ABSTRACT

Title of Document:	EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-CULTURAL ISSUES DISCUSSIONS AND SOCIAL CHANGE BEHAVIORS
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The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between student participation socio-cultural issues discussions and student participation in social change behaviors. This study utilized data from the 2009 administration of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a national research project designed to explore student experiences and environmental factors that contribute to student leadership development. An internet-based survey was used to collect data from participants at 101 higher education institutions throughout the United States. The usable sample for this study consisted of 94,367 undergraduate students who completed at least 90% of the core survey and scales used for the study.

An adapted version of Astin's college impact model (Astin, 1991; 1993) provided the conceptual framework for the study. In this input-environment-outcome (IEO) model participant demographic characteristics and pre-college experiences represented the inputs. The environment included institutional characteristics, positional leadership experiences, leadership capacity, and socio-cultural issues discussions, which was the

main independent variable for the study. Self-reported frequency of participation in social change behaviors was the outcome and dependent variable.

Results indicated that the regression model accounted for 46% of the variance in predicting student participation in social change behaviors. Demographic characteristics were a positive but weak predictor of participation in social change behaviors. Institutional characteristics were found to have little influence in predicting student participation social change behaviors. Pre-college leadership experiences and positional leadership experiences were found to be strong predictors of social change behaviors. After accounting for these variables, socio-cultural issues discussions were found to be a positive weak predictor. When matched with other environmental predictors, socio-cultural issues discussions contribute to student leadership experiences related to participating in social change behaviors. Implications for practice provide practitioners with strategies to increase the likelihood of student participation in social change behaviors.

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-CULTURAL ISSUES DISCUSSIONS AND SOCIAL CHANGE BEHAVIORS

By

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Rebecca, my mother, Wyetter, the memory of my father, Daniel, and my sons Alexander and Christopher. Their sacrifice on my behalf in the completion of this dissertation far exceeded my own. Therefore, I am forever and always grateful and humbled by all they have done for me. My success is grounded in their unconditional love and unwavering support. I love them with all my heart.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Over ten years ago the W. K. Kellogg Foundation challenged higher education educators to rethink the way in which they prepared students to become future leaders (Astin & Astin, 2000). The Foundation posits that higher education bears significant responsibility in shaping society's leaders and professionals. In an ever changing and increasingly complex world "an important 'leadership challenge' for higher education is to empower students, by helping them develop those special talents and attitudes that will enable them to become effective social change agents" (Astin & Astin, 2000, p. 2). Gardner (1990) espoused the importance of a society that has made a high level of commitment to meeting the needs of its members and the necessity of individuals willing to collectively work towards improving existing conditions for everybody. Such dedication and willingness to serve others must be pervasive to sustain change. Solving society's problems requires engaged and responsible citizens who are observant of the problems that exist within the world around them, and are compelled to act with others to respond to those problems (Musil, 2003; Wagner, 2009).

Leadership educators must continue to find ways to influence students to take action to effect positive change on their campus and within their community. Society needs individuals who feel obligated to make a difference and demonstrate the commitment to follow through on their intentions. The current student leadership discourse focuses on responsibility, values, skills, and capacity (Dugan, 2010). These points of research and discussion are vital, and must continue. However, what seems to be missing is how leadership educators can influence students' likelihood of taking specific social change related actions.

Decline in Social Change?

During the mid-1990s Bonous-Hammarth (1996) called attention to a decline in social change-related involvement among Americans, and noted "we cannot escape the inverse parallel between the increasing social problems we face and the decreasing activism and effectiveness among people to collaboratively resolve these issues" (p. 1). More recently, Flanagan, Levine, and Settersten (2009) observed that individuals are less inclined to work through groups to address issues negatively influencing their community. The foundation of a democracy rests on the shoulders of committed citizens willing to foster and share their expertise and abilities to serve the community (Galston & Lopez, 2006). Flanagan et al. (2009) report that volunteering through community service among young people has increased over the past ten years. However, participation in other types of social change behaviors such as voting, participating in community projects, being involved with unions, and working within groups to address community issues has decreased (Flanagan et al., 2009). Students are taking individual action to provide service to provide relief for local problems, but are not cooperatively working towards changing the environment. They are more focused on addressing isolated issues than solving broader social problems (Lopez et al., 2006). For example, students may contribute canned goods to a school-organized food drive, volunteer in a local soup kitchen, or recycle consumer packaging within their household. Yet, they are not organizing with others to address the societal conditions of social inequity and the disproportionate distribution of wealth that contribute to these problems (Lopez et al., 2006).

The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) surveyed 1700 high school and traditional college age individuals (ages 15 to 25) and 550 adults to assess their participation in their communities and attitudes towards social issues (Lopez et al., 2006). The results illustrate that a majority of young people (53%) are disconnected from political and social issues, and have a self-perceived lack of ability to influence change. Young people are "much less confident in their own ability to make a difference…" (Lopez et al., 2009, p. 9). Only 55% believed they had the ability to influence positive change in resolving community issues. Although young people are active in extra-curricular activities within their schools, most are not involved in their communities outside of the school setting.

