, particularly involving factors that may exist nationally, regionally, or locally that result in the presence of protest on campus. A "key

political event or issue with a broad social impact” is the factor identified as most influential in considering potential catalysts to activism (Altbach, 1989b, p. 10). Examples include the four distinct movements prevalent during the 1960s and early 1970s, the years most often associated with political activism on campuses across the country. Students actively voiced their concerns regarding the Vietnam War, civil rights, civil liberties, and the role of higher education in student life (Altbach, 1989a; Astin et al., 1975). Protest of war is a common theme throughout the history of higher education, as activism has been documented in response to the Revolutionary, Persian Gulf, and Iraq wars (Brown, 1992; Duncan & Stewart, 1995; Mangan, 2003). These war demonstrations can be linked to an overall sense of nationalism, which Altbach (1989a, 1989b) described as another factor contributing to the presence of activism.

Chickering (1998) identified provocative local decisions or events as a second catalyst to activist behavior on college and university campuses. These actions manifest themselves in a diverse array of localized activism. Community service and volunteerism are excellent examples of students creating change on campus while addressing local issues (Hamrick, 1998; Loeb, 1994). Through focusing attention on their campus or limited surrounding community, student activists are able to see more immediate returns on their efforts (Levine & Cureton, 1998a). As opposed to attempting to effect national or global issues, participants in activism seek to “accomplish what they see as manageable and possible” (Levine, 1999, p. A52).

Characteristics of students involved in activism. Determining characteristics of activists has been attempted by researchers over the years, but often these findings are reflective of activists during a specific point in time and must be taken in context. Astin

et al. (1975) found that student activists often study the humanities and social sciences, and that students living on campus were more likely to engage in activist behavior, due to their residential connection to the campus community. Flacks (1970) noted similar findings, adding that the typical family of a student activist is secular in nature and is often not affiliated with a particular religious institution. Duncan and Stewart (1995) found that student's reactions to the Persian Gulf War were closely connected to their parents' reactions to the Vietnam War.

Altbach (1989a, 1989b) detailed six characteristics present in activist leaders. First, activists typically major in social science and humanities fields. Secondly, activist leaders tend to come from affluent socioeconomic backgrounds. Thirdly, parents of student activists are well educated and are more likely to come from urban environments. It has also been shown that the "child-rearing and general attitudinal patterns of the families of activists are more liberal than in the general population" (1989a, p. 103). Research has illustrated that students participating in activism tend to be high achieving students who receive excellent grades in their coursework. In addition, activists of all ideologies scored significantly higher on intelligence scores when compared to non-activists (Kerpelman, 1969). Lastly, activist leaders tend to possess a racial or ethnic minority status (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b). These results, while developed during various points in the last forty years, serve to provide a degree of insight into general characteristics of students who participated in activism during these periods.

Recent research involving a nationally representative sample of youth 15-25 years old indicates the role of race and ethnicity in political and civic participation (Lopez et al., 2006). In comparison to Whites, Asian-Americans, and Latinos, African-Americans

emerged as the most politically engaged racial or ethnic group. Participants indicated they were most likely to vote, belong to political groups, donate money to political candidates, display campaign paraphernalia, contact the media, and raise money for charity. Asian-American youth were the group most likely to work on community problems, volunteer on a regular basis, boycott, sign petitions, raise money for charity (tied with African-Americans), and persuade others about an election. While Latinos were the group least likely to volunteer or engage in other political activities, 25% participated in a protest, a rate twice that of any other racial or ethnic group. In examining the most civically and politically engaged youth, this group was more likely to be African-American, democratic, liberal, urban, a regular church attendee, from a family with parents who volunteer, a current student in college or high school, and from a college-educated home (Lopez et al., 2006).

Beyond demographic and background characteristics, researchers have also sought to identify different types of student activists. Kerr (1970) sought to categorize student activists and developed three groups that he felt encapsulated the activist population during the 1960s. The first group consists of issue-by-issue protesters, who seek to engage the institution and campus community during specific opportunities based on a particular issue. Liberal radicals are a second category, consisting of students who view society or specific components therein as needing to restructure in response to specific problems. Lastly, radical radicals are students who are the most disruptive during instances of campus dissent. These students believe that social problems can only be solved by changing society as a whole and are willing to take whatever steps necessary in order to see these changes occur.

Astin et al. (1975) described four types of students that constitute the majority of the activist population at the time. The authors stated that contrary to public opinion, non-radical white students are the most involved group of activists on campus. This group was involved in 83% of protests included in their study. Leaders within student government organizations are another subset that were heavily involved. Twenty five percent of protests in their sample included some degree of involvement by student organizations. African American students led approximately 15% of demonstrations related to student life and were a great deal more active in protests related to race and ethnicity issues. Finally, “radical left students” were also very much involved in activism on campus. Characteristics of events with a prevalent radical population tended to relate to war and other large-scale social issues.

Altbach (1989a) provided yet another method of conceptualizing student movements on campus. His description of the “three rings of activist participation” focuses on the knowledge and awareness of parties included in a particular movement or protest (p. 102). The core leadership constitutes the first ring and is made up of a small group of students who possess a great deal of information regarding the appropriate issues and are more radical in approach when compared to their peers. Active followers represent the second ring and are characterized as a somewhat larger body of students that are well aware of the issues and are willing to participate in protests as a result. The third ring consists of a large group of students who are sympathetic and aware of a particular issue, yet are only rarely involved directly.

Despite the dated nature of portions of this scholarship, certain components of the findings continue to be relevant for this study. Considering parental education and

income level may be helpful in isolating certain student characteristics in designing the research model. Demographic characteristics such as race and ethnicity should also be considered, based on the rates of participation among various groups and the historical nature of activism geared toward addressing such issues as civil rights and civil liberties.

Methods employed by activists. Although the manner in which activists choose to convey their message to respective parties has varied greatly over time, Long and Foster (1970) offered four categories that assist in making sense of the myriad approaches to activism. Violent protest involves the destruction of property, physical altercations, or other potentially dangerous forms of protest behavior. Physically obstructive but non-violent protest includes instances where campus officials were detained against their will, building access was prevented, or other disruption of normal campus operations. Physical but non-obstructive types of protest include picketing, marching, and other forms of mass gathering. Lastly, diplomatic protests can contain petitions, demands by student organizations, or other forms of written communication conveyed to on or off-campus entities.

An important current and future trend to detail is the impact of technology. Developing forms of technology have been integrated as tools almost instantaneously by student activists. Levine (1999) stated that as early as the 1990s, protests included cell phones and laptops. Brownstein (2001) discussed the use of cell phones as tools for activists, as part of a “revolution...of pagers and modems” (p. 3). Rhoads (1998a) cited the role of the internet in bringing together activists focused on human rights violations. Described by Rheingold (2003) as “smart mobs,” these groups consist of individuals “who are able to act in concert even though they don’t know each other” (p. xii). Recent

examples of activism utilizing new technologies have taken place across the globe, including the overthrow of a presidential regime by cell phone text messaging in the Philippines, using mobile phones, websites, and handheld computers to demonstrate against the World Trade Organization, and bicycle activists using email trees and mobile phone alerts to communicate information on upcoming demonstrations (Rheingold, 2003).

The themes in existing research on activism identified above provide assistance in understanding the nature of much of the scholarship on the topic. Certain elements are important to note related to addressing the research problem in this project. First, characteristics of students involved in activism should be considered for inclusion in the research model of this study. Isolating identifiers related to student upbringing and demographics are complementary to efforts designed to develop a clear understanding of activism's relationship to leadership development. This includes parental education and income levels, and student's race or ethnicity. While the previous sections introduced the role of one's conceptualization of personal identity and its interaction with activism, efforts to examine these intersections more intentionally are well documented in the literature. The following section details findings from such scholarship, illustrating how race, gender, and sexual orientation have played a role in the presence of activism historically.

Activism and issues of identity. The 1960s and 70s, often regarded as the period where activism was most prevalent on campuses across the country, acted as the advent of protest movements related to student identity issues. The civil rights struggles of the period catalyzed racial and ethnic-based activism, most notably in the African American

protest movement (Rogers, 2006; Roy, 2000; Thomas & McKenzie, 2005) and the Chicano student movement (Valle, 1996). Activism directed toward gender issues was also present, as this period witnessed the beginnings of the feminist movement (Cole, Zucker, & Ostrove, 1998; Goldschmidt, Gergen, Quigley, & Gergen, 1974). Finally, sexual orientation-themed activism emerged in the 1970s when the Gay Liberation Movement began to take shape (Warren & DeLora, 1978).

This period of heightened public awareness of student activism was not the conclusion of identity-based activism on college and university campuses. More recent research has addressed the notion of identity politics, and the role of students' self identification in choosing to engage in activist behavior (Stevens, 2000; Williams, 1994). The term "identity politics" in itself has spurred controversy, as two researchers have advanced differing connotations of the phenomenon. D'Souza (1991) argued that the presence of activism directed toward components of an individual's identity is averse to the concept of a common national identity and is therefore divisive in nature. Meanwhile Rhoads (1997; 1998a; 1998b) viewed the presence of identity-based activism differently, valuing activism focused on demographic characteristics as a "commitment to building a multicultural democracy" (1997, p. 508). This is echoed by Hamrick (1998), stating that "dissenting students call institutional attention to discrepancies in intent and practice with respect to multiculturalism" (p. 457).

Regardless of how these types of activism are perceived or interpreted, there is little dispute as to the prominence of identity politics and demographically-based activism on campuses in recent years. Wilson (1982) noted the "expansion of politically active self-interest or affinity groups such as women's groups and minority student

groups” (p. 94) as evidence of new tactics and forms of expression in the 1980s. Levine and Cureton (1998a) found that seven out of ten campuses reported growth in membership for support/advocacy groups during the 1990s. Of the campuses experiencing activism, nearly fifty percent of the activism was related to multiculturalism, including 37% directed toward gender issues and 15% regarding sexual orientation. In Rhoads’ (1997; 1998a; 1998b) analysis of over 200 incidents of activism in the 1990s, 60-80% of the events dealt with either racial or ethnic issues, women’s concerns, or activities directed toward gay rights. Evidence of what Rhoads (1998a) described as a “Multicultural Student Movement” (p. 20) is echoed by numerous other researchers (Hamrick, 1998; Levine, 1999; Levine & Cureton, 1998b; Loeb, 1994; Rhoads, 1997, 1998b). More recent instances include activism directed toward affirmative action policies in admissions practices (Brownstein, 2001), the related U.S. Supreme Court decisions regarding admissions at the University of Michigan (Anyaso, 2006), and student initiated retention programs (SIRPs) geared toward retaining underrepresented student populations (Maldonado, Rhoads, & Buenavista, 2005; Rhoads, Buenavista, & Maldonado, 2004).

Research has also been conducted on investigating the influence of identity characteristics on students’ participation in activism. Williams (1994) interviewed 21 students at two liberal arts colleges regarding the role of their identity to their involvement in activism. Participants were asked what role their race, gender, sexual orientation, religion, and class played in their decision to become active. Gender, race, and religion were identified as central to activism at one campus, while race and gender were pivotal to activists at the second institution.

The manner in which an institution emphasizes diversity on campus also has an impact on student activism. In addition to positively influencing student satisfaction with the college experience, emphasizing diversity either institutionally or through faculty members has positively influenced student participation in protests (Astin, 1993a). The number of ethnic studies and women's studies courses taken during a student's time on campus also had a weak but positive effect on participation in protests (Astin, 1993a). Women's studies courses have also been shown to positively influence activism and social attitudes, including enhancing student tolerance, recognizing inequalities in social and political structures, and one's desire to contribute to social change (Stake & Hoffman, 2001). Liss, Crawford, and Popp (2004) found that having taken a course on women's issues positively correlated with feminist collective action. This is the case for cultural awareness workshops as well, as attendance at such programs has been significantly associated with participation in campus demonstrations and social activism (Astin, 1993a).

Further connections were made between race/ethnicity and activism in Astin's (1993b) longitudinal study on college impact. The Social Activism scale is particularly notable; and indicates the importance a student assigns to a life-goal association with participating in community activism, helping others in need, and influencing social values and political structures. Findings illustrated that students from underrepresented racial and ethnic populations, particularly African Americans and Chicanos, scored higher than other students on the Social Activism scale. Social Activism and Community Orientation, an environmental measure employed in the faculty portion of the study, had a positive effect on a student's Social Activism score. This measure, indicating the

perception of the institution as concerned with producing social change agents and its resulting connections to the Social Activism scale, illustrates “clear-cut evidence that institutional values or priorities can have a direct effect on student’s values” (p. 116). Relevant student involvement measures indicating a positive relationship with the Social Activism scale included discussing racial or ethnic issues with others, socializing with students of different racial or ethnic backgrounds, attending cultural awareness workshops, and participation in campus demonstrations.

Research has also shown that participation in activism has had a positive influence on student development outcomes. Astin (1993b) found that participating in student activism had strong positive associations with cultural awareness and commitment to promoting racial understanding. Activist participation was also associated with an increased commitment to environmental cleanup, developing a meaningful life philosophy, growth in artistic interests and leadership abilities, aspiring to seek advanced degrees, and increased chances in voting in a presidential election. The only negative connection to participating in campus protests was an increase in a student’s degree of hedonism, a measure defined as consuming beer, smoking cigarettes, and staying up all night.

In Williams’ (1994) qualitative study of student activists, positive developmental changes were identified for members of both campuses. Each of the eight African American males interviewed on one campus felt activism had changed them as individuals, including learning organizational skills, communication skills, social skills, gaining confidence, and developing one’s racial identity. The majority of the thirteen females interviewed at the second campus, constituting a variety of racial and ethnic

backgrounds, also noted that activism had changed them. Gaining interpersonal skills, leadership skills, strengthening personal beliefs, greater self-awareness, and an ability to stand up for their rights were mentioned as outcomes of participation in activism among this group.

While research indicating positive outcomes of participating in student activism is limited, reviewing scholarship over the past fifty years illustrates promising rationale for further study. Although applicability of portions of previous research are limited by the dated nature of the results, elements of common themes discussed above have emerged as consistently relevant over time. Evidence indicating the role of parental characteristics and the intersections of a student's identity and activism have been well documented in previous sections. Examples of the influence of activist participation and the impact on a student's perception of leadership have also been discussed (Astin, 1993b; Williams, 1994). The next section will detail additional literature connecting student activism and leadership development. This will provide further rationale for investigating the central research question in this study.

Student Activism and Leadership Development

Until recently, much of the scholarship on student activism tended to frame its presence on campus in a negative light, characterizing participants and the related issues or movements as problems to be addressed and contradictory to the educational process (Chambers & Phelps, 1994). However, recognizing activism as a form of leadership and student development can be beneficial for both administrators and students, including:

- (a) refocusing educators' perspectives on the constructive/progressive aspects of activism, as opposed to the destructive/regressive aspects; (b) revising operational

definitions of student leadership, and the premises upon which leadership programs are developed, to recognize the value of activist behavior and thought; and (c) exploring, in future research efforts on both leadership and development, the different dynamics of development that occur among student activists (Chambers & Phelps, 1993, p. 27).

Chambers and Phelps (1994) concluded that all forms of activism are forms of student leadership based on their definition of activism, the “active participation of individuals in group behavior, for the purpose of creating change” (pp. 45-46). Komives and Harris (2005) expanded on these connections, stating that as campus activism typically occurs in groups, activism represents a “powerful leadership pedagogy” (p. 12).

Empirical efforts to demonstrate connections between activism and leadership among college students are limited, yet there are examples important to note. A study examining the influence of participation in a group community activism project on the development of leadership skills was conducted by Galambos and Hughes (2000). The participant population consisted of fifteen women enrolled in a social policy course at a small liberal arts college. Participation in the activism project had a distinct influence on their self-perceptions as team members and effective leaders. The project also influenced their ability to work collaboratively and was described as a catalyst for later activism. Astin’s (1993b) college impact study also indicated connections between activism and leadership. In an effort to explore the amount of time per week spent in engaging in volunteer activities, strong positive correlations with Social Activism and Leadership personality measures were discovered. Other significant correlations with volunteer activities included participation in campus demonstrations and self-assessed increases in

leadership ability.

Astin's (1993b) Leader and Social Activist student types were investigated with the Leadership Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (LABS-III) and a measure of life-long learning in a study conducted by Wielkiewicz, Prom, and Loos (2005). The LABS-III (Wielkiewicz, 2000) measures leadership and organizational adaptation through two scales: Hierarchical Thinking, which deals with beliefs in the hierarchical nature of leadership, and Systemic Thinking, which purports that leadership and organizational success is due to the interaction of various factors. Results indicated that Systemic Thinking was most strongly associated with the Social Activist type and that higher scores on the life-long learning scale were related to the higher scores on the Social Activist measure (Wielkiewicz et al., 2005). Therefore, Wielkiewicz et al. (2005) suggested that "practitioners interested in leadership development may find it fruitful to broaden their definitions of leadership development activities to include service learning trips, social welfare activities, learning communities, volunteering, internships, and others" (p. 39).

With a developed understanding of the bodies of literature regarding leadership development and student activism, including relevant theoretical underpinnings, historical perspectives, research related to outcomes of involvement, and intersections in the research canon, a critical review of the literature included in this chapter will now be discussed. The chapter then concludes with a reiteration of the purpose of this study, leading into the following chapter discussing the research methodology.

Critique of Related Literature

Strengths and limitations accompany the body of knowledge informing this

research project. Despite the literature indicating connections between involvement in co-curricular experiences and leadership development covered in this chapter, much is to be learned about these intersections, particularly related to student outcomes (Kuh, 1995). This is due, in part, to issues with the manner in which previous research has been conducted. In their review of leadership development interventions over the last 100 years, Avolio and Gardner (2005) found that while 65% used undergraduate students as primary study participants, few of the studies were designed for the college student population. Therefore, findings are difficult to apply to student populations due to a lack of consideration of the student development literature canon. As was discussed in the context of theoretical perspectives on leadership development, the shifting nature of the concept of leadership, as well as the lack of a mutually accepted definition, contributes to a variety of interpretations of leadership and how it is understood among college students. Thus, much of the research conducted does not employ conceptual models designed for the college student population and instead relies on atheoretical and general measures of leadership (Dugan, 2006b, 2008). These issues with the literature base contribute to a disconnect between theory and practice and an unclear understanding of the role of college environments on student leadership development (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Limitations accompany research related to student activism as well. As noted previously, the phenomenon is difficult to study due to the limited lifespan of incidences or broader activist movements (Altbach, 1997). The lack of an accepted theoretical base informing research efforts affects the manner in which we accept empirical results (Altbach, 1981; Wilson, 1982) and ultimately apply findings to practice. Also, portions of the literature are dated in nature and hold questionable applicability to a contemporary

context.

With the exception of certain studies illustrating the influence of activist participation on student identity and development (Astin, 1993b; Williams, 1994), few examples of other outcomes related to how participation influences student development exist in the literature base. This is certainly the case for studies examining the interactions of student activism and leadership development (Chambers & Phelps, 1993). As a result of the gap in the literature base discussing the interaction of these two topics, an inquiry into the ways in which these two variables relate to student development is theoretically unfounded. Needless to say, this is a research arena ripe for exploration.

Despite the lack of research illustrating activism and leadership development connections, other components of this research project have been well investigated. First, Astin's (1993b) I-E-O model, the conceptual framework in this project, has been well researched (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). The social change model has also been well researched and is considered one of the most recognized student leadership models (Moriarty & Kezar, 2000). Finally, the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, which measures leadership development and capacity along the eight values of the SCM, has been empirically tested (Tyree, 1998). Since the development of the initial version of the instrument, two subsequent revisions have taken place, holding reliability and validity levels relatively constant (Appel-Silbaugh, 2005; Dugan, 2006c).

Conclusion

Throughout this literature review, bodies of knowledge to be utilized in developing a research project examining how participation in college student activism relates to leadership development have been described. While few existing studies speak

to the intersections of activism and leadership, researchers have noted the importance of this inquiry. Since “college student activism influences change beyond students themselves and the education institution in which they are a part,” it is crucial to study the influences of instances of activism, their impact on campuses, as well as educational outcomes for participating students (Chambers & Phelps, 1994, p. 45). After all, members of the campus community have “an educational and developmental obligation to foster student learning in a variety of contexts” (Rhoads, 1997, pp. 516-517). This gap in the literature base and the resulting need for further study is compounded by the fact that activism continues to be a relevant issue within higher education today. Astin (1993b) observed that the rate of activism on campus in 1990 was higher than that observed in the late 1960s, a period often considered the height of college student activism. Levine and Cureton (1998a, 1998b) noted that 93% of the campuses they visited had witnessed activism in the prior two years. Despite these indicators, few empirical attempts have been made to understand activism since the turn of the century (Biddix, 2006). Although “protest activities are often seen by some faculty, and especially campus administrators, as a nuisance or possibly even as detrimental to campus order and tranquility, engaging in such protests seems to be associated with generally positive outcomes for the individual student participant” (Astin, 1993a, p. 48). As a result, this research project seeks to study these phenomena, therefore addressing the existing gap in the literature. Focus now shifts to research methodologies selected to study student activism and leadership development, including descriptions of the sample chosen, instrumentation utilized, and data collection and analysis procedures.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of participation in college activism to leadership development. In order to study activism in this manner, this project employed survey data collected as part of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). The MSL was a quantitative study conducted in 2006 using a cross-sectional, causal comparative design. The research group consisted of graduate students, a faculty member, and full-time practitioners interested in studying leadership development among college students. The purpose of the MSL was to enhance the existing knowledge base on college student leadership development, while also seeking to understand the role of activism in leadership development and how higher education influences student leadership capacity (Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2006).

The process involved in creating the survey, as well as how it was used to measure leadership development variables, is described below. This will inform the construction of the research model used in this study. Due to the lack of empirical research indicating a relationship between activism and leadership development, the research question in this study is posed in the form of a null hypothesis. Thus, because there is little evidence indicating a connection between the variables, it is assumed that participation in activism will not have a statistically significant relationship with leadership development measures. The hypothesis to be tested is:

Participation in student activism will not significantly predict participant's scores on any of the eight variables contained within the social change model of leadership development, after controlling for participant characteristics, pre-college experience, and consideration of select college experiences.

Design of Study

Conceptual framework. The model chosen to study college student development in this research project is the inputs-environments-outcomes (I-E-O) framework devised by Astin (1991; 1993b). This conceptual model was selected due to its ability to “assess the impact of various environmental experiences by determining whether students grow or change differently under varying environmental conditions” (Astin, 1993b, p. 7). Inputs, the first variable in the framework, refer to pre-existing conditions of the student prior to entry into higher education. Examples of inputs include demographic characteristics from race or ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation to high school achievement measures such as grade point average and student participation in specific experiences before college. Environments, the second variable, refer to students’ exposure to educational programs, experiences, and relationships that impact their development while enrolled at an institution of higher education. Examples of environments include curricular and co-curricular experiences such as participation in student leadership opportunities, living in residence halls on campus, interactions with faculty, and participation in a campus protest. The final variable, outcomes, refers to student characteristics after having been exposed to experiences related to environmental variables. Student attitudes, cognitive ability, and organization skills are examples of outcomes to be measured. Therefore, “change or growth in the student during college is determined by comparing outcome characteristics with input characteristics” (Astin, 1993b, p. 7).

Due to the fact that data was collected at only one interval, employment of the I-E-O model in a longitudinal fashion was not present in this study. Instead, data was

gathered in a cross-sectional manner, seeking to obtain valuable information at a singular point in time (Mertens, 2005). Additionally, quasi-pre-tests were used retrospectively in order to ask the participating student to assess themselves on various dimensions prior to starting college.

There are a number of variables included as inputs, and as customary, demographic variables were included in this group. The four demographic variables were class standing, race or ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation. Justification for controlling for these variables comes from literature that highlights the influence of components of identity and identity politics in activism today (Lopez et al., 2006). In addition to these demographic characteristics, two other variables assessing parents' levels of education and income were also controlled due to previous research that illustrates that activist students typically come from affluent, well-educated backgrounds (Altbach, 1989a, 1989b; Flacks, 1970; Lopez et al., 2006). Next, participant's class standing was included for purpose of assisting in the data analysis process. This was followed by a quasi-pre-test that pertained to activism. This pre-test measure assessed students' participation in activism prior to coming to college, asking the student to note involvement in activism in any form. Finally, the quasi-pre-tests for each of the eight SCM variables were included as inputs. This decision coincides with research that highlights the importance of controlling for as many student inputs as possible when seeking an accurate measurement of outcomes (Astin, 1993b).

Institution type classifications were the first environmental variables entered into the model. This included campus size, whether the institution was public or private, religious or secular, and the campus's Carnegie classification. This was due to research

indicating institution type contributed to the presence of activism on campuses (Astin et al., 1975; Dunlap & Peck, 1974; Soule, 1997; Van Dyke, 1998b). It should be noted, however, that research has shown that the influence of the college environment on leadership development is largely based on students' experiences and not characteristics of the institution (Astin, 1993b; Kimbrough & Hutcheson, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Participation in various forms of activism, as well as in other campus experiences constituted other environments used in the quasi-I-E-O model. Using items based on the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) survey (HERI, 2005), and items developed through a literature review conducted by MSL research team members, students were asked to report on how often they engaged in activism related behavior during their college experience. These items were designed based on literature on civic engagement and activism that indicated types of behavior practiced by individuals interested in social change. These behaviors included paying attention to local, national, or global issues, signing a petition or sending an email about a political issue, making consumer decisions based on political views, contacting public officials or members of the media in order to express an opinion, or taking part in a demonstration.

In addition to the items regarding activism, numerous other environmental variables were used as a means of understanding how participation in activism relates to leadership development along with other campus experiences. These items reflected findings in the literature indicating a positive influence on leadership development through student participation in such experiences. These areas included fraternity or sorority membership (Antonio, 2001; Astin, 1993b; Gerhardt, 2008; Kelley, 2008;

Kimbrough, 1995; Kimbrough & Hutchison, 1998), athletic participation (Astin, 1993b; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Thompson, 2006), student organization involvement (Antonio, 2001; Astin, 1993b; Dugan, 2006b; Gerhardt, 2008; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch, 2007), participation in leadership programs and courses (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006b; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), having an internship (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kuh, 1995; Thompson, 2006; White, 1998), holding an elected office or positional leadership role in a student organization (Astin, 1993b; Dugan, 2006b; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), and participation in community service and service learning activities (Astin, 1993b; Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 2000; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006b; Holsinger-Fuchs, 2008; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch, 2007; White, 1998).

Finally, outcomes identified in this study emerged from the social change model (HERI, 1996) of leadership development. As such, each of the eight critical values included in the SCM, Collaboration, Consciousness of Self, Commitment, Congruence, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change functioned as individual outcomes in the I-E-O model. A visual representation of the I-E-O model used in this study is shown in Table 1.

Description of Sample

Sample. Solicitation of interest in participating in the MSL was generated through use of three listservs utilized by faculty and student affairs and leadership education practitioners during the summer of 2005. Of the initial group of approximately 150 interested colleges and universities across the country, purposeful sampling procedures were employed to select 55 participant institutions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). These institutions were selected in order to create a diverse group representing the

Table 1

Conceptual Framework for Research Project

Inputs	Environments	Outcomes
Demographic Variables Gender Race or Ethnicity Sexual Orientation Class Standing Parental Education Level Parental Income Level Activism Pre-test SCM Pre-Tests Consciousness of Self Congruence Commitment Collaboration Common Purpose Controversy with Civility Citizenship Change	Institution Type Size Control Religious or Secular Carnegie Classification Activism Scales Passive Awareness Participatory Activism Campus Involvement Fraternity/Sorority Athletic participation Student organizations Leadership programs & courses Internship Community service Elected or Positional Leadership Roles	SCM Scales Consciousness of Self Congruence Commitment Collaboration Common Purpose Controversy with Civility Citizenship Change

variation in higher education institutions in the US. This included variations in size, Carnegie type, geographic location, religious affiliation, and student population of focus. Of the 55 institutions initially included in the sample, data for only 52 of the colleges and universities were utilized (See Appendix A). Two institutions removed themselves from the study prior to data collection, and a third failed to engage enough participants to effectively represent the institution.

Participating institutions with enrollments over 4,000 students were asked to

provide a sample of students from their undergraduate population employing simple random sampling, based on a standardized 95% confidence level with a ± 3 margin of error. In addition, institutions were asked to oversample by 70% in consideration of the 30% return rate typical of web-based surveys (Couper, 2001; Crawford, Couper, & Lamias, 2001). Colleges and universities with enrollment levels below 4,000 students were asked to utilize simple random sampling for the entire student population.

Number of subjects. The total sample size for the MSL national study was 155,716 students. Of this sample, 56,854 submitted usable surveys, constituting a return rate of approximately 37%. After eliminating responders who did not complete 90% of the SRLS-R2 items, 50,378 students remained in the random sample. The total number of students who responded to the activism subscales was 12,510. This group of student participants constituted the population used in this study.

Instrument

This study employed the MSL survey instrument consisting of items based on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Tyree, 1998), activism scales developed by the research team, items designed to assess pre-college characteristics and collegiate experiences, and various demographic items. For purposes of this study and the associated relevance, specific attention will be paid to the development of variables used in the I-E-O model discussed previously.

Social change model scales. Tyree (1998) designed an instrument to measure socially responsible leadership processes for college students. The impetus to develop this measure came from a desire to operationalize the social change model (HERI, 1996) of leadership development, as well as to address a void in available instruments

addressing leadership development for college students. The instrument itself was designed to incorporate the eight critical values of the SCM. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to generate the individual scales measuring each value. As such, 10 to 12 items were included on the instrument for each variable, designed to assess student development along the eight values. The resulting instrument consisted of 103 items, asking participants to self report on a 5-point Likert scale continuum ranging from a response of (1) for strongly disagree to (5) for strongly agree. Internal consistency and validity tests were conducted to assess the value of the instrument, resulting in strong indicators of validity, as well as encouraging reliability scores ranging from .69 for the Controversy with Civility scale to a value of .92 for the Citizenship scale (Tyree, 1998).