In a study of 2,056 students at a large land grant university, Ricketts, Bruce, and Ewing (2008) found that students indicated "a lack of agreement (or perhaps indifference) on civic responsibilities and values" (p. 30). Yet, the same sample of students demonstrated a high level of personal awareness and sense of ethics. This outcome suggests a disconnect between individual leadership capacity and participation in behaviors that contribute to social change. However, the type of social change society needs requires collaboration and synergistic solutions that only come about through a deliberate process that encourages students to assume their roles in participatory citizenry aimed to improve society (Musil, 2003; Wagner, 2009).

Socially Responsible Leadership

Leadership as a concept has shifted from notions of a sole leader commanding followers and controlling the environment to a group of leaders working collaboratively to achieve shared outcomes (Rost, 1993). "Leadership development for social change is

an international effort to facilitate changes in people, organizations, communities, fields, and systems to produce specified outcomes" (Howard & Reinelt, 2007, p. 343). Change happens through a process of individuals collaboratively working together (Workman, 2009). The world is interconnected and networked in ways that require mutually interdependent relationships with others to foster change (Allen & Cherrey, 2000).

Several higher education associations have emphasized the importance of higher education's responsibility of fostering socially responsible leadership among college students (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Caryn McTighe Musil, Vice President for Diversity, Equity, and Global Initiatives at the Association of American Colleges and Universities posits the following aspirational vision of a world where higher education is intentionally facilitating leadership for social change among college students:

> Applying knowledge and not merely demonstrating knowledge is commonplace. Experiencing the challenge of deliberating across differences to achieve agreed upon ends is a regular occurrence. Integrating what one knows with what one values in the service of the common good has become an everyday habit, not a serial, extracurricular activity.
>
> Such an educational outcome represents an unquiet revolution indeed. It is just the sort Thomas Jefferson had in mind when he rested the future of the young republic on its power to educate its citizenry. Since those initial ambitious steps, the United States continues to discover how to transform democratic aspirations into democratic justice. Higher education dare not recoil from using its formidable resources in the service of that noble and ennobling ambition (Musil, 2003, p. 8).

Socially responsible leadership brings together the process of cooperative efforts intended to bring about positive social change (Wagner, 2009). As a goal, leadership development is aimed at increasing students' capacity to positively influence the world around them (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007). Social change seeks to address systemic inequities and problems that exist in society. Dugan and Komives (2010) noted that researchers and professional associations alike have identified "socially responsible leadership as a core college outcome" (p. 525). Collegiate co-curricular leadership programs emphasize socially responsible leadership through widespread use of the social change model of leadership (HERI, 1996; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006).

The social change model of leadership development provides a framework and process for individuals who want to engage in socially responsible leadership (Cilente, 2009; HERI, 1996). Participating in the process requires individuals to reflect on their personal values and perspectives, and to seek to understand the world view of others. The beneficiaries of the process extend far beyond the individuals and groups working for social change. Members of the community and society improve as a result, and the needs of all stakeholders are incorporated in the change.

Statement of Problem

Social change for the common good is a desired outcome of student leadership development (Astin & Astin, 2000; Dugan, 2010; HERI, 1996; Kezar et al., 2006; Wagner, 2009). Emerging research on college environments and leadership has explored the relationship between leadership development and student involvement (Cress, Astin,

Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Findings from the research suggest a predictive relationship between particular types of involvement and leadership outcomes. However, one of the most overlooked types of student involvements in the literature, with a theoretical relationship to student leadership outcomes, is socio-cultural issues discussions among college students.

Student participation in socio-cultural issues discussions has been linked to changes in attitudes related to social change, critical thinking, cross-cultural understanding, openness to diversity, self-awareness, and student learning (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzini, 1996; Quaye & Baxter Magolda, 2007; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Amaury, 2001; Zúñiga, Williams, & Berger, 2005). These types of discussions have been revealed to influenced democratic and civic outcomes, and increased understanding across differences among students (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Schoem, Hurtado, Sevig, Chesler, & Sumida, 2001). The efficacy of socio-cultural issues discussions related to the previously stated outcomes has been well-documented. The evidence suggests that socio-cultural issues discussions hold significant power to produce tangible outcomes related to changing participant behavior along several different measures. Yet, the relationship between socio-cultural discussions and social change behaviors has not been empirically explored.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. This study utilized data collected from the 2009 administration of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). First

administered in 2006, the MSL is national survey of student experiences and environmental factors that contribute to student leadership development outcomes.

Research Question

The study focused on the following research question:

> Does frequency of engaging in socio-cultural issues discussions predict a significant amount of the variance in social change behaviors beyond pre-college experience, positional leadership experience, and self-perceived leadership capacity?