As the original instrument was too long to be included in the MSL in its entirety, efforts were made to reduce the number of items for each of the scales using standard data reduction techniques (DeVellis, 2003) and resulted in an instrument consisting of 83 items holding similarly strong scale reliabilities (Appel-Silbaugh, 2005). This version, the SRLS-R, was used in the initial MSL pilot study and was subsequently reduced once again to a total of 68 items employing identical techniques (Dugan, 2006c). Each of the value constructs in the social change model of leadership (Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, Collaboration, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change) used in the design of the SRLS-R2 consisted of between 6 and 11 items. These Likert-type items allowed participants to self-report on a five-point scale, ranging from a value of (1) for strongly disagree to a value of (5) for strongly agree (see Table 2). Reliability scores for these eight variable constructs ranged from .77 for Controversy with Civility and Citizenship to .83 for Commitment in the MSL study (see

Table 3) (Dugan, 2008).

Activism scales. The MSL research team conducted a literature review in order to develop items designed to assess students' participation in activism. Literature on civic engagement and activism were examined to indicate types of behavior practiced by those interested in social change. Combining information gleaned from this process with items based on the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) survey, a series of questions were developed that asked students to report on how often they engaged in activism related behavior during their college experience. These items were then analyzed to examine reliabilities as well as to investigate the possibilities of scale construction. This occurred during a secondary pilot study conducted in order to inform construction of the final MSL instrument. Participants were asked to report on how often they engaged in activist behaviors, noting the frequency of their participation as: (1) Never, (2) Sometimes, (3) Often, and (4) Very Often. An examination of correlations between the seven items was conducted in order to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis (see Table 4). Several coefficients had values over .3, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. Further evidence was presented in conducting the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, which yielded a value of .790, which was significantly higher than the value of 0.5 which suggests factor analysis is warranted. Conducting Bartlett's Test of Sphericity also yielded significant results of .000, lower than the .05 level suggesting a factor analysis. Using the Kaiser criterion in the principal component analysis, two resulting factors had an eigenvalue over 1.00, suggesting extracting two components from the items that would explain a total of 69.86% of the variance (see Table 5). Results from the factor analysis illustrated the seven items loaded

Table 2

Examples of SRLS items for each Social Change Model Value

Social Change Model Value	Sample SRLS-R2 Scale Item
Consciousness of Self	I am usually self confident The things about which I feel passionate have priority in my life I know myself pretty well
Congruence	My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs It is important to me to act on my beliefs My actions are consistent with my values
Commitment	I am willing to devote the time and energy to things that are important to me I stick with others through difficult times I am focused on my responsibilities
Collaboration	I am seen as someone who works well with others I can make a difference when I work with others on a task I enjoy working with others toward common goals
Common Purpose	I am committed to a collective purpose to those groups to which I belong It is important to develop a common direction in a group in order to get anything done I contribute to the goals of the group
Controversy with Civility	I am open to other's ideas Creativity can come from conflict I value differences in others
Citizenship	I believe I have responsibilities to my community I give my time to making a difference to someone I work with others to make my communities better places
Change	Transition makes me uncomfortable I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things Change brings new life to an organization

Table 3

Social Change Model Scale Reliabilities for the final version of the MSL Instrument

Social Change Model Scale	Reliability
Consciousness of Self	.79
Congruence	.80
Commitment	.83
Collaboration	.82
Common Purpose	.82
Controversy with Civility	.77
Citizenship	.77
Change	.81

strongly on the two components (all above .4), and comprised two scales (see Table 6).

Based on the items included in each of the scales, these scales were labeled “passive awareness” and “participatory activism.” These descriptors were chosen based on the nature of the level of activity inherent in the respective behavior (See Table 7). Passive awareness contained items that were less active in nature, including an awareness of local, national, and global issues impacting those respective communities. The participatory activism scale contained items that were more behavioral in nature, such as participation in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration, signing a petition or sending an email about a social or political issue, contacting a public official, newspaper, magazine, radio, or television talk show to express an opinion, or buying or not buying a product or service because of one’s views. Associated reliability scores for the two scales in the final MSL study were strong respectively, as the reliability score for the passive scale was .81 while the reliability score for the participatory scale was .75.

Table 4

Correlations between Activism Items for purpose of determining Factor Analysis appropriateness

Activism Items	Correlation to Activism Item 1.
1. During your college experience, how often have you paid attention to national issues?	1.00
2. During you college experience, how often have you paid attention to global issues?	.83
3. During your college experience, how often have you been aware of current issues facing the community surrounding your institution?	.43
4. During your college experience, how often have you signed a petition or sent an email about a social or political issue?	.39
5. During your college experience, how often have you bought or not bought a product or a service because of your views?	.36
6. During your college experience, how often have you contacted a public official, newspaper, magazine, radio, or television talk show to express your opinion?	.35
7. During your college experience, how often have you taken part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration?	.27

Involvement variables. A series of dichotomous, categorical variables were designed to gauge responder participation in specific co-curricular involvement experiences. These variables were generated by members of the MSL research team, and underwent a series of reviews in order to ensure that the resulting variable list was

Table 5

Results of Principle Component Analysis

Component	Eigenvalue	% of Variance Explained	Cumulative Variance
1	3.63	51.88	51.88
2	1.26	17.98	69.86
3	.68	9.65	79.51
4	.54	7.70	87.21
5	.41	5.80	93.01
6	.33	4.73	97.74
7	.16	2.26	100.00

Note. Components with Eigenvalues over 1.0 are highlighted in bold.

appropriately comprehensive. After creating a list of involvement categories and seeking to verify the comprehensive nature of the effort, feedback was sought from representatives of institutions participating in the study. This was to ensure that the categories developed would translate to specific student cultures of the respective college or university campus. A final review was conducted during a single campus pilot study designed to provide feedback for future versions of the survey instrument.

Twenty-one total involvement variables were generated through these processes. The resulting variable categories were designed in order to simply assess student participation through self-report. Based on previously discussed literature indicating the positive effects of participation on leadership development, the following variables were included in the research model used in this study:

- Leadership (e.g., Peer Leadership Program, Emerging Leaders Program)
- Culturally based fraternities and sororities (e.g., National Pan-Hellenic Council groups such as Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity Inc., or Latino Greek

Council groups such as Lambda Theta Alpha)

- Social fraternities or sororities (e.g., Pan-Hellenic or Interfraternity Council groups such as Sigma Phi Epsilon or Kappa Kappa Gamma)
- Sports – Intercollegiate or Varsity (e.g., NCAA Hockey, Varsity Soccer)
- Sports – Club (e.g., Club Volleyball)
- Sports – Leisure or Intramural (e.g., intramural flag football, rock climbing)
- Student governance group (e.g., Student Government Association, Residence Hall Association, Interfraternity Council)

For purpose of data analysis, participation in both culturally-based and social fraternities and sororities were collapsed into one variable. This is due to evidence indicating positive contributions to leadership development through fraternity and sorority participation but lack of evidence indicating similar results through participation in ethnic student organizations (Antonio, 2001; Trevino, 1992). All three sports experiences were collapsed into one athletic involvement variable, in light of research indicating positive contributions to leadership development through a variety of types of involvement (Astin, 1993b; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Thompson, 2006). Lastly, although the instrument contained variable categories for political and service organization involvement, these variables were not entered into the model due to multicollinearity concerns.

In addition to these involvement measures, an additional dichotomous, categorical variable was pertinent to this study. On a separate section of the final instrument, respondents were asked to report on whether they participated in various academically-themed activities during their college experience. This included studying abroad,

Table 6

Factor Loadings on the Two Components Resulting from Exploratory Factor Analysis

Activism Item	Component	
	1	2
Took place in a protest, rally, or demonstration	.82	
Signed a petition or sent an email about a social or political issue	.81	
Contacted a public official, newspaper, magazine, radio, or television talk show to express your opinion	.80	
Bought or did not buy a product or service because of your views	.76	
Paid attention to national issues		.90
Paid attention to global issues		.89
Awareness of current issues facing the community surrounding your institution		.65

participation in a learning community or other program consisting of student groups enrolled in two or more courses together, a senior experience (such as a capstone course or thesis), and a practicum, internship, or field, co-op, or clinical experience. Due to literature illustrating the positive effects of internship experiences on leadership development, the variable asking students to indicate if they participated in such an activity was also be included in this study.

Variables were also included that gauged a student's level of involvement in an organization during college. The final version of the MSL instrument contained a section

Table 7

Items in Passive Awareness and Participatory Activism Scales

Passive Awareness Items	Participatory Activism Items
Paid attention to national issues	Signed a petition or sent an email about a social or political issue
Paid attention to global issues	Bought or did not buy a product or service because of your views about the social or political beliefs of the company that produces or provides it
Was aware of the current issues facing the community surrounding your institution	Contacted a public official, newspaper, magazine, radio, or television talk show to express your opinion on a political issue Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration

that consisted of four continuous variables which inquired as to the level of involvement of the participant in college and off-campus community organizations. These Likert-type items asked participants to gauge their responses from a range of (1) representing “Never” to (5) representing “Much of the time.” Thus, students were asked how often they were an involved member or active participant in a college organization, as well as how often they held a leadership position in a college organization. This was followed by asking how often had they been an involved member or active participant in an off-campus community organization and how often they held a leadership position in a community organization. This section was included in the research model due to literature indicating the positive influence of high levels of involvement and holding a positional leadership role on student leadership development. Both on and off-campus

organization involvement was included due to the frequent nature of activist participation occurring outside the confines of a particular campus.

Items pertaining to community service participation completed the involvement variables included in the model. Students were asked to report on the amount of hours spent engaging in types of community service over the course of an academic term. These areas included service as part of a class, within a student organization, as part of a work study experience, and service conducted on their own. For each of these four service areas, students were asked to select from one of six categories pertaining to hours spent engaging in service. The amount of hours spent per term were broken down into 0, 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, and 26-30 categories.

Data Procedures

Pilot studies. Once the initial version of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) survey was created, efforts were taken to ensure that the instrument was reliable and that the amount of time needed to complete the survey met the expectations of the research team. In order to accomplish this task, two pilot studies were conducted using samples of University of Maryland students. The first pilot study included 14 students and consisted of a pencil and paper administration of the survey to measure the time necessary to complete the instrument, as well as follow-up interviews to determine clarity of survey items. The second pilot study used a simple random sample of University of Maryland students to further test the viability of the instrument and establish numerous sub-scales to be used in the final instrument. The sample size for this second pilot study was 3,000 students, and the resulting return rate was 23%. Results from these efforts established study scales and were implemented into the final

instrument used for data collection.

Instrument sub-studies. All participants in the national study were asked to complete the core portion of the instrument. This included providing information on their college or university campus, perceptions before entering college, reporting on recent college experiences, self-assessment of leadership development capacity, and demographic information. In addition to these standardized sections of the instrument, four sub-studies were also developed to obtain information on other areas pertinent to a study on leadership development. These sub-studies were identified as: involvement in student government, categorization of student employment, cognitive skills and Leadership Identity Development stage, and involvement in activism. These sub-studies were randomly assigned to participants, meaning that all students completed one of the four studies in addition to the standardized sections described above. Therefore, only 25% of the sample participated in one particular sub-study and its related scale or scales. Thus, the student activism items, including the activism pre-test and items addressing participation in passive and active forms of student activism represented one of the four sub-studies.

Data Collection

The data collection process began with the administration of the first pilot study previously described. Once the instrument was finalized with information gleaned from both pilot studies, the survey and data collection information was sent to Institutional Review Boards (IRB) at both the University of Maryland as well as IRBs at participating institutions. After approval was obtained at all respective institutions, attention shifted to disseminating the instrument to potential participants. In order to assist in this phase of

the data collection process, Survey Sciences Group (SSG), a company with a successful history of working with educational research, was contracted to handle administration of the survey.

Transforming the existing version of the instrument into a web-based survey was among the initial tasks completed by SSG. Once the survey was finalized, and email contact information obtained for student samples, administration of the survey commenced. This took place during a three week period per campus from January 20 to March 8, 2006, based on considerations of campus closings, vacations, and events that would possibly limit student responses.

Four contacts were made with potential participants during the administration of the survey. Each of the contacts contained a brief description of the purpose of the research study, along with directions for completing the instrument and a link to the survey itself. Each participant was assigned an electronic login identification number, allowing for the removal of personal identifying information and assuring confidentiality throughout the data collection process. The three subsequent contacts with participants functioned as reminders for students who had not yet completed the survey. These notifications were stratified as to allow for a three week data collection period per institution. In addition to email contacts, institutions were encouraged to use various means to increase participation, including publicity and incentives. Examples of marketing efforts included publicizing the survey in school newspapers and common spaces such as student unions. Incentives included airline tickets, lift tickets for ski resorts, iPods, and gift certificates for university bookstores.

Data Analysis

Once data collection was completed, SSG and the MSL research team began the data cleaning process. This included verifying that submitted surveys were in fact completed, as well as determining if partially completed surveys could be used in any way during data analysis. Standard data cleaning techniques were used to prepare the dataset for analysis, including the removal of duplicate cases, manipulated cases, and outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cases removed from the dataset did not vary significantly from those retained across the demographic variables of race, gender, or class standing (Dugan, 2008).

For purposes of addressing the central research question in this study, additional data reduction efforts were conducted. Although transgender was listed as a response option for the gender variable, only 13 participants identified as such. These data were treated as missing in the overall analyses given the significant outlier status. This allowed the cases to be retained, but avoided skewed or non-representative results. Additionally, 28 students identified as American Indian/Alaska Native. The number of participants identifying in this race/ethnicity category were too low to use as a distinct group, given the selected analytic techniques. Thus, data were treated as missing for this group. This was also the case for students who indicated they did not know their parent's education level, and for those respondents who identified as not knowing or would rather not report their parent's income. Finally, cases that did not indicate a freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior class standing were treated as missing to limit the sample to undergraduates.

In order to analyze the data to address the research question in this study,

hierarchical regression was employed as an appropriate statistical analysis technique. Hierarchical regression was chosen due to its “considerable potential to illuminate the relations between and among input and environment variables and how they may shape changes in the outcomes of interest” (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996, p. 232).

Block ordering. Hierarchical regression involves entering the variables in a manner in which can be controlled by the researcher. Therefore, each variable can be entered in a particular order allowing for a specified approach to understanding the percentage of variance explained. Because the SCM values function as the dependent variables and source of outcomes in the research model, eight regressions were calculated, one for each of the scales of the SCM.

Astin (1991) explained that when designing an I-E-O research model, it is necessary to place independent variables into the model from a distal to proximal relationship to the dependent variable. Thus, the final variables to enter the regression model should be most closely related to the dependent variable. The demographic characteristics of class standing, race or ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation were entered in the first block in this study due to their distal relationship to the SCM values. Parental levels of education and income were entered in the first block as well. This decision is based on literature illustrating that higher parental income and education levels contribute to higher activist participation, and it allowed for the isolation of all demographic characteristics in the first block. The second block contained both the activism pre-test and the individual SCM pre-test measure for the related SCM outcome measure in each regression. This is due to the connection between pre-college and college participation in activist behaviors, as well as pre-college and college measures of

the eight SCM scales. This also allows for isolating the pre-test measures in the second block, and completes the series of inputs in the quasi-I-E-O model. Block three consisted of variables related to institutional type. This is due to previous research identifying institutional characteristics contributing to activism on campus and for purpose of further data analysis. These variables included campus size, whether the institution is public or private, religious or secular, and the related Carnegie classification. The fourth block contained environmental variables entered into the model. These included the involvement variables identified as contributing to student leadership development, including fraternity and sorority membership, athletic participation, student government involvement, leadership program participation, having an internship, level of organizational involvement, whether the student held a positional leadership role in an organization, and community service participation. Block five consisted of the passive awareness and participatory activism scales. This indicated how much of the variance these activism scales explained beyond the other involvement variables included in the model. Finally, the eight SCM variables were entered as outcome measures individually. As such, eight regressions were conducted, indicating how participation in activism related to student leadership development and capacity beyond that of other environmental variables for each of the SCM scales. Due to the size of the dataset and its resulting statistical power, significance was set at the $p < .001$ level. The blocks described above were ordered into the regression in the following manner:

- Block 1: *Demographic variables:* Gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, class standing, parental education level, parental income level
- Block 2: *Pre-tests:* Activism pre-test, social change model pre-tests

- Block 3: *Institution type*: Size, public/private, religious secular, Carnegie type
- Block 4: *Involvement variables*: Fraternity and sorority membership, athletic participation, student government, leadership program or course participation, internship experience, holding an elected or positional leadership role, community service participation
- Block 5: *Activism scales*: Passive awareness, participatory activism
- Block 6: *Social change model values*

Dummy coding. Since many of the variables included in the research model were categorical in nature, they were re-coded into dichotomous or “dummy” variables in order to function in the regression analyses. Each of the variables constituting inputs and one environmental variable met this criteria and were dummy coded. This included gender, class standing, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, parent education level, parent income level, and institution size. In each of these instances, the reference group used in the coding process tended to be the group most different, or privileged, in comparison to the other variable categories. In the case of the gender variable, male students were the reference and coded with a value of zero, and females were coded with a value of one. For class standing, the variables were dummy coded with seniors serving as the reference group. They were selected given the desire to compare relative effects over the most significant amount of time in the college context. Large campus populations acted as the reference group for the institution size, with small and medium campus sizes dummy coded accordingly.

Within the race/ethnicity variable, the White/Caucasian, African American/Black,

multiracial or multiethnic, and race/ethnicity not included categories remained unaltered. The Asian American/Asian and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander categories were combined into the Asian American variable. The final category, Latino, consisted of Mexican American/Chicano, Puerto Rican, Cuban American, and other Latino American categories. The White/Caucasian student group functioned as the reference group for the race/ethnicity variable. For example, students were coded for each race/ethnicity category with a value of one, or a value of zero for not being a member of that racial or ethnic group (i.e. 1=African American/Black, 0=Not African American/Black; 1=Latino, 0=Not Latino). The four categories in the sexual orientation variable, heterosexual, bisexual, gay/lesbian, and rather not say was collapsed into heterosexual, GLB, and rather not say variables. Heterosexual students acted as the reference group for sexual orientation.

Parental education level was broken into three variables. The first consisted of education up to and including a HS diploma or GED, the second consisted of some college, and the third consisted of a bachelor's degree or higher. The bachelor's degree or higher variable category was used as the reference in this group. This allowed for proper separation of parental education groups to further investigate previous research that indicated higher activist behavior with higher education levels (Altbach 1989a, 1989b; Flacks, 1970). Finally, parental income levels were collapsed into three variables, low income, middle income, and upper income. The Congressional Research Service suggests that the middle class can be considered those households with income levels between \$19,178 and \$91,705 (Cashell, 2007). Pairing this information with income categories present on the MSL instrument resulted in the low income variable consisting

of income up to \$24,999, middle income represented as \$25,000 to \$99,000, and upper income consisting of annual household incomes of \$100,000 or higher. Upper income was used as the reference in this variable group. Original categorical and revised dummy coded versions of the input variables can be found in Table 8.

Additional statistical tests were used in order to assess possible risk areas in the research model and to ensure the data conformed to the statistical assumptions of hierarchical regression analysis. Since each independent variable should provide a unique contribution to the model, strong relationships between them should be limited. Collinearity diagnostics were used with the independent variables included in the model to ensure correlations did not exceed appropriate levels of .75 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Tolerance levels (.10 or less) and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) values (10.00 or higher) constituting risk in the model were not met, justifying the calculation of separate regressions for each of the eight SCM values (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

Conclusion

It is hoped that results from this study will contribute knowledge to an area of limited understanding in the student leadership development canon. In order to attempt to address this gap in the literature, vital components of the research design and data analysis process have been described here. This included illuminating the conceptual framework informing the research process, the student sample and its characteristics, and components of the instrument utilized. This was followed by descriptions of the data collection and analysis processes. Successfully attending to these steps in the research design process allows for more accurate and valuable information in understanding how

Table 8

Original Categorical Input Variables and Revised Variations

Variable	Categories	Dummy Coded	Value
Gender	Male	Male	0
	Female	Female	1
Class Standing	First Year/Freshman	First Year/Freshman	1
	Sophomore	Sophomore	1
	Junior	Junior	1
	Senior	Senior	0
Race/ Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	White/Caucasian	0
	African American/Black	African American/Black	1
	Asian American/Asian	Asian/Pacific Islander	1
	Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander		
	Mexican American/Chicano	Latino	1
	Puerto Rican		
	Cuban American		
	Other Latino American		
Sexual Orientation	Multiracial or Multiethnic	Multiracial or Multiethnic	1
	Race/Ethnicity not included	Race/Ethnicity not included	1
	Heterosexual	Heterosexual	0
	Bisexual	GLB	1
	Gay/Lesbian		
	Rather not say	Rather not say	1
Parental Education	Less than HS diploma or GED	Up to & incl. HS Diploma	1
	HS Diploma or GED		
	Some college	Some college	1
	Associates degree		
	Bachelor's degree Masters degree Doctorate or professional degree	Bachelors or higher	0

Table 8 (continued)

Original Categorical Input Variables and Revised Dichotomous Variations

Parental Income	Less than \$12,500		
	\$12,500-\$24,999	Lower Income	1
	\$25,000-\$39,999		
	\$40,000-\$54,999		
	\$55,000-\$74,999		
	\$75,000-\$99,999	Middle Income	1
	\$100,000-\$149,999		
	\$150,000-\$199,999		
	\$200,000 and over	Upper Income	0

Note. Dummy coded value of (0) represents reference group for demographic variable student activism participation relates to socially responsible leadership capacity. As this chapter has detailed the methods employed in this study, the following section discusses the results of data collection and analysis.

Chapter Four: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between student activism and leadership development among college students. Survey data collected as part of the MSL was utilized in this study, due to the project's purpose of seeking to understand how higher education influences student leadership capacity (Dugan et al., 2006). Participation in student activism was operationalized through construction of two variable scales based on the level of activity inherent in the activism behavior. These scales consisted of seven types of activist behavior, and were identified as passive awareness and participatory activism scales. Leadership development measures utilized the eight values of the social change model (SCM) of leadership. Through the employment of associated SCM variable constructs, an investigation of the contributions of activism to participant scores was conducted. These efforts included controlling for participant characteristics, pre-college experiences, and consideration of other selected college experiences.

This chapter presents the results from the data analyses used to answer the research question of this study. First, demographic characteristics of the sample will be presented. Next, results from the hierarchical linear regressions conducted for each of the eight SCM values will be provided. These sections will be followed by a discussion of the explanatory power of the overall model, the individual contributions of blocks used in the model, the contributions of the two activism scales to leadership development, and the contributions of the other college involvement experiences included in the model.

Sample Characteristics

Within the sample, women (62%, $n = 7,680$) were overrepresented compared to

men (38%, $n = 4,785$). However, this distribution reflected national averages at the time the data was collected (Chronicle Almanac, 2006). Students of color represented approximately 26% of the sample, which was marginally lower than the national average of 29% at the time of data collection (Chronicle Almanac, 2006). Race and ethnicity categories were distributed as follows: 72% White ($n = 8,978$), 5% African American ($n = 679$), 8% Asian American ($n = 992$), 4% Latino ($n = 551$), 8% Multiracial ($n = 966$), and 2% ($n = 271$) indicated that their race/ethnicity was not included as a response option. Sexual orientation was distributed in the following manner: 94% heterosexual ($n = 11,731$), 2% bisexual ($n = 263$), 1% gay/lesbian ($n = 159$), 3% ($n = 321$) indicated they would rather not report. Prior research suggests that the population of GLB identified individuals willing to self identify in research is approximately 3% (Gates & Ost, 2004), which was the rate achieved in this sample.

Parent demographic characteristics were also calculated for the sample. Regarding parent education levels, 14% ($n = 1,769$) indicated their parents achieved up to a high school degree, 22% ($n = 2,669$) indicated their parents had some college level education, and 64% ($n = 7,890$) indicated their parents attained a bachelor's degree or higher. Pertaining to parental income, 13% ($n = 1,258$) reported their parent's income in the lower bracket, 51% ($n = 5,043$) reported a middle income level, and 36% ($n = 3,559$) reported an upper income level for their parents.

Student enrollment and class standing distributions were also sought. Within the sample, 94% ($n = 11,802$) indicated they were enrolled full-time, while 6% ($n = 708$) reported enrollment on a less than full-time basis. First year students represented 23% ($n = 2,820$) of the sample, while sophomores represented 23% ($n = 2,778$), juniors

represented 26% ($n = 3,186$), and seniors represented 29% ($n = 3,556$). These reported demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Demographic Characteristics of Sample

		<i>n</i>	%
<hr/>			
Gender			
	Male	4785	38
	Female	7680	62
Race			
	White	8978	72
	African American	679	5
	Asian American	992	8
	Latino	551	4
	Multiracial	966	8
	Not Included	271	2
Sexual Orientation			
	Heterosexual	11731	94
	Bisexual	263	2
	Gay/Lesbian	159	1
	Rather Not Say	321	3
Parent Education			
	Up to H.S. Diploma	1769	14
	Some College	2669	22
	Bachelor's degree or higher	7890	64
Parent Income			
	Lower Income	1258	13
	Middle Income	5043	51
	Upper Income	3559	36
Class Standing			
	First Year/Freshman	2820	23
	Sophomore	2778	23
	Junior	3186	26
	Senior	3556	29
Enrollment Status			
	Full-time	11802	94
	Less than full-time	708	6
<hr/>			

Note. % = rounded percentage within sample.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to assess the value of the model used in this study. Independent variables were entered in five blocks to determine their predictive value related to socially responsible leadership capacity. Due to the large sample size, significance was interpreted at a more conservative .01 level. The overall amount of variance explained for each regression model ranged from a low of 24% on Common Purpose, to a high of 29% on Collaboration and Citizenship, as shown in Table 10. Model results from the final block for each of the eight outcomes are presented in Table 11, and means, standard deviations, and variable codings are provided in Appendix B.

Consciousness of Self. For the regression conducted on the Consciousness of Self outcome variable, the full model used in this study explained 25% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 54.74, p < .001$. Block 1, containing student demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .09, p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor and indicated women scored higher than men. The following variables emerged as significant negative predictors, Asian American identification ($\beta = -.07, p < .001$), rather not say sexual orientation ($\beta = -.03, p < .01$), first-year class standing ($\beta = -.05, p < .001$), and sophomore standing ($\beta = -.04, p < .01$). Block 2, containing pretest measures, was also significant ($R^2 = .16, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .38, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Institutional characteristics in Block 3 also indicated significance ($R^2 = .00, p < .01$), although no variables emerged as significant predictors. Block 4 contained college involvement experiences, and also indicated significance ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$).

Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .08, p < .001$), holding a leadership position within a student organization ($\beta = .05, p < .01$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .07, p < .001$), participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), and having an internship ($\beta = .04, p < .001$) all emerged as significant predictors.

Table 10

Overall Model Variance Explained for each SCM Value

SCM Value	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Change	p
Consciousness of Self	.25	.25	54.74	***
Congruence	.24	.24	51.39	***
Commitment	.26	.26	57.35	***
Collaboration	.29	.28	64.52	***
Common Purpose	.24	.23	49.95	***
Controversy with Civility	.25	.25	54.29	***
Citizenship	.29	.28	64.29	***
Change	.26	.26	57.22	***

Note. *** $p < .001$

The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .04, p < .001$).

Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .19, p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Consciousness of Self outcome measure (see Table 11).

Congruence. For the regression conducted on the Congruence outcome variable, the full model used in this study explained 24% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 51.39, p < .001$. Block 1, containing student demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .08, p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor with women scoring higher than men. The following variables

Table 11
Predictors of Social Change Model Values

	Consciousness of Self			Congruence			Commitment			Collaboration		
	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>	.03		***	.03		***	.03		***	.02		***
Gender		.09	***		.08	***		.09	***		.07	***
African American/ Black		.02			.01			-.00			.00	
Asian American		-.07	***		-.06	***		-.05	***		-.03	
Latino(a)		.01			.02			.02			.03	
Multiracial		.02			.02			.01			.01	
Race not listed as option		-.02			-.02			-.01			-.00	
Lesbian, Gay, or Bisexual		.01			.00			-.01			.00	
Rather Not Say Sexual Orientation		-.03	**		-.04	**		-.03	**		-.03	**
Parental Ed- Up to High School Degree		.01			-.00			.01			.01	
Parental Ed- Some College		.00			.00			.01			-.00	
Parental Income- Lower Income		.01			.02			.03			.02	
Parental Income- Middle Income		-.01			-.00			.01			.02	
Class Standing- first-year		-.05	***		-.05	**		-.02			.00	
Class standing- sophomore		-.04	**		-.04	**		-.02			-.01	
Class standing- junior		-.03			-.02			-.02			-.01	
<i>Pretest</i>	.16		***	.16		***	.17		***	.19		***
Pretest for activism		-.02			-.03			-.03			-.03	
Pretest for outcome measure		.38	***		.37	***		.39	***		.40	***
<i>Institutional characteristics</i>	.00		**	.00			.00		**	.00		
Size (small)		-.04			-.05	**		-.03			-.01	
Size (medium)		-.03			-.03			-.02			-.01	
Control		.04			.04			.02			.00	
Religious or secular		.00			.00			.00			.02	
Research Intensive		.02			.02			.03	**		.02	
Masters		.01			.01			.02			.00	
Baccalaureate		.01			.02			.03			.01	
Associates		-.02			-.01			-.01			-.01	
<i>Collegiate experiences</i>	.03		***	.02		***	.03		***	.06		***
Membership in student orgs		.08	***		.08	***		.10	***		.14	***
Leadership positions in student orgs		.05	**		.03			.04			.04	**
Membership in community orgs		.07	***		.05	***		.04			.06	***
Leadership positions in community orgs		-.01			.00			.00			.03	
Participation in athletics		-.01			-.00			.02			.00	
Participation in Greek-letter orgs		-.02			-.02			-.02			-.02	
Participation in leadership orgs		.02			.02			.01			.02	
Participation in student government		-.02			-.02			-.01			.00	
Community service- Class		-.02			-.01			-.00			.01	
Community service- Student Orgs		-.02			-.01			.01			.02	
Community service- work study		-.00			-.02			-.01			.00	
Community service- on your own		.04	**		.04	**		.05	***		.06	***
Internship experience		.04	**		.03	**		.04	**		.04	**
<i>Student activism</i>	.04		***	.03		***	.03		***	.02		***
Passive activism		.19	***		.17	***		.18	***		.16	***
Active activism		.03			-.01			-.02			.01	

Note. ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001, β = standardized beta.