Hypothesis

The frequency of engaging in socio-cultural issues discussions will be a significant predictor of social change behavior frequency after controlling for participants' demographic characteristics, pre-college experiences, institutional characteristics, positional leadership involvement, and self-perceived leadership capacity.

Definition of Terms

Social change behaviors. For the purpose of this study, social change behaviors are self-reported and encompass some level of engagement with the following activities: community service, acting to benefit the common good or protect the environment, being actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem, being actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community, communicating with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern, and taking action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem. (Center for Student Studies, 2009).

Socio-cultural issues discussions. Socio-cultural issues discussions are conversations that occur between peers about different values, lifestyles, and issues related to politics, multiculturalism, and diversity. These conversations, as measured in this study, take place outside of the classroom, are unstructured, and are self-reported (Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2006; Inkelas & Associates, 2004).

Leadership capacity. Leadership capacity for this study is defined as an individual's self-perceived ability to participate in the process of leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2007 & 2010). This construct was measured using the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Tyree, 1998). It a self-report instrument created to measure the process of socially responsible leadership theoretically grounded in the eight values of the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996). Leadership capacity in this study is as an independent variable that was controlled along with other independent variables (i.e., demographic characteristics, pre-college experiences, institutional characteristics, and positional leadership experiences) to measure the net effect of the main independent variable on the dependent variable.

Significance of Study

Leadership educators and scholars have invested significant effort to prepare students to make social change. Most studies on leadership outcomes have focused on leadership capacity, self-efficacy, learning, attitudes, and intentions (Dugan, 2010). However, most studies have not focused on directly influencing behavior aimed at making positive change within one's community. Aspirational literature such as *Leadership Reconsidered* (Astin & Astin, 2000) challenges higher education to do just that. Numerous studies have espoused the positive cognitive and behavioral outcomes

associated with socio-cultural discussions (Gurin et al., 2002; Zúñiga et al., 2005). Learning occurs when peers engage in discussions sharing their own opinions and understandings about social issues (Hurtado, 2001). This study may provide leadership educators with evidence that can be used to increase the likelihood of students participating in social change behaviors. Beyond having the capacity and desire to take action, the findings from this study may provide educators with methods of influencing students' behavior toward creating and sustaining social change.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the contexts and conditions supporting the rationale for this study including the call for socially responsible leadership among college students. The research question, hypothesis, and key definitions for this study were also presented in this chapter. The next chapter provides a review of literature relevant for this study.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to establish a theoretical and empirical rationale for exploring the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. It consists of five sections. This chapter begins with a review of the social change model of leadership development, which provides the theoretical framework for this study, followed by examples of other empirical studies grounded in the social change model. The second section provides an overview of the relevant leadership foundations that situate the social change model in the broader context of leadership development literature.

Undergraduate students participate in several kinds of activities that can be defined as social change behaviors (Astin, 2003; Wagner, 2009). Therefore, the third section presents literature related to the dependent variable, social change behaviors. It begins with a discussion of social change behaviors from a broad perspective followed by descriptions and research findings on the types of college student social change behaviors measured in this study. Research on predictors of college student participation in social change behaviors follows next. Literature describing the relationship between pre-college and college participation in social change behaviors completes the third section.

Socio-cultural issues discussions is the main independent variable of this study. The nature and use of socio-cultural issues discussions among college students is presented in the fourth section. The fifth and final section concludes the chapter with a discussion of relevant conceptual and epistemological frameworks on student leadership

development that provide a context for the study, and demonstrate the interrelatedness of the previous four sections.

The Social Change Model of Leadership Development as a Theoretical Framework for Understanding Social Change Behaviors

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

The social change model of leadership development provides a framework for understanding and facilitating the phenomenon of the leadership process, and is particularly appropriate for explaining how students engage with one another when participating in social change behaviors. Specifically, the social change model describes a path for enhancing self-knowledge and leadership competence through three individual values, three group values, and a societal value of Citizenship (HERI, 1996). All seven values contribute to an eighth value of Change. An individual can engage the values at any point within the model (Cilente, 2009).

The social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009) is grounded in the assumption that leadership is a process with outcomes that should improve social conditions in society. This model reflects the notion of leader-follower shared purpose of transforming leadership (Burns, 1978), but significantly extends it and other conceptual leadership frameworks (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1990) outlining both individual and group values necessary for creating change. Kezar et al. (2006) offer the social change model as an example of empowerment, which they define "as the practice of sharing power and enabling constituents to act on issues they feel are important and relevant" (Kezar et al., 2006, p.

77). These characteristics contribute to the model's wide use on college campuses (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar et al., 2006).

Individual values. The first three individual values are consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment (HERI, 1996). Knowledge within this domain contributes to one's capacity to learning and demonstrating the group values. Embracing the values within the individual domain of the model requires a person to do the inner work of honest reflection, clarification of one's purpose, and dedication towards participating in the leadership process (Cilente, 2009).

The first value, Consciousness of self, is an awareness of both the static and dynamic dimensions of one's identity. This includes thoughtful consideration of personal motivation, interest, values, beliefs, and dimensions of social identity (Abes & Jones, 2004). A person practicing this value is aware of the components that make up his or her personality and internal state in response to what is occurring around him or her at any given moment (Cilente, 2009; HERI 1996).

Congruence and Commitment are closely related. One's internal values and stated intentions consistently reflected through outward behaviors facilitate trustworthiness and portray the value of Congruence (Cilente, 2009; Shalka, 2009). Commitment brings together the first two individual values and is sustained through strong personal passion towards a cause (Kerkhoff & Ostick, 2009). Gaining competence within the individual values increases one's ability to engage the group and societal values (Cilente, 2009).

Group values. Collaboration is both an ideal and a behavior. Group members consciously come together, through their relationships with one another, and direct their

thoughts and actions to work together toward a shared outcome (Cilente, 2009; HERI 1996). More than any other social change model value, Collaboration makes explicit the need for leaders to work interpedently.

Common Purpose is what attracts individuals into groups, and fuels a desire to work together. The notion of a shared and agreed upon outcome is a common thread of most post-industrial leadership models and definitions (Komives et al., 2007). A group's purpose is explicitly clarified and accepted through discussion and mutual understanding (Cilente, 2009).

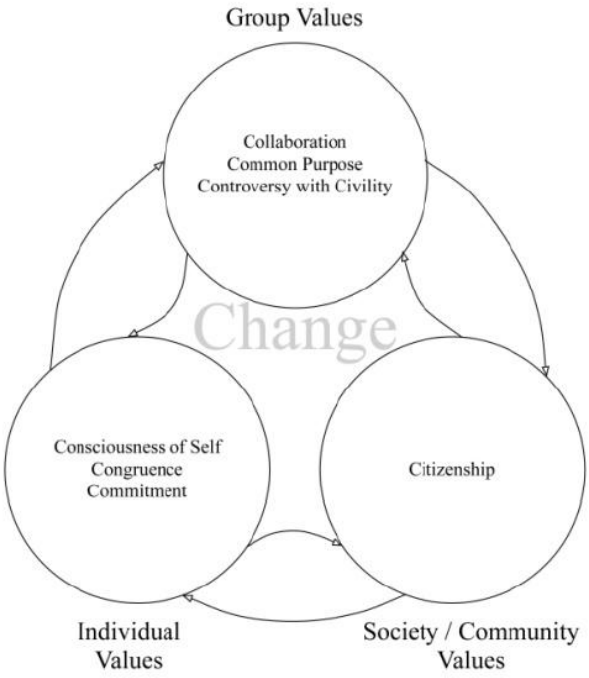
Controversy with Civility describes how a group will respond to conflict that naturally arises and a necessary aspect of the leadership process (Cilente, 2009). Disagreements are not avoided, but instead are opportunities to further clarify a group's purpose. Furthermore, the process of resolving differences challenges individuals to recognize the influence of their attitudes and behaviors on others (HERI, 1996). This value requires participants to be committed to the process of exploring controversy and supporting the group's purpose.

Society/community values. The value of Citizenship deepens the significance and impact of the group's efforts and "calls all individuals to see themselves as part of a larger whole" (Cilente, 2009, p. 57). Individuals and groups who demonstrate Citizenship are compelled to take an active role within their community and accept responsibility for doing their civic duty (Bonous-Hammarth, 1996). Leaders are responsible for being attuned to and serving the needs of their community through their actions. Working toward social change is intended to benefit society and address broader societal issues (HERI, 1996).

Change is the eighth and culminating value of the social change model. The social change model is explicit in promoting change as it seeks to "make the world a better place for current and future generations" (Cilente, 2009, p. 53). The individual, group, and society/community values of the social change model coalesce to foster a perpetual process of leadership for positive change. Individuals who embrace this value demonstrate both a willingness to work towards change and are comfortable with change in their environment.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the interaction between the individual, group, and societal values of the social change model. The relationship among the values are cyclical each value contributing to the development of the other values. Table 2.1 provides a description of each social change model value in order.

Figure 2.1 Core Values of the Social Change Model



Source: Adapted from *A social change model of leadership development* (HERI, 1996). Copyright © 1996, National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs. Reprinted with permission of the National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs

Table 2.1

Social Change Model Values and Descriptions

Individual Values	Description
Consciousness of Self	Awareness of one's values, behaviors, thoughts, abilities, and interests as related to self and others
Congruence	Consistency and alignment between one's values, thoughts, and behaviors
Commitment	Internally motivated willingness and passion to remain with a task or cause over a long period of time
Group Values	**Description**
Collaboration	Working with other with shared values to bring about an agreed upon outcome
Common Purpose	A mutually accepted and understood objective
Controversy with Civility	The ability to express divergent ideas, beliefs, and viewpoints with respect and a desire to seek mutually beneficial outcomes.
Societal Values	**Description**
Citizenship	Understanding and accepting one's responsibility to assess and respond to the needs of one's community
Change	Reflects an openness to enhancing one's environment for the betterment of all and is the desired outcome of the other values

Source: Adapted from HERI (1996).