Table 11 (continued)
Predictors of Social Change Model Values

	Common Purpose			Controversy with Civility			Citizenship			Change		
	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>P</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² change	β	<i>p</i>
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>	.02		***	.03		***	.02		***	.02		***
Gender		.08	***		.10	***		.03			.02	
African American/ Black		.01			.01			.02			.04	***
Asian American		-.04	**		-.06	***		-.04	***		-.02	
Latino(a)		.03			.01			.01			.03	
Multiracial		.01			.01			.01			.03	
Race not listed as option		-.01			.00			-.01			-.00	
Lesbian, Gay, or Bisexual		.01			.01			.02			.03	**
Rather Not Say Sexual Orientation		-.02			-.02			-.03	**		-.01	
Parental Ed- Up to High School Degree		.01			.02			.01			.01	
Parental Ed- Some College		.00			.01			.00			.02	
Parental Income- Lower Income		.02			.03			.03			.04	**
Parental Income- Middle Income		.00			.00			.00			-.00	
Class Standing- first-year		-.01			-.03			.03			-.03	
Class standing- sophomore		-.03			-.03			.01			-.03	
Class standing- junior		-.01			-.02			-.00			-.03	
<i>Pretest</i>	.13		***	.14		***	.16		***	.20		***
Pretest for activism		-.03			.00			.01			.00	
Pretest for outcome measure		.30	***		.33	***		.30	***		.41	***
<i>Institutional characteristics</i>	.00		***	.00			.00			.00		
Size (small)		-.04			-.04			-.04			-.03	
Size (medium)		-.02			-.03			-.02			-.02	
Control		.04			.02			.01			.02	
Religious or secular		.02			.02			.01			-.01	
Research Intensive		.03			.03			.02			.04	**
Masters		.01			.01			.01			.01	
Baccalaureate		.01			.02			.02			.02	
Associates		-.01			.01			-.01			.01	
<i>Collegiate experiences</i>	.06		***	.05		***	.06		***	.02		***
Membership in student orgs		.12	***		.12	***		.12	***		.07	***
Leadership positions in student orgs		.08	***		.02			.06	***		.04	
Membership in community orgs		.07	***		.05	***		.05	**		-.00	
Leadership positions in community orgs		.02			.00			.03			.01	
Participation in athletics		-.01			.02			.01			.01	
Participation in Greek-letter orgs		-.03			-.02			-.01			-.02	
Participation in leadership orgs		.01			.02			.02			.00	
Participation in student government		-.02			.02			.00			.00	
Community service- Class		.00			-.01			.00			.01	
Community service- Student Orgs		.01			-.00			-.02			-.01	
Community service- work study		-.00			-.02			.00			.01	
Community service- on your own		.05	***		.06	***		.07	***		.06	***
Internship experience		.03			.03			.03			.02	
<i>Student activism</i>	.03		***	.04		***	.05		***	.02		***
Passive activism		.17	***		.20	***		.20	***		.15	***
Active activism		.02			.03			.09	***		.03	

Note. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, β = standardized beta.

emerged as significant negative predictors, Asian American identification ($\beta = -.06, p < .001$), rather not say sexual orientation ($\beta = -.04, p < .01$), first-year class standing ($\beta = -.05, p < .001$), and sophomore standing ($\beta = -.04, p < .01$). Therefore Asian American students scored significantly lower than the reference group of White students, those students indicating they would rather not indicate their sexual orientation scored lower than the heterosexual reference group, and first-year and sophomore students scored lower than seniors. Block 2, containing pretest measures, was also significant ($R^2 = .16, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .37, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Institutional characteristics in Block 3 were not significant. Block 4 contained college involvement experiences, and also indicated significance ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .08, p < .001$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), participating in community service on one's own ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), and having an internship ($\beta = .03, p < .01$) all emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .17, p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Congruence outcome measure (see Table 11).

Commitment. The full model explained 26% of the variance for the regression conducted on the Commitment outcome variable, $F(40, 6415) = 57.35, p < .001$. Block 1, containing student demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .09, p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor with women scoring higher than men. Asian

American identification ($\beta = -.05, p < .001$) and rather not say sexual orientation ($\beta = -.03, p < .001$) emerged as significant negative predictors. Block 2, containing pretest measures, was also significant ($R^2 = .17, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Institutional characteristics in Block 3 also indicated significance ($R^2 = .00, p < .01$), with research intensive institutions ($\beta = .03, p < .01$) functioning as a significant predictor. Block 4 containing college involvement experiences also indicated significance ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .10, p < .001$), participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), and having an internship ($\beta = .04, p < .01$) emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .03, p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .18, p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Commitment outcome measure (see Table 11).

Collaboration. For the regression conducted on the Collaboration outcome variable, the full model used in this study explained 29% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 64.52, p < .001$. Block 1, containing student demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .07, p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor with women scoring higher than men, while rather not say sexual orientation ($\beta = -.03, p < .01$) emerged as a significant negative predictor. Block 2, containing pretest measures, was also significant ($R^2 = .19, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .40, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Block 4,

containing college involvement experiences, and also indicated significance ($R^2 = .06, p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .14, p < .001$), holding a leadership position within a student organization ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .06, p < .001$), participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .06, p < .001$), and having an internship ($\beta = .04, p < .01$) all emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Collaboration outcome measure (see Table 11).

Common Purpose. The full regression model used for the Common Purpose outcome variable explained 24% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 49.95, p < .001$. Block 1 consisting of student demographic characteristics was significant ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .08, p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor with women scoring higher than men, while Asian American identification ($\beta = -.04, p < .01$) emerged as a significant negative predictor. Block 2 was also significant ($R^2 = .13, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Institutional characteristics in Block 3 also indicated significance ($R^2 = .00, p < .001$), although no variables emerged as significant predictors. Block 4 contained college involvement experiences, and also indicated significance ($R^2 = .06, p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .12, p < .001$), holding a leadership position within a student organization ($\beta = .08, p < .01$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .07, p < .001$), and

participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .05$, $p < .01$) all emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .03$, $p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .17$, $p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Common Purpose outcome measure (see Table 11).

Controversy with Civility. For the regression conducted on the Controversy with Civility outcome variable, the full model used in this study explained 25% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 54.29$, $p < .001$. Block 1, which contained student demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $p < .001$). Within this block, gender ($\beta = .10$, $p < .001$) emerged as the only significant positive predictor with women scoring higher than men, while Asian American identification ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .001$) emerged as a significant negative predictor. Block 2 was also significant ($R^2 = .14$, $p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .33$, $p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Block 4, containing college involvement experiences, also indicated significance ($R^2 = .05$, $p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .12$, $p < .001$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .05$, $p < .001$), and participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .06$, $p < .001$) all emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Controversy with Civility outcome measure (see Table 11).

Citizenship. The regression model used on the Citizenship outcome

variable explained 29% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 64.29, p < .001$. Block 1 was significant ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$), with Asian American identification ($\beta = -.04, p < .001$) and rather not say sexual orientation ($\beta = -.03, p < .001$) emerging as negative predictors. Block 2 was also significant ($R^2 = .16, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Block 4 contained college involvement experiences, and also indicated significance ($R^2 = .06, p < .001$). Within this block, membership in student organizations ($\beta = .12, p < .001$), holding a leadership position within a student organization ($\beta = .06, p < .01$), membership in off-campus organizations ($\beta = .05, p < .01$), and participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .07, p < .01$) all emerged as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .05, p < .001$). Within Block 5, both passive awareness ($\beta = .20, p < .001$) and participatory activism ($\beta = .09, p < .001$) emerged as significant predictors on the Citizenship outcome measure (see Table 11).

Change. For the regression conducted on the Change outcome variable, the full model used in this study explained 26% of the variance, $F(40, 6415) = 57.22, p < .001$. Block 1 was significant ($R^2 = .02, p < .001$), with African American identification ($\beta = .04, p < .001$), GLB identification ($\beta = .03, p < .01$), and lower parental income ($\beta = .04, p < .01$) emerging as significant predictors. Block 2 was also significant ($R^2 = .20, p < .001$), with the pretest for the outcome measure ($\beta = .41, p < .001$) functioning as a significant predictor within the block. Block 3 was not significant, however, Research Intensive institutions ($\beta = .04,$

$p < .01$) emerged as a predictor. Block 4 was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $p < .001$), with membership in student organizations ($\beta = .07$, $p < .001$) and participating in community service on your own ($\beta = .05$, $p < .001$) emerging as significant predictors. The final block containing the activism scales was also significant ($R^2 = .02$, $p < .001$). Within Block 5, passive awareness ($\beta = .15$, $p < .001$) emerged as a significant predictor of the Change outcome measure (see Table 11).

Contributions of Blocks and Predictors

Block contributions across all models. Demographic characteristics in Block 1 were significant predictors for all eight SCM outcome measures. This block accounted for between 2% and 3% of the variance in each of the regressions. Pretest measures in Block 2 explained the majority of the variance in each of the regression models. This ranged from a low of 13% on Common Purpose, to a high of 20% on Change. Institutional characteristics in Block 3 were significant predictors for Consciousness of Self, Commitment, and Common Purpose. It should be noted, however, that the block explained less than one percent of the variance for each of the outcome measures. Collegiate experiences in Block 4 were significant predictors for each of the SCM values. Variances ranged from a low of 2% on Congruence and Change, to a high of 6% on Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Citizenship. The final block, containing the activism measures, was also significant for each of the outcome measures. Block 5 explained between 2% on Collaboration and Change, to a high of 5% on Citizenship (see Table 12).

Predictor contributions across all models. Within each block,

significant predictors emerged for each of the models. Resulting beta values and levels of significance are presented for each block, including means and standard deviations for each significant predictor. For dummy coded variables, means range from a scale of zero to one. A mean value below .5 indicates a skewing toward the reference group, while a mean value above .5 would indicate a skewing toward the dummy coded group. Means, standard deviations, and variable codings for all variables are presented in Appendix B.

Table 12

Full Regression Model Variance Explained by Block for each SCM Value

SCM Value	Block 1		Block 2		Block 3		Block 4		Block 5	
	R^2	p	R^2	p	R^2	p	R^2	p	R^2	p
Consciousness of Self	.03	***	.16	***	.00	**	.03	***	.04	***
Congruence	.03	***	.16	***	.00		.02	***	.03	***
Commitment	.03	***	.17	***	.00	**	.03	***	.03	***
Collaboration	.02	***	.19	***	.00		.06	***	.02	***
Common Purpose	.02	***	.13	***	.00	***	.06	***	.03	***
Controversy with Civility	.03	***	.14	***	.00		.05	***	.04	***
Citizenship	.02	***	.16	***	.00		.06	***	.05	***
Change	.02	***	.20	***	.00		.02	***	.02	***

Note. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, $R^2 = R^2$ change. Block 1 = demographic characteristics, Block 2 = pre-tests, Block 3 = institutional characteristics, Block 4 = collegiate experiences, Block 5 = activism scales.

Block 1. For the demographics block, gender ($M = .61$, $SD = .49$) emerged as a predictor for six of the eight SCM outcome measures. Gender was significant for the Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .09$, $p < .001$), Congruence ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$), Commitment ($\beta = .09$, $p < .001$), Collaboration ($\beta = .07$, $p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$), and Controversy with Civility ($\beta = .10$,

$p < .001$) measures. Identifying as Asian American ($M = .08$, $SD = .27$) emerged as a significant negative predictor on six of the SCM measures. This included Consciousness of Self ($\beta = -.07$, $p < .001$), Congruence ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .001$), Commitment ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .001$), and Citizenship ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .001$). African American identification ($M = .05$, $SD = .23$) was the only other racial or ethnic variable indicating significance, and it emerged on the Change measure ($\beta = .04$, $p < .001$). For those participants who indicated that they would rather not disclose their sexual orientation ($M = .03$, $SD = .16$), this variable emerged as a significant negative predictor on five of the eight outcome measures. This was the case for Consciousness of Self ($\beta = -.03$, $p < .01$), Congruence ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .01$), Commitment ($\beta = -.03$, $p < .01$), Collaboration ($\beta = -.03$, $p < .01$), and Citizenship ($\beta = -.03$, $p < .01$). Lesbian, Gay, or Bisexual orientation ($M = .03$, $SD = .18$) emerged as a predictor on the Change measure ($\beta = .03$, $p < .01$). Parental income was only significant on the Change outcome measure. In this instance, lower parental income ($M = .10$, $SD = .30$) emerged as a predictor ($\beta = .04$, $p < .01$). Class standing was the only other demographic variable to emerge as a predictor. First year standing ($M = .23$, $SD = .42$) was a significant negative predictor on Consciousness of Self ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .001$) and Congruence ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .01$). This was also the case for sophomore standing ($M = .22$, $SD = .42$), which indicated negative significance on Consciousness of Self ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .01$) and Congruence ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .01$) as well.

Block 2. The second block containing the pretest measures on activism

and each SCM outcome was significant for all eight regressions. However, only the pretests for the SCM outcomes were significant predictors within the block. Pretest values for each of the SCM outcomes are as follows: Consciousness of Self ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.15$; $\beta = .38$, $p < .001$), Congruence ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .81$; $\beta = .37$, $p < .001$), Commitment ($M = 4.27$, $SD = .71$; $\beta = .39$, $p < .001$), Collaboration ($M = 3.93$, $SD = .79$; $\beta = .40$, $p < .001$), Common Purpose ($M = 3.97$, $SD = .70$; $\beta = .30$, $p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .78$; $\beta = .33$, $p < .001$), Citizenship ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .83$; $\beta = .30$, $p < .001$), and Change ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .90$; $\beta = .41$, $p < .001$).

Block 3. The third block of institutional characteristics was limited in contributing predictor variables. Small institution size ($M = .13$, $SD = .33$) was significant on Congruence ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .01$), while Research Intensive ($M = .18$, $SD = .38$) institution type was significant on Commitment ($\beta = .03$, $p < .01$) and Change ($\beta = .04$, $p < .01$).

Block 4. A number of predictor variables emerged in the fourth block of college experiences. Membership in student organizations ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.39$) was significant for each of the models at the following levels: Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$), Congruence ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$), Commitment ($\beta = .10$, $p < .001$), Collaboration ($\beta = .14$, $p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .12$, $p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($\beta = .12$, $p < .001$), Citizenship ($\beta = .12$, $p < .001$), and Change ($\beta = .07$, $p < .001$). Holding a leadership position with a student organization ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 1.40$) was significant on Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .05$, $p < .01$), Collaboration ($\beta = .04$, $p < .01$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$),

and Citizenship ($\beta = .06, p < .001$). Membership in an off-campus organization ($M = 1.99, SD = 1.33$) was a significant predictor on Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .07, p < .001$), Congruence ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), Collaboration ($\beta = .06, p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .07, p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), and Citizenship ($\beta = .05, p < .001$). Community service conducted on one's own ($M = 1.45, SD = 1.67$) was a predictor for each of the outcomes at the following levels: Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), Congruence ($\beta = .04, p < .001$), Commitment ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), Collaboration ($\beta = .06, p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .05, p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($\beta = .06, p < .001$), Citizenship ($\beta = .07, p < .001$), and Change ($\beta = .05, p < .001$). Lastly, having an internship ($M = .37, SD = .48$) was significant on Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), Congruence ($\beta = .03, p < .01$), Commitment ($\beta = .04, p < .01$), and Collaboration ($\beta = .04, p < .01$).