The social change model provides insight into how students can develop the personal capacity to influence and work with others to bring about social change. Each of the seven "Cs" influences the other values. The first seven values enhance one's ability to foster and embrace the eighth value of Change. Research that incorporates the social change model as a theoretical framework and utilizes an instrument to measure the eight values within the model is presented in the following section.

Review of Research Utilizing the Social Change Model

The social change model of leadership development has been used as a theoretical framework for several empirical studies (e.g., Center of Inquiry in the Liberal Arts at Wabash College, 2009; Dugan, 2008; Dugan, del Castillo, & Beazley, 2011; Dugan et al., 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Kusel, & Simounet, under review; Dugan & Yurman, 2011; Gehrke, 2008; Haber & Komives, 2009; Ricketts et al., 2007; Rosch, 2007; Rubin, 2000). Most studies accomplish this through utilizing the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) which was designed to operationalize the eight values of the social change model. The SRLS was first created by Tyree (1998) and has been revised three times (Center for Student Studies, 2009, Dugan, 2006a, Dugan & Komives, 2009) to reduce its size for use in the national MSL study. The SRLS comprised eight sub-scales that measure each of the eight values of the social change model. Chapter three provides a full overview of the creation of the SRLS, an explanation and rationale of its revisions, and reliability measures. The following section will review studies grounded in the social change model and utilizing the SRLS.

Environmental influences. Rubin (2000) employed the SRLS to assess the effectiveness of an emerging leader's curriculum at a community college using a sample of 34 students with a control group of 66 students. The curriculum was based on the social change model with the desired outcome of instilling the eight values of the social change model within the program participants. Effectiveness of the program was measured using the SRLS. Although the sample size was small, the results of the study indicated a significant increase in leadership capacity for the emerging leader's group as measured by five of the eight scales of the SRLS.

Participants indicated higher ratings on the following scales/values: Collaboration, Common Purpose, Citizenship, and Change, which are all group and societal values of the social change model. Congruency was the only individual value where program participants rated higher than the control group. Results from Rubin's (2000) study suggest that the emerging leader's program's greatest impact occurred through the group processes that were integral to the program.

Ricketts et al. (2007) administered the SRLS to 2,056 undergraduate agricultural students (60% female, 40% male, nearly equally proportioned across class year) at a large mid-Atlantic institution to assess students' personal leadership aptitude and provide baseline data to shape future educational programs. Students scored highest on individual values and lowest within group values. They were less inclined to have a desire to collaborate with others. Findings from this study point to the importance of providing leadership development opportunities for students, but were not delineated by gender.

Rosch (2007) used the social change model and a revised version of the SRLS to explore the relationship between campus involvement and leadership capacity among a sample of 856 undergraduate students at a northeastern, private, mid-size university. The study also investigated the differences in leadership outcomes related to gender, race, and class standing. Additionally, the study looked at the interaction among all of these variables. Findings indicated that women scored higher than men, and that with each successive class year participants' scores on the SRLS increased across gender and race. Gender and campus involvement were found to be significant predictors of leadership capacity when other variables where held constant. Haber and Komives (2009) found

similar results on a sample of 3,410 students from a large, mid-Atlantic, public University with women scoring higher than men on measures of overall leadership capacity and student involvement being a significant predictor of leadership capacity.

Student characteristics. Dugan and Komives (2007) utilized the social change model as the theoretical framework for a national study on higher education environments and leadership outcomes that reported several findings. The researchers used a sample of over 50,000 undergraduate students from 52 higher education institutions throughout the United States. The SRLS served as the core scale of the survey. Overall, students scored highest on the Commitment scale and lowest on the Change scale. Class year was found to be a predictor of increased measures on leadership capacity, with the exception of Congruence and Controversy with Civility which change only slightly as student progress from their first year in college through their senior year. These findings are consistent with other findings noted above. Table 2.2 lists the experiences and student characteristics found in Dugan and Komives that influence leadership outcomes as measured by the SRLS.

Table 2.2

Student Characteristics and College Experiences Influencing Leadership Outcomes

Student Characteristics	College Experiences
Pre-College Experiences	Time in College
Race and Ethnicity	Mentoring
Gender	Socio-Cultural Issues Discussions
Marginalized Group Status	Positional Leadership Role
	Formal Leadership Programs
	Service
	Campus Involvement

Dugan, et al. (2009) used a national sample of 50,378 participants to explore student leadership capacity related to social identity, particularly race and gender. A revised version of the SRLS was utilized in this study. The purpose of this study was to fill the void within student leadership development research on the influence of race and other dimensions of social identity on leadership outcomes.

Self-reported scores on measures of Consciousness of Self, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change were all significantly higher for African American/Black students than for White students (Dugan, et al., 2009). Asian American students self-reported lower scores than all other groups, except Native Americans, on Congruence, Commitment, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change. Women scored higher than men across seven of the eight SRLS scales with the exception of Change. African American/Black students may have scored higher on the above values because as a subordinated group (Goodman, 2001) they are more likely to have a need to utilize such skills in the leadership process as they have less power than whites (Johnson, 2006). Dugan et al. (2009) hypothesized that the findings for Asian American students may result from Asian Americans not viewing themselves as leaders, or having a tendency to select more neutral scores on self-response measures. The study did not include any qualitative data to provide further explanation on these findings.

Dugan et al. (2009) found that African American students scored higher than White students on Consciousness of Self. Rosch (2007) found similar results in which race was not found to be a significant predictor of leadership. Of the eight SRLS scales, race was only significant for the Consciousness of Self value when campus involvement was held constant. Rosch examined race as a collapsed variable instead of analyzing data

using separate racial categories. Students of color rated higher on this value than White students. Campus involvement was a significant predictor of leadership capacity beyond race and class year.

Contrary to Rubin's (2000) findings, participants in Dugan et al. (2009) and Ricketts et al. (2007) both reported higher scores on individual values instead of group or societal values. The students in Rubin's study completed the SRLS after participating in a semester-long emerging leaders program. Therefore, this treatment may explain the difference in scores from these two groups.

Research involving the SRLS and transgender students is limited due to small sample sizes. However, the following studies demonstrate the wide applicability and usage of the SRLS. Recently, Dugan et al. (under review) explored leadership experiences and outcomes among a national sample of 143 transgender students. Transgender students indicated lower scores on the composite measure of the eight scales of the SRLS compared to students who identified as non-transgender, lesbian, gay, and bisexual students and heterosexual students. In a similar study involving a national sample of 1,682 lesbian, gay, and bisexual students, Dugan and Yurman (2011) found no statistically significant difference between measures of leadership capacity outcomes within and between groups in this sample and results from a national normative data sample (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

The social change model and the SRLS have been applied to leadership development scholarship exploring specific student groups. For example, Dugan (2008) looked at socially responsible leadership outcomes among a national sample of 8,700 students holding membership in social fraternities (40% of participants) and sororities

(60% of participants). Women scored higher than men on measures of Congruence, Commitment, Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Controversy with Civility. As a group, men and women indicated the highest score on the Commitment scale and the lowest score on the Change scale. Fraternity and sorority members also shared the lowest scores compared to a national sample of participants on measures of Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change.

Gehrke (2008) explored the relationship between spirituality and leadership among 449 students at a non-religious liberal arts institution. The social change model and the SRLS were used in concert with three measures of spirituality to determine the correlation between a composite measure of leadership capacity and three measures of the level of spirituality among participants. These measures were identified as spirituality (e.g., understanding spirituality), equanimity (e.g., feeling at peace and connecting with others), and spiritual quest (e.g., seeking one's philosophy for life). The highest correlations were between leadership capacity and equanimity, followed by leadership capacity and spiritual question. There was a weak correlation between leadership capacity and spirituality. The findings support the connection between the self-reflecting and human understanding nature of the values of social change model and the aspects of spirituality related to introspection and connection to other human beings (Gehrke, 2008).

Dugan et al. (2011) extended the work of Dugan and Komives (2007) to investigate the influence of 16 different leadership experiences on leadership capacity using a national sample of 8,961 college seniors. Leadership capacity was delineated into the four domains of the values of the social change model, individual values, group

values, societal values, and change. Leadership experiences were found to be positive predictors of leadership capacity of at least one of the four domains. Conferences and lecture/workshop series positively influenced each of the four domains. As found in previous studies, leadership experiences had the strongest predictive relationship with group and societal domains. Yet, compared to other environmental variables, leadership experiences were the least conclusive as a predictor of leadership capacity.

Environmental influences. Most student leadership studies utilizing the social change model and the SRLS are situated within the context of the United States. Although many studies sample international students attending American colleges and universities, few studies examine leadership capacity from a perspective outside of the United States. Dugan et al. (2011) looked at predictors and outcomes of socially responsible leadership capacity among college students in the United States and Mexico. Findings indicate positive gains in leadership capacity among both populations. Students from Mexico scored significantly higher on both composite measures of pre-college leadership capacity and outcome measures of leadership capacity than students from the United States.

Dugan and Komives (2010) conducted an investigation on college environment factors that influence leadership outcomes as measured by the SRLS among a national sample of over 50,000 students. Faculty mentoring, participation in community service, and participation socio-cultural issues discussions were all significantly predictive of leadership outcomes. Consistent with Rubin's (2000) findings, the college environment had the most influence on the group values of the social change model (i.e., Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Controversy with Civility).