Block 5. Within the final block, passive awareness ($M = 2.74, SD = .69$) was a significant predictor for all outcome variables. Values for each of the models are as follows: Consciousness of Self ($\beta = .19, p < .001$), Congruence ($\beta = .17, p < .001$), Commitment ($\beta = .18, p < .001$), Collaboration ($\beta = .16, p < .001$), Common Purpose ($\beta = .17, p < .001$), Controversy with Civility ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), Citizenship ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), and Change ($\beta = .15, p < .001$). Participatory activism ($M = 1.63, SD = .61$) emerged as a significant predictor only on Citizenship ($\beta = .09, p < .001$).

Results for the Null Hypothesis

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between

participation in student activism and leadership development. Due to limited prior research addressing the interactions of these collegiate experiences, the primary research question was presented in the form of a null hypothesis, and specifically stated:

Participation in student activism will not significantly predict participant's scores on any of the eight variables contained within the social change model of leadership development, after controlling for participant characteristics, pre-college experience, and consideration of select college experiences.

Results from the data analysis process indicated that the null hypothesis was rejected. After constructing hierarchical regression models based on evidence from literature on student activism and leadership development, and conducting the resulting analyses, the activism scales emerged as significant predictors on all eight regression models. Full regression models explained between 24% and 29% of the variance on each of the SCM values, with the block containing the activism scales explaining between 2% and 5% of the model variance (see Table 13). The passive awareness scale was a significant predictor for all eight regression models, while the participatory activism scale emerged as significant on the Citizenship regression model.

Conclusion

This chapter provided details related to the data analysis process investigating the relationship of participation in student activism and leadership development. Demographic characteristics of the sample were discussed first. This was followed by detailed results of the regressions conducted for each of the

Table 13

Overall Regression Model Explanatory Power with Activism Block Contributions

SCM Value	Overall Model Variance	Activism Block Variance
Consciousness of Self	25%	4%
Congruence	24%	3%
Commitment	26%	3%
Collaboration	29%	2%
Common Purpose	24%	3%
Controversy with Civility	25%	4%
Citizenship	29%	5%
Change	26%	2%

eight SCM values. Next, explanatory power of each of the models were highlighted, including the significant contributions of the blocks included in the regressions, and the experiences that emerged as significant predictors of the model variances. This chapter concluded with how these results related to the research question central in this study, indicating that participating in activism positively related to student leadership development. The next and final chapter will provide a discussion of the findings, including connections to previous research, and possible implications for practice. The chapter will then conclude with an identification of the study's limitations, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter provides a discussion of the results from an examination of the relationship between participation in student activism and leadership development among college students. The first section will revisit the problem statement influencing the research question and design. Next, a brief overview of the methods used in investigating the null hypothesis will be provided. This will be followed by a review of the results and a discussion of how they relate to existing literature. The subsequent section explores the limitations of the study. The final section provides implications for practitioners in higher education and presents possible directions for future research.

Statement of Problem

Student activism has been present on college and university campuses throughout the history of higher education (Altbach, 1989a; Boren, 2001). Regardless of the catalyst of the event or movement or the techniques used by participants, activism represents evidence of the engaged citizenry that stakeholders in higher education seek to foster. However, attempts to study activism have met significant challenges. Research indicates that it is a difficult phenomenon to study due to a number of factors including the short duration of student movements (Shoben, 1970), the lack of an accepted theoretical base (Wilson, 1982), and broader academic concern for the topic (Altbach, 1981). These difficulties are complicated by the negative perception of activism represented in much of the literature during the 1960s and 1970s, in which activism was framed as a problem to be understood for the benefit of

administrators and their response.

Research in recent decades has indicated a shift in the tone and reception of activism by scholars, however (Biddix et al., 2009). From the 80s to today, instances of investigating activism for its positive contributions to educational and developmental outcomes (Astin, 1993a, Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) have begun to emerge. One of the areas of study pertaining to student activism involves understanding how participation relates to students' leadership development. Researchers have spoken to the connections between activism and leadership (Chambers & Phelps, 1993, 1994; Komives & Harris, 2005), yet few have empirically examined this relationship (Galambos & Hughes, 2000; Wielkiewicz et al., 2005). Thus, this study serves to address the existing gap in the literature.

Review of Methods

As was discussed in Chapter 3, this study utilized data collected from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a research project designed to examine leadership development among college and university students across the country. Students who participated in a sub-study on activism within the MSL constituted the sample in this study. Data was collected using an online survey instrument distributed to a nationally representative sample of colleges and universities. Hierarchical multiple regression models were constructed using an adapted version of Astin's (1991; 1993b) I-E-O framework designed to determine the relationship of participating in student activism on socially responsible leadership capacity. This approach was used due to its ability to indicate how independent variables explain a portion of variance in a dependent variable, while

establishing the relative predictive importance of the independent variables generalizable to populations similar to the sample used in this study (Garson, 2010).

Demographic characteristics functioned as inputs in the regression models. This included respondent gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, class standing, pre-college involvement measures, and parent characteristics. Environments chosen for the models included institution types and co-curricular experiences, such as participating in a fraternity or sorority, student government, community service, or student activism, as well as experiences such as holding an elected leadership position or participating in an internship. Outcomes were identified through use of the eight values of the social change model (SCM) of leadership (HERI, 1996), identified as Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, Collaboration, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change.

Accordingly, eight hierarchical regressions were conducted to determine predictor variables for each of the SCM values. These regressions were structured using five groups of independent variable blocks entered from distal to proximal distance to the SCM value representing the dependent variable. This data analysis process allowed for the emergence of co-curricular involvement experiences that predicted a student's capacity for socially responsible leadership.

Summary of Results

Regression models developed in this study explained between 24% and 29% of the variance for the SCM measures. Participation in student activism was

a predictor of student's leadership capacity as measured by the SCM scales, explaining between 2% and 5% of the variance in the models. The passive awareness scale emerged as significant on all eight SCM values, while the participatory activism scale showed significance on Citizenship.

The block contributing most to the regression model for each SCM value were the pre-test measures included in Block 2. The highest level of variance explained was on Change ($R^2 = .20$), while the lowest level was on Common Purpose ($R^2 = .13$). However, within this block, only the pre-test for the outcome measure emerged as significant in each regression equation. Therefore, the pre-test for Consciousness of Self was significant for the Consciousness of Self outcome measure, and so on for each of the SCM values. The pre-test for activism was not significant for any of the SCM values.

The block containing co-curricular involvement experiences (Block 4) contributed the next highest amount of variance, from 2% on Congruence and Change to 6% on Collaboration and Citizenship. Membership in on-campus student organizations was a significant predictor on all eight SCM values, while leadership within those organizations was significant on Consciousness of Self, Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Citizenship. Membership in off-campus organizations was a significant predictor of leadership capacity on all the SCM measures except for Commitment and Change. Community service conducted on a student's own was significant for all SCM measures. Internship experience was the only other significant predictor, emerging on Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, and Collaboration.

The first block containing demographic characteristics and the third block consisting of institutional variables also significantly contributed to the overall variance explained in the models. However, demographics contributed 3% of the variance at most while institutional characteristics contributed less than 1% on all SCM values. Among the institutional variables, attending a research intensive institution was the only characteristic that emerged as a significant predictor and did so only on Commitment and Change. Within the demographic block, gender emerged as a significant predictor indicating women scored higher than men on six of the eight SCM measures, with the exception of Citizenship and Change. Asian Pacific American students scored significantly lower than their White peers on all SCM measures except for Collaboration and Change. African Americans scored significantly higher than White students on Change, while lesbian, gay, and bisexual students scored higher than heterosexual students on this outcome. Students who indicated that they would rather not state their sexual orientation scored significantly lower than heterosexual students on all SCM values except for Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, and Change. Class standing emerged as significant on Consciousness of Self and Congruence. For these two regressions, first-year and sophomore students scored significantly lower than seniors. None of the parental characteristics emerged as significant, with the exception of lower income status which was a significant predictor on Change.

Discussion of Results

Demographic characteristics. Among the demographic variables included in Block 1, gender emerged as a significant predictor on six of the eight

measures. Means for male and female participants indicated that women scored higher on socially responsible leadership capacities in each case where gender was significant. This echoes previous research that characterizes women as more participative, democratic, and relational in their leadership styles (Astin & Leland, 1991; Eagley, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). This also reflects findings from other research conducted on the SCM using MSL data that indicated women scored higher than men on SCM outcome measures (Dugan, 2006a; Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008).

Race and ethnic identification variables also emerged as significant in the first block. Asian Pacific American-identified students scored significantly lower than their peers on all of the SCM values with the exception of Collaboration and Change. Reviewing the literature offers considerations as to why this may be the case. First, previous findings have shown that Asian Pacific Americans are less likely to identify themselves or members of their racial group as leaders (Balón, 2005; Liu & Sedlacek, 1999). Secondly, Asian Pacific Americans have been shown to select neutral categories in Likert-type scales more often than their peers, and are less likely to select response options on either extreme of the scale (Wang, Hempton, Dugan, & Komives, 2007). This result also reflects other findings using MSL data, indicating Asian Pacific American identification is a negative predictor of SCM scores (Dugan, Garland, Jacoby, & Gasiorski, 2008; Dugan & Komives, in press).

African American identification was the only other significant racial or ethnic variable showing significance. Students in this racial group scored higher

than their peers on Change, mirroring previous MSL research that indicated higher scores on SCM values (Dugan et al., 2008) for African American students. The strength of student scores in this racial category may be explained through the consistency of these findings with African American cultural value orientations that stress the importance of collectivism (Arminio et al., 2000; Harper & Quaye, 2007).

How a student reported on their sexual orientation status also emerged as a significant predictor. Students identifying as lesbian, gay, or bisexual scored significantly higher than their peers on Change. A possible rationale for this finding is that students who have identified as LGB may be more comfortable or active in pursuit of social change. As Change represents a desire to improve on the status quo while demonstrating comfort with transitions associated with the process of change (HERI, 1996), LGB students may be better equipped to address these ambiguous processes due to adaptive abilities developed in response to residing in a heteronormative culture (Cass, 1984).

Students who chose to not identify with a sexual orientation status scored significantly lower than their peers on all SCM values with the exception of Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, and Change. On all three values of the SCM pertaining to the individual level, Consciousness of Self, Congruence, and Commitment, students in this group scored lower than those identifying with a sexual orientation status. A possible explanation for this finding could be that as a student may be questioning their own sexual identity and thus identifying with the “rather not say” response, they may not yet have developed a high level

of self-confidence or ability to act authentically with their values. This may also explain lower scores on Collaboration, as an effort to work with others toward a common goal may be compromised due to diminished feelings of self empowerment and trust in others. As Citizenship involves responsibly connecting to a community in order to work toward social change for the benefit of others, this may also be affected by identity confusion and a limited connection to various campus communities.

Although parent education and income level has been shown to influence a student's participation in activism (Altbach 1989a, 1989b; Flacks, 1970; Lopez et al., 2006), these variables showed little significance related to leadership development. Parent education level was not significant at any level for any of the SCM values. The only instance where parent income level showed significance was on Change. Students indicating that their parents had a lower income level scored significantly higher than their peers on this value. The social change nature of this variable could help explain the findings in this case. As African American and LGB students also scored higher than their peers on Change, the fact that lower income students scored higher as well could indicate a willingness to challenge the status quo in response to the various forms of oppression with which these students are familiar.

The final group of demographic variables emerging as predictors pertained to class standing. However, this variable group only showed significance on Consciousness of Self and Congruence. In both of these instances, first year and sophomore students scored significantly lower than seniors. These findings are

congruent with the tenets of the SCM, which encourages participation in co-curricular experiences over the course of the college career for purposes of contributing to the leadership development process (HERI, 1996). Therefore the more instances students have to participate in co-curricular experiences over time on campus, the more chances they have to take advantage of these opportunities, thus contributing to their leadership capacity. As Consciousness of Self and Congruence are individual values within the SCM, these findings also coincide with previous research that indicates the influence of the college environment on a student's greater sense of self-image over time (Astin, 1993).

Quasi pre-tests. The two pre-tests in the second regression block explained the highest amount of variance among all blocks. However, within this block only the pre-tests for the outcome measures emerged as significant predictors. This finding indicates that the best predictor of socially responsible leadership capacity as measured by each SCM value was a student's capacity toward that SCM value prior to coming to college. This reflects existing research that has shown that student pre-college leadership capacity frequently emerges as the most significant predictor of leadership (Antonio, 2001; Dugan et al., 2008; Dugan & Komives, in press; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Smart, Ethington, Riggs, & Thompson, 2002).

Institutional characteristics. While showing significance as a block entered into the regressions, institutional characteristics contributed little to the overall predictive power of each model. For each SCM value, institutional characteristics accounted for less than 1% of the explained variance. Institutional

identifiers were included into the model due to evidence indicating size, selectivity, and institutional type have contributed to the presence of activism on campus (Astin et al., 1975; Dunlap & Peck, 1974; Van Dyke, 1998b). It is clear that this dated research on activism regarding the role of a campus type has little relation to leadership capacity. However, these findings reflect previous research that indicated that the influence of the college environment on leadership development is largely based on students' experiences and not characteristics of the institution (Astin, 1993b; Kimbrough & Hutcheson, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Although small campus size emerged as a negative predictor on Congruence, and research intensive institutions emerged as positive predictors on Commitment and Change, these findings may reflect sample size more than institutional contributions to SCM values.

College involvement experiences. A number of college involvement experiences emerged as positive predictors of socially responsible leadership capacity. Membership in student organizations on campus was a significant predictor on all SCM values while membership in off-campus organizations was a predictor on Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Collaboration, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, and Citizenship. This is congruent with previous research indicating contributions to leadership development and ability for members of organizations on and off campus (Antonio, 2001; Astin, 1993b; Dugan, 2006a; Gerhardt, 2008; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch, 2007). Holding a leadership position in an on campus student organization emerged as a predictor on Consciousness of Self, Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Citizenship.

This reflects literature that indicates holding an elected office position or a positional leadership role in a student organization positively contributes to leadership development (Astin, 1993b; Dugan, 2006a; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Although holding a leadership position was not significant on Congruence, Commitment, Controversy with Civility, and Change, this could be explained by the wide variety of student organizations available on campus and the myriad missions and purposes guiding those organizations.

Participating in community service on one's own was a significant predictor across all SCM values and reflected previous findings in the literature pertaining to community service contributions to leadership (Astin, 1993b; Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 2000; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006a; Holsinger-Fuchs, 2008; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch, 2007; White, 1998). Service organized by an individual was the only significant predictor of socially responsible leadership capacity among the service opportunities. No predictive power was evident for service conducted as part of a class, in conjunction with a student organization, or as part of a work study experience. This finding is contrary to existing research, as Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) found that outcomes increased for students who participated in service conducted as part of a class as opposed to service conducted independently. A possible explanation for the finding in this study is that the initiative taken to set up service opportunities for oneself, and the resulting experience the student gains through that process, could contribute to leadership capacity above and beyond what a student gains through participating in service experiences that are set up for them as part of a

class or organization. Considering service conducted on one's own is likely to involve off-campus organizations, results from this study connect to Gasiorowski (2009) who found that students who participate in off-campus service organizations are more likely to participate in community service. This could help explain the findings in this study as students who participate in service more often through off-campus organizations may have a higher frequency of participation, and therefore a greater contribution to leadership outcomes.