Wabash study. The Wabash National Study of Liberal Arts Education utilized the SRLS and other outcome measures in a longitudinal study of 19 institutions and 3,081students on features within an institution that support liberal arts education (Center of Inquiry in the Liberal Arts at Wabash College, 2009). The study measured change across four years of college within a cohort and found that 52% of students showed moderate/high growth in overall leadership capacity measured by the SRLS, with 13% indicating small growth, and 35% showing no growth.

The Wabash study correlated Good Teaching, Academic Challenge, and Diversity Experiences with each of the eight scales of the SRLS. Measures of Good Teaching (e.g., faculty feedback and interest in student learning) and Academic Challenge (e.g., challenge of coursework, frequency of exams and assignments, integration of ideas in the classroom) were positively correlated with all eight scales of the SRLS (Center of Inquiry in the Liberal Arts at Wabash College, n.d.). Diversity experiences were positively correlated with measures of Congruence, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Citizenship, and Change. These values represent the group and societal domain within the social change model (HERI, 1996). The questions on the diversity experiences measures focused on discussions with peers and exposure to diversity in the classroom.

The preceding section described empirical research on student leadership outcomes that utilize the SRLS and the social change model. These studies examined the relationship between student characteristics and environmental factors that influence leadership capacity. Table 2.3 provides a summary of the student characteristics and college environments explored in these studies. The following section provides a review

of leadership literature that situates the social change model in a broader context of leadership scholarship.

Table 2.3

Summary of Student Characteristics and College Environments Examined in Research Using the Social Change Model and Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

Student Characteristics	College Environments
Race	Sorority or Fraternity Membership
Gender	Campus Involvement
Sexual Orientation	Leadership Training
Class Standing	Faculty Mentoring
Nationality	Participation in Community Service
Level of spirituality	Participation in Socio-cultural issues discussions

Leadership Foundations

Conceptions of Leadership

Historical perspective. The previous section provided a description of the social change model (HERI, 1996), which is one theoretical approach to student leadership development, and the framework used in this study. The following section describes the historical context of leadership and reviews it from a broad view beyond student leadership development related applications. This is necessary for understanding the literature and ways of conceptualizing leadership that influence contemporary approaches of leadership such as the social change model.

Komives et al. (2007) outline seven approaches of conceptualizing leadership that span over 150 years. The common thread of the first four approaches, – great man, trait,

behavioral, and influence – is that they are primarily leader-focused and leaders possess and exhibit specific inherited abilities, traits, or behaviors. The later approaches, reciprocal and chaos/systems, recognize the importance of the relationship between leaders and followers, and the contextual nature of leadership. Earlier approaches to leadership are difficult to measure and fail to consider the complexity of leadership as a construct. Most contemporary approaches are critiqued for inadequate research and difficulty with attaining and quantifying related interpersonal dynamics (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2005, 2009; Komives & Dugan, 2010; Komives et al., 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

Komives and Dugan (2010) trace the epistemological frameworks that reflect the evolution of contemporary leadership theories, and illustrate a progression in the social construction of the ways in which society makes meaning of leadership. Rost (1991) posits that the change in leadership theory marked by the emergence of reciprocal leader and follower frameworks represents a paradigm shift. However, Komives and Dugan point out that although this was a change for members of dominant groups, those who were part of subordinated groups, including women and people of color, have long held these beliefs, and valued collective and collaborative relationships as a means of accomplishing shared outcomes for common purposes.

Shifting paradigm. The understanding and demonstration of leadership has changed significantly over the past 50 years (Avolio et al., 2009). Based on early approaches to leadership, which were grounded in the perspective of the dominant group paradigm (Komives & Dugan, 2010), the leader was responsible for directing, managing, and instructing others in a particular endeavor. Leadership was not necessarily associated

with serving society, but instead was deterministic, individual-centered, and aimed at achieving a specific purpose determined by a person identified as a leader (Komives et al., 2007; Rost, 1991).

Kezar and Moriarty (2000) noted that past conceptualizations of leadership were hierarchical in nature and outcome focused. Kezar et al.(2006) further contrast how leadership has changed in the following excerpt

> Over the past twenty years, leadership has moved from being leader centered, individualistic, hierarchical, focused on universal characteristics, and emphasizing power over followers to a new vision in which leadership is processed centered, collective, context bound, nonhierarchical, and focused on mutual power and influence processes (Kezar et al., 2006, p. 33).

These notions are reflective of the industrial era and social climate at the time. The individuals following the leader had little influence on the results they had been asked to produce. James MacGregor Burns (1978) challenged previous foundations of leadership by suggesting a more encompassing perspective.

Transforming and Transformational Leadership

The social change model (HERI, 1996) has within its roots the notion that leadership is a participatory process for all involved. This idea can be traced to Burns (1978), who created a shift within current dominant viewpoint of his era in how leadership was viewed by suggesting that leadership is a cyclical process involving leaders and followers each with their own roles (Komives & Dugan, 2010). Each of these groups is integral to the process, which differed significantly from past conceptualizations that solely focused on the leader. Therefore, leadership shifted from

being a one-directional occurrence to a multi-directional and shared process between leader and followers.