The final college involvement experience that emerged as a predictor of socially responsible leadership capacity was participation in an internship. This finding mirrored previous literature indicating the influence of internships on various leadership measures (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kuh, 1995; Thompson, 2006; White, 1998). Internships indicated significance on Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, and Collaboration. The finding that scores on all three individually-focused SCM values were positively influenced by an internship experience seems logical, considering internships are often catered toward a specific student and a set of desired educational outcomes. Significance on the group value of Collaboration can be understood when considering that although internships are designed for an individual student, these experiences often take place through frequent interaction with colleagues and co-workers within an office, department, or organization. The lack of indication of significance on Citizenship and Change can be explained by the often purely academic nature of internships, as opposed to focusing on social change.

Activism participation. The results of the regression on the fifth block

contained findings pertaining to the central research question of this study, which was to examine the relationship between participating in activism and leadership development. The null hypothesis, stating that activism would have no impact on leadership capacity, was rejected as a result of the analysis. The passive awareness scale was a positive predictor on all eight SCM values. This indicated that the more time students invested in paying attention to local, national, or global issues, the higher the scores were on each of the outcome measures. This presents an interesting finding when considering the level of activity involved with the three variables within the passive awareness scale. These items could have measured a range of activities that would in turn inform a student of the issues that surround them. This could be as simple as scanning a campus newspaper or national news website, or could consist of more complex and interactive experiences such as learning about global issues through participation in classroom discussions. Regardless of how a student garnered information on community, national, or global issues, it is clear that the process of paying attention to these issues positively contributed to their capacity for socially responsible leadership.

The single most significant finding in this study was the participatory activism scale emerging as a positive predictor on Citizenship. This finding indicates the positive influence of participating in a protest or demonstration, signing a petition, or contacting a public official or media outlet on a student's scores on the Citizenship outcome. Exploring the concept of Citizenship in the SCM helps to understand the connections of these activities to socially

responsible leadership. Social or civic responsibility is implied in Citizenship, as it is the value that connects an individual to a larger community or society (HERI, 1996). Thus, the social change toward which the behavior is directed is intended for the betterment of that community or society, requiring “awareness of local and global issues, active engagement in one’s community, and participation in interests beyond oneself” (Cilente, 2009, p. 57). It is the value that “puts flesh on the bones of social change,” and can be the desired outcome of a group’s effort (HERI, 1996, p. 67).

These results speak to the relationship between activism and leadership capacity associated with the Citizenship outcome measure. Although the active participation activism scale did not predict scores on any of the other SCM values, it is clear there is significant meaning to its predictive relationship on Citizenship. The foundational elements of the Citizenship value expounded upon here link the concept to the type of engaged citizenry higher education hopes to foster through involvement in the various educational settings available on campus.

Limitations

As with any research study, there are inherent limitations to the design and analysis process. First, there are certain limitations to discuss related to the MSL sample size. As previously reported, only 37% of students solicited participated in responding to the survey. It is possible that students who responded were more likely to be involved in activism or other involvement experiences, potentially resulting in response bias. However, the response rate exceeded what has typically been expected for an online survey (Couper, 2000; Crawford et al.,

2001). In addition, steps were taken during the data collection process to promote a random sample, such as oversampling by 70%.

It is important to note limitations pertaining to the study sample as well. First, the sample used in this study consists of data collected during the first iteration of the MSL in 2006. While the age of this dataset may constitute a limitation, it is important to note that the activism items used in this study have not been utilized in future iterations of the MSL. Second, oversampling concerns within the sample are worthy of note. Full-time students (94%) were represented in this sample at a far higher rate than part-time students. Women were also oversampled, and constituted 62% of the respondent population. Thirdly, certain student demographics were underrepresented and constitute concern for the generalizability of the results. Only 3% of participants indicated a gay, lesbian, or bisexual sexual orientation status. While this matches the rate indicated in typical research studies (Gates & Ost, 2004), the low percentage still represents cause for concern. Two student demographic categories were treated as missing cases in the study due to too few participants in the respective group, transgender and American Indian students. The limited representation of GLB, transgender, and American Indian students contributes to a lack of understanding of student populations that are often marginalized in research efforts (Bieschke, Eberz, & Wilson, 2000).

Limitations to the design of the study also exist and are important to discuss. First of all, this study examined how activism relates to student leadership development using only a one-time measurement. Thus, inferences or

estimates of long term influences are inherently limited through employment of the cross-sectional design.

Secondly, there is an inherent limitation related to a participant's ability to retrospectively report on previous collegiate or pre-collegiate experiences. However, student self-reports, when including rigorous methodological standards that allow for participant comprehension of questions asked and their associated value as well as clarity of response options has been shown to be appropriate in measuring educational gains (Gonyea, 2005). This has also been illustrated in a study that indicated self-reports of leadership were generally accurate in measuring self and peer-reported leadership behaviors and their associated quality (Turrentine, 2001).

Third, the data analysis approach taken in this study has its own limitations. Using this analysis could be considered a conservative statistical approach, as "any variance estimate attributable to collegiate experiences probably underestimates their effect, because any variance the inputs and environments share jointly is, in this method, attributed entirely to the pre-college variables" as they enter the regression model first (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996, p. 233). Additionally, the analytic technique used in this study explores the relationships between groups and does not reflect causality. Therefore, results do not account for the degree to which the relationships would persist in the presence of other variables. Finally, results from this analysis and the predictive ability of the variables should be understood as applicable and generalizable to student populations similar to those participating in this study. Despite these factors,

however, it is important to recall the lack of existing research on activism and leadership. Thus, the findings present in this study serve to provide an important foundation for future research.

The manner in which activism is defined and employed in this study is another limitation. An argument could be made that the behaviors students are asked to report on under the passive awareness activism items do not necessarily constitute activism. For example, paying attention to national and local issues could include less involved behaviors such as reading local news reports online. The nature of this level of involvement is markedly different when compared to attending a local government meeting and learning about issues in such a context. Also, behaviors represented in the participatory activism items are limited. Although attempts were taken to include a variety of forms of activism, there are associated types of involvement that are not included and thus could limit the manner in which activism relates to leadership development for participating students.

The manner in which leadership was conceptualized may also constitute a limitation to this study. While leadership has many definitions and has varied in the ways it has been studied and understood (Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2004; Rost, 1991, 1993), this study primarily defines leadership as a collective and relational effort toward social change. Therefore the applicability of these findings to other settings where leadership is conceptualized differently may be difficult. In addition, employing the SCM as a quantitative measure of leadership development during a one-time assessment should be taken in context. Student

development is a dynamic process that occurs over time (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; McEwen, 2003); and therefore, results from this study should be interpreted as a “developmental snapshot and not a fundamental developmental perspective” (Dugan & Komives, in press).

Implications for Practice

Findings from this study indicate the importance of engaging in co-curricular experiences while in college. Multiple forms of involvement were identified as significantly contributing to student’s socially responsible leadership capacity. These experiences were included in the model used in this study due to previous research indicating participation resulted in contributions to leadership development. Membership in student organizations and participating in community service experiences on one’s own had a significant relationship with each of the SCM values. Albeit to a lesser degree, holding a leadership position within student organizations, participation in off-campus organizations, and having an internship also positively related to student’s leadership capacity. These positive predictors and the amount of variance explained for the college involvement block reinforce the importance of advocating for student participation in these experiences. Faculty and staff members should be aware of the potent nature of these types of involvement because they represent opportunities for higher education to influence student leadership development.

One of the ways in which faculty and student affairs staff can be reminded of the developmental influences of co-curricular involvement is by learning about the SCM and finding opportunities to educate students on the model tenets.

Enhancing socially responsible leadership capacity is one of the ways stakeholders in academe can foster an engaged citizenry among student populations. Since internships and student organization involvement influenced leadership development in this study, faculty and staff members in internship coordinator or advisor roles should be using the opportunities for student connection inherent in these experiences to dialogue on the components of the SCM. However, instructors should pay careful attention to cultural differences when speaking about leadership during these interactions. As has been indicated in this study, students view leadership through various cultural lenses, and it is important that faculty and staff intentionally design leadership discussions with these considerations in mind.

The SCM value of Citizenship and its relationship to this study presents compelling implications for practice. Participation in both passive and active forms of activism significantly contributed to leadership capacity on Citizenship, and therefore, findings indicate value to encouraging activism and creating spaces for student civic engagement. As civic involvement is inextricably tied the concept of democracy, higher education is positioned to significantly contribute to the improvement of American democracy through the many in-class and out-of-class experiences on campus (HERI, 1996).

Opportunities to engage politically, however, are limited on college and university campuses, at least in the eyes of students. Colby (2007) and colleagues at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching surveyed students regarding their motivation to participate in community service in lieu of politics.

Student explanations reflected similar findings in the literature, including an interest in helping individuals, the immediacy of rewards to participating in service, an inability to see relevance of politics to their lives, and a lack of trust toward politicians and the political process (Colby, 2007). Yet even more often than these responses, students noted the wealth of opportunities to participate in service and a dearth of opportunities to become politically involved on campus. As early as high school, students are encouraged or often required to participate in community service, so they enter post-secondary education with a certain degree of familiarity and interest in continuing the practice. This is not the case for political engagement, however, as students view politics as unfamiliar territory (Colby, 2007).

CIRCLE's (Kiesa et al., 2007) examination of student engagement indicated similar sentiments among today's Millennial student. Students mentioned hindrances to political involvement including a lack of trustworthy political information, confusion regarding political institutions, and uncertainty regarding how to achieve social change (Kiesa et al., 2007). The resulting suggestion, then, is that these problems could be mitigated if students had opportunities to discuss current political issues. Results from this study indicate the developmental and educational potential to providing these experiences for students on campus, as paying attention to local, national, and global issues contributed to leadership capacity on all SCM values.

The resulting charge to faculty and staff is to develop opportunities to discuss current issues in curricular and co-curricular settings on campus.

Programming ventures such as speaker series have the potential to expose students to issues pertaining to various communities and can in turn demystify elements of the political process and influence future civic engagement.

Opportunities to discuss current issues must be made available in the classroom as well. In these settings, exposure to new ideas through discourse can spur interest in exploring issues outside the classroom in service opportunities, activism participation, or other civic engagement activities.

Since activism influences leadership capacity toward citizenship, opportunities to discuss topics relating to activism should be explored in educational contexts. Examples include instruction on activism in leadership-themed training sessions, conferences, and academic courses, as well as in student organization contexts. Teaching literature on social movements and contentious political processes can provide students with a “comparative framework to develop a conceptual toolkit that they can then subsequently apply in innovative ways” (Cunningham, 2005, p. 8).

Beyond historical perspectives on social movements and activism, relevant topics could include ways to successfully demonstrate and organize on campus, including employment of activism behaviors that are non-destructive, educational, and appropriate for both on and off-campus settings. Effective ways of communicating with administrators, law enforcement, and the media could also be covered. Use of existing instruments, such as the Activism Orientation Scale (Corning & Meyers, 2002), could be used as a tool for educators in these settings. Administration of the instrument before and after an activism event or training

series would provide important feedback for structuring similar experiences in the future.

Since instances of activism today are intertwined with ever-evolving forms of technology (Biddix, 2006; Biddix et al., 2009; Kreider, 2005; Rheingold, 2003; Stripling, 2010a), it is vital that both instructional methods used by educators and discussion of activist tools integrate technology as a central component. As Millennial students are far more tech savvy than previous generations and use various devices on a daily basis (Pew Research Center, 2010), the inclusion of technology in these settings ensures the educational methods used are most effective.

Educating students on designing constructive and effective protests and movements would serve to amplify the positive benefits of activism, while minimizing the harmful and destructive components of the behavior that often complicate the relationship between the students and the entities with whom they are trying to communicate. This is pertinent to activism directed toward campus-specific issues, as well as behavior related to nationally and globally relevant events and concerns. Student affairs practitioners, campus administrators, and faculty members must “work to ensure these experiences are educationally meaningful with respect to democratic citizenship” (Hamrick, 1998, p. 450). After all, “student activists frequently serve as a social and political barometer of their societies,” meaning there is definitive value in listening to what they have to say (Altbach, 1989a, p. 105).

Creating campus climates that are open to non-destructive forms of

activism is an important undertaking for campus administrators. In welcoming debate and dialogue on college and university campuses, administrators express their commitment to democratic principles and an openness to multiple perspectives. Therefore “administrators committed to democratic ideals must make student opinion, majority and dissenting, an important component in the search for mutual agreement” (Biddix et al., 2009, p. 143). A campus climate open to the presence of activism also promotes the inclusion of traditionally underrepresented viewpoints. As has been discussed previously, identity politics continues to catalyze instances of activism (Rhoads, 1997, 1998a, 1998b), and stifling protests and other demonstrations only serves to perpetuate the silencing of already marginalized student voices.

Creating campus climates open to traditionally underrepresented viewpoints is particularly important when examining the changing characteristics of college students. Today, Hispanic students represent the fastest growing enrollment group, while African American student enrollment has more than doubled since 1980 (Coomes & DeBard, 2004). As a result of changing population demographics nationally, Millennial students have had more interaction with other ethnicities and cultures than any previous generation (Raines, 2003). Therefore they are more racially tolerant and accepting in comparison to their elders (Pew Research Center, 2010), and institutions must establish welcoming climates accordingly.

Evidence exists that indicates students who participate in civic engagement activities while on campus continue these practices after leaving the

institution. These experiences lead to politically active citizens who vote at high rates, and who are prepared to lead other citizens in getting involved with issues (Fendrich, 1993; McAdam, 1988). Research also indicates that those that develop interests pertaining to specific political issues are likely to become long term activists (Milbrath & Goel, 1977). Similar results have been found for students participating in community service and volunteerism. Astin, Sax, and Avalos (1999) found that participating in six or more hours in volunteer work during college nearly doubled the chances for involvement in volunteer work after college, while Vogelgesang (2004) found that participation in college community service is a strong predictor for volunteer work after graduation.

Examining alumni support for a student's alma mater has also yielded findings indicating possible long term political commitments after college. Weerts, Cabrera, and Sanford (2009) found that graduates engage in two distinct, yet interrelated support roles of their alma mater: political advocacy, and volunteerism. While previous research indicated that alumni relations personnel have typically considered supportive alumni as only donors or volunteers, this study found a third role of political advocates. These alumni participated in advocating for their alma mater through contacting legislators, local politicians, and the governor's office (Weerts et al., 2009).

These findings speak to the potential long term benefits of encouraging participation in activism and civic engagement experiences during college. In addition to contributing to student leadership capacity, these experiences establish a foundation for civic participation after students leave campus. As higher

education strives to develop an engaged citizenry among students, fostering involvement in these areas provides evidence of success in meeting these outcomes. This is not only the case for communities outside of campus, but for campuses who benefit from political support of alumni as well.

Exploring these implications for practice can function as institutional means of supporting activism, while recognizing the contributions to student development and socially responsible leadership capacity as illustrated in the results of this study. Therefore, activism's presence should not be viewed as a developmental failure, as such activities "provide college youth with opportunities for community and contexts for their exploration of personal growth" (Hunter, 1988, p. 35). Activism "gives them a sense of purpose, pride, and service; teaches them new skills; shows them how to confront daunting obstacles; and lets them experience new worlds" (Loeb, 2010, p. 11). Encouraging citizenship and active engagement involves "understanding the developmental tasks that students face as they go through the process of learning about issues, developing strong feelings, and ultimately working for change" (Chickering, 1998, p. 2). The values inherent in activist students should be encouraged and commended, including an "increased sensitivity to social problems, motivation to address these problems, sophistication about effective strategies, and clarity about one's own values" (p. 2). After all, "we've all but forgotten that public participation is the very soul of democratic citizenship, and that it can profoundly enrich our lives" (Loeb, 2010, p. 3).

A new conceptualization of activism. As has been noted, much of the

literature on activism is dated in nature, or frames activism as a problem to be understood for purpose of administrative response. The dearth of research examining possible outcomes of participation in activism, as well as a lack of empirical studies supporting literature that frames activism positively was a primary problem addressed through this study. Through a review of the literature informing the construction of this study, and the findings resulting from the data analysis process, suitable rationale is provided for offering a new conceptualization of activism to be used in practice.

The metaphor of a tree offered by Weerts et al. (2009) provides assistance in understanding this new conceptualization of activism. In this example, civic engagement is represented by a tree. The roots of the tree, or civic behavior, are formed through experiences an individual has during various developmental periods. These experiences result in growth of the tree, and eventually result in branches that develop and strengthen over time. Participation in political and volunteer behavior constitute different branches on this civic engagement tree, and ultimately share a common root system (Weerts et al., 2009). Thus, activism is connected to volunteerism and community service, which function as methods of civic engagement.

The connections between activism and service behaviors have been espoused in the literature, and this relationship is inclusive of the manner in which students today understand civic and political involvement. Millennial students are interested in involving themselves locally, while they remain ambivalent toward formal politics (Kiesa et al., 2007). In a recent CIRCLE report (Kiesa et al.,

2007), one student stated, “politics to me has, no I wouldn’t call it a negative connotation, but it does not have an idealistic connotation; whereas rallying and activism and going for a cause has more of that idealistic undertone, while politics is marred by bad deals” (p. 15). In another CIRCLE report (Lopez et al., 2006), two-thirds of young people noted a lack of confidence in government. These attitudes have lead to an interest in “problem solving activism” (Hirsch, 1993, p. 36), or behavior directed toward the local level while seeking immediate returns.

One of the ways students choose to participate in activism is through community service. Students today have more opportunities to participate in community service, and are therefore presented with more messages about the importance of civic engagement, and the obligation to work together with others on social issues (Kiesa et al., 2007). They employ the language of “change” in two distinct ways, desiring first to effect systemic change, and in the second and more common manner that addresses immediate community needs (Kiesa et al., 2007). They “seek to be involved with others and believe in the power of collective actions to address public issues” (p. 14), and ultimately view these volunteer experiences as complementary to politics.

This leads to the offering of a new definition of activism, expanding previous conceptualizations focused primarily on protests, demonstrations, and rallies, to one inclusive of service and volunteer opportunities in their many forms. Thus, activism can be community service, community service can be activism, and they are both forms of civic engagement. And finally, as has been illustrated in previous research and this study, participation in service and

activism contribute to leadership development in college students.

Future Directions for Research

This study represents one of the few empirical attempts to explore the relationship between student activism and leadership development. While findings indicate connections between activism participation and socially responsible leadership capacity, additional efforts should be undertaken to further understand this relationship. Since the amount of variance explained by the regression models in this study is low, efforts should be made to expand future models to include a more extensive range of college environment experiences. As only co-curricular involvement experiences were included in this model, it is possible that the inclusion of other outside of class experiences included in the MSL could have explained a higher percentage of the variance in the model. These experiences could include mentoring experiences with student affairs staff, faculty, and employers, which have significantly contributed to leadership outcomes in other MSL studies (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, in press). Interactions with students outside of class and conversations relating to lifestyles/customs, personal values, social or political issues, religious beliefs, and diversity and multiculturalism have also contributed to leadership outcomes in other MSL studies (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, in press), and represent potential contributors to model variance in future research efforts.

Future research should also include further investigation into the passive awareness and participatory activism scales in order to determine if there were activism experiences that significantly contributed to SCM outcome measures

more so than others. Investigating whether a student's awareness of global issues relate to their socially responsible leadership capacity in a more significant way than their awareness of local issues or national issues provides one example. Since socio-cultural conversations with peers have been shown to significantly contribute to gains in socially responsible leadership in previous MSL studies (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, in press), further investigation of the passive awareness scale and the manner in which students become aware of issues is warranted. Within the active participation scale, examining which experiences more significantly relate to leadership capacity presents an interesting approach to further understanding activism and leadership.

Studies identifying co-curricular involvement experiences and contributions to leadership development outcomes have been thoroughly discussed in previous chapters of this study. However, other than this study, little evidence exists as to other outcomes associated with activism involvement. Future studies could examine the relationship between activism and other leadership measures, such as leadership efficacy (Denzine, 1999; McCormick, 2001; McCormick, Tanguma, & Lopez-Forment, 2002), or the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Academic outcomes could also be investigated for their relationships to activism, including student grades and retention.

Changing the organization of the blocks and outcomes measured in the regression models used in this study could provide additional insight into activism, leadership development, and other involvement experiences. Moving

the community service variables from the involvement types included in the fourth block to the fifth activism block could provide further insight into the connections of these experiences to leadership development. Shifting the activism scales from environments to outcomes could present interesting findings as to the relationships that exist between environments and activism. Including peer interactions and mentoring relationships alongside co-curricular involvement types could yield compelling results as to ways college environments predict student participation in activism.

Using future iterations of the MSL to further investigate activism participation and leadership development would be a worthwhile research endeavor. As the relationship between activism and leadership capacity has been empirically founded in this study, reusing survey items from the model in this study when the MSL is conducted in coming years could provide insight into possible trends within the results. Addressing a previously discussed limitation and altering the manner in which activism is operationalized could also provide insight into leadership development. Therefore, including a more representative group of activism behaviors included in the active participation scale is warranted.

Addressing an additional limitation to this study provides another recommendation for future research. As mentioned previously, gauging the long term effects of the types of involvement measured in this study is not possible due to the cross-sectional nature of the research design. Expanding the predictive power of the results through a longitudinal study of a group of student participants would allow for an assessment of leadership development over time. This would

provide further insight into the types of involvement that relate to leadership capacity, as well as to identify findings that would be invaluable for educators interested in environments that influence leadership development.

While the recommendations mentioned above present suggestions for research using quantitative research, qualitative research methodology holds significant promise for future investigations as well. Qualitative studies of activism (Williams, 1994) and leadership (White, 1998) have been previously noted for their contributions to scholarship on these respective topics. Through the use of case study methodology, a researcher could use collected data sources such as interviews, participant observations, archival records, and physical artifacts in order to develop an understanding of a particular incident or broader protest movement (Creswell, 1998). An ethnographic approach to studying a politically involved student organization is another method for developing a more complex understanding of activism. Collecting data through observations of a group's behavior, language, interactions, and in-depth interviews conducted with group members could provide insight into a highly involved student organization (Creswell, 1998). Both of these qualitative methods hold promise for not only investigating activism and student participants, but also for identifying further intersections between activism and leadership development in these settings.

Regardless of the methods used to investigate activism and leadership development in the future, rationale exists that provides impetus to further investigate this relationship. In addition to the results of this study indicating a need to examine activism and leadership development, other research has

indicated that the frequency of activism may be on the rise. Levine and Cureton (1998b) hypothesized that activism takes place on campuses in a cyclical fashion, and is represented by *periods of individual ascendancy* and *periods of community ascendancy*. During individual ascendancy, people focus on the present instead of the future, are more concerned with individual rights than responsibility to the community, and are more rooted in getting than giving. The opposite is true during community ascendancy, from which the emphasis shifts to the duty to others, the need to give, and the commonalities of the American people.

Progressive presidents have been elected during the three previous periods of community ascendancy, consisting of administrations that were socially activist and called for national improvements through citizen involvement. At the time of publication, Levine and Cureton (1998b) noted that the country was in a period of growing community ascendancy. With the election of President Barack Obama, and the myriad forms of community outpouring in response to the global economic recession, it appears we have fully entered into a period of community ascendancy. As instances of activism increase during these periods, researchers must take advantage of opportunities currently available in order to best attempt to understand the many under-researched facets of the phenomenon.

Conclusion

Higher education has consistently sought to develop students into citizen leaders capable of positively contributing to society. Students who participate in activism are examples of this civically engaged population, yet few studies have examined outcomes related to such involvement. Reasons for this gap in the

literature include the difficulty in studying student activists and movements, and the negative outlook on the presence on activism historically. Over the last thirty years, however, the perception of activism has shifted in tone and many scholars have lauded campus activism for its potential educational benefits. One of these benefits mentioned in the literature is the connection of participation in activism to the leadership development process in students. Empirically examining this relationship and addressing the existing gap in the literature constituted the purpose of this study.

Through the use of a national dataset designed to study leadership development among college students, this study employed a college impact model in order to investigate the research question. Participation in various types of student activism were entered into a regression model with other demographic, pre-college, institutional, and co-curricular experience variables in order to determine predictors of socially responsible leadership capacity. Results indicated that the regression models explained a significant amount of the variance in participant scores, with participation and holding a leadership position in on-campus and off-campus organizations, community service conducted on one's own, and participation in an internship experience emerging as significant predictors. Activism participation also emerged as significant, as passive forms of activism indicated influence on all leadership development measures, and active forms of activism significantly contributed to measures related to citizenship. These findings serve to address the existing gap in the literature pertaining to the relationship of student activism and leadership development and

provide a foundation for future research endeavors.

Appendix A

Participating Institutions in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership

INSTITUTION	CARNEGIE TYPE	PUBLIC/ PRIVATE	SIZE
Auburn University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Brigham Young University	Research Extensive	Private	Large
California State University, Northridge	Masters	Public	Large
California State University, San Marcos	Masters	Public	Medium
Claflin University	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
Colorado State University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
DePaul University	Research Intensive	Private	Medium
Drake University	Masters	Private	Medium
Drexel University	Research Intensive	Private	Medium
Elon University	Masters	Private	Medium
Florida International University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Florida State University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Franklin College	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
Gallaudet University	Masters	Private	Small
George Mason University	Research Intensive	Public	Large
Georgia State University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
John Carroll University	Masters	Private	Medium
Lehigh University	Research Extensive	Private	Medium
Marquette University	Research Extensive	Private	Medium
Meredith College	Masters	Private	Small
Metro State University	Baccalaureate	Public	Large
Miami University of Ohio	Research Intensive	Public	Large
Monroe Community College	Associates College	Public	Large
Montgomery College	Associates College	Public	Large
Moravian College	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
Mount Union College	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
North Carolina State University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Northwestern University	Research Extensive	Private	Medium

Oregon State University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Portland State University	Research Intensive	Public	Large
Rollins College	Masters	Private	Small
Simmons College	Masters	Private	Small
St. Norbert College	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
State University of New York at Geneseo	Masters	Public	Medium
Susquehanna University	Baccalaureate	Private	Small
Syracuse University	Research Extensive	Private	Large
Texas A & M University	Research Extensive	Public	Large
Texas Woman's University	Research Intensive	Public	Medium
University of Arizona	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of Arkansas	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of California, Berkeley	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of Maryland Baltimore County	Research Extensive	Public	Medium
University of Maryland College Park	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of Maryland Eastern Shore	Research Intensive	Public	Medium
University of Minnesota	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of Nevada Las Vegas	Research Intensive	Public	Large
University of New Hampshire	Research Extensive	Public	Large
University of North Carolina, Greensboro	Research Intensive	Public	Large
University of North Dakota	Research Intensive	Public	Large
University of Rochester	Research Extensive	Private	Medium
University of Tampa	Masters	Private	Medium

Appendix B

Means, Standard Deviations, and Coding for all Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Coding
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>			
Gender	.61	.49	0=male; 1=female
African American/ Black	.05	.23	0=no; 1=yes
Asian American	.08	.27	0=no; 1=yes
Latino(a)	.04	.21	0=no; 1=yes
Multiracial	.08	.27	0=no; 1=yes
Race not listed as option	.02	.15	0=no; 1=yes
Lesbian, Gay, or Bisexual	.03	.18	0=no; 1=yes
Rather Not Say Sexual Orientation	.03	.16	0=no; 1=yes
Parent Ed – Up to High School	.14	.35	0=no; 1=yes
Parent Ed – Some College	.21	.41	0=no; 1=yes
Parental Income – Lower Income	.10	.30	0=no; 1=yes
Parental Income – Middle Income	.40	.49	0=no; 1=yes
Class Standing – First-Year	.23	.42	0=no; 1=yes
Class Standing - Sophomore	.22	.42	0=no; 1=yes
Class Standing – Junior	.25	.44	0=no; 1=yes
<i>Pretests</i>			
Consciousness of Self	3.57	1.15	
Congruence	4.02	.81	
Commitment	4.27	.71	
Collaboration	3.93	.79	1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree;
Common Purpose	3.97	.69	3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree
Controversy with Civility	3.98	.78	
Citizenship	3.75	.83	
Change	3.55	.90	
Activism Pretest	1.46	.72	1=never; 2=sometimes; 3=often; 4=very often
<i>Institutional characteristics</i>			
Size (small)	.12	.33	0=no; 1=yes
Size (medium)	.36	.48	0=no; 1=yes
Control	.42	.49	0=public; 1=private
Research Intensive	.18	.38	0=no; 1=yes
Masters	.23	.42	0=no; 1=yes
Baccalaureate	.10	.29	0=no; 1=yes
Associates	.02	.14	0=no; 1=yes
<i>Collegiate experiences</i>			
Membership in college orgs	2.94	1.39	1=never to 5=much of the time
Leadership positions in student orgs	2.04	1.40	1=never to 5=much of the time
Membership in community orgs	1.99	1.33	1=never to 5=much of the time
Leadership in community orgs	1.57	1.09	1=never to 5=much of the time
Participation in athletics	.48	.50	0=no; 1=yes
Participation in Greek-letter orgs	.17	.38	0=no; 1=yes
Participation in leadership orgs	.16	.36	0=no; 1=yes
Participation in student government	.13	.34	0=no; 1=yes

Community service – Class	.64	1.24	Per term service hours: 0=0; 1=1-5; 2=6-10; 3=11-15; 4=16-20; 5=21-25; 6=26-30
Community service – Student orgs	1.50	1.61	
Community service – Work Study	.30	1.00	
Community service – on your own	1.45	1.67	
Internship experience	.37	.48	0=no; 1=yes
<i>Student Activism</i>			
Passive Awareness	2.74	.69	1=never; 2=sometimes; 3=often; 4=very often
Active Participation	1.63	.61	
<i>Outcome variables</i>			
Consciousness of Self	3.95	.51	Mean scores indicate the total individual scores across an SCM value, divided by the number of items for that SCM value
Congruence	4.16	.47	
Commitment	4.23	.47	Resulting mean corresponds to the following scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral, 4=agree; 5=strongly agree
Collaboration	3.97	.45	
Common Purpose	4.03	.42	
Controversy with Civility	3.82	.42	
Citizenship	3.82	.46	
Change	3.74	.47	

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