Transforming. Furthermore, Burns (1978) distinguished two types of leadership that existed between leaders and followers. The first type is called transactional leadership where the followers perform a specified set of behaviors at the request of the leader in exchange for a tangible reward (Bass, 1995). An example of this type of relationship can be seen in work environments where employees perform a set of tasks as directed by a supervisor, with no input on the task or how it is completed, in exchange for a paycheck (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Burns, when describing transactional leadership stated, "The object in these cases is not a joint effort for persons with common aims acting for the collective interests of followers but a bargain to aid the individual interests of persons or groups going their separate ways" (p. 425).

Burns's (1978) second example is transforming leadership which involves leaders and followers mutually shaping and collaborating on the achievement of a common outcome. This notion serves as one of the foundational elements of the social change model (HERI, 1996). Both groups have a shared interest "which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers" (p. 426). Transforming leadership is synergistic (Covey, 1989) because the group's achievement is more than the sum of the parts contributed by each individual (Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Price, 2003). This phenomenon can be seen in the group values of the social change model (HERI, 1996).

Transactional and transforming leadership can each produce positive outcomes (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Walker, 2006). However, Burns (1978) made a distinction in

the type of values associated with each type. Modal values are "values of means – honesty, responsibility, fairness, the honoring of commitments" (Burns, 1978, p. 427) are necessary for transactional outcomes to occur. Individuals participating in the process must demonstrate these values. End values are associated with transforming leadership and occur as a result of the process (Michie & Gooty, 2005). These values include "liberty, justice, and equality" (p. 427). Such values are representative of the desired outcomes of social change leadership and are important to understanding contemporary leadership models (Price, 2003).

Transformational. Over the past three decades a significant body of knowledge has accumulated on transforming leadership (e.g., Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avoilo & Yammarino, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990 & 1997; Bass & Steidlmeir, 1999; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Price, 2003; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Walter & Bruch, 2010). Burns's (1978) work on transforming leadership has contributed to several empirical investigations and conceptual models, including the social change model (HERI, 1996). Bass (1985) is noted for changing the term from transforming to transformational leadership. More importantly, Bass expanded Burns's work by incorporating dimensions of motivation and charisma (Pawar & Eastman, 1997), and thus identified four highly correlated measures of the construct which include idealized influence (i.e. charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Bass and Steidlmeier made the distinction between authentic transformational leadership and pseudo-transformational leadership noting that "the authentic leader calls for universal brotherhood; the pseudo-transformational leader highlights fictitious "we-they" differences in values and argues

that “we” have inherently good values and “they” do not” (p. 187). These values are similar to the individual values of congruence and consciousness of self within the social change model (Cilente, 2009; HERI, 1996). Avolio and Bass (1995) further investigated the individualized influence dimension of transformational leadership through researching the influence of environmental context on leader behavior and how a leader’s influence is observed permeating from the individual, to groups, and throughout an organization over time. The individual-group-organization relationship parallels the cyclical nature of the social change model (HERI, 1996), and also reflects how social change can occur through individual and group influences (Cilente, 2009; Musil, 2001; Wagner, 2009).

The preceding section presented an overview of the evolution of the epistemological assumptions and theoretical frameworks of leadership related to this study that were precursors to the creation of the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996). Student leadership development models reflect characteristics of transformational leadership such as shared vision, motivation, and synergy between leaders and followers. Although these leadership models and theories constitute their own body of literature, they intersect with a larger gestalt of leadership literature while incorporating elements of student development. The next section provides a general overview of social change behaviors, and specific examples and related research on the social change behaviors measured in this study.

Social Change Behaviors

Background

According to Axelson and Flick (2010), student engagement is defined as "how involved or interested students appear to be in their learning and how connected they are to their classes, their institutions, and each other" (Axelson & Flick, 2010, p. 38). Astin (1984) posited the following definition for involvement:

> Quite simply, student involvement refers to the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience. Thus, a highly involved student is one who, for example, devotes considerable energy to studying, spends much time on campus, participates in student organizations, and interacts frequently with faculty members and other students. (Astin, 1984, p. 297).

The discourse around the difference between student involvement and student engagement, and the appropriate definition for each term, is worthy of its own volume beyond the scope of this review of literature. Axelson and Flick (2010) affirmed that Astin and Kuh both agree that the terms engagement and involvement are interchangeable and share the same meaning.

The different types of social change behaviors researched in this study can be situated in a broader body of literature related to student involvement and student engagement. Student action reflected in these activities encompasses an investment in time, emotional, psychological, and physical resources on behalf of the student, the institution, and sometimes the greater community with student learning occurring as part

of the process (Trowler, 2010). The level of commitment made to the community varies, and be conceptualized as citizenship.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) propose a three-category framework of citizenship with different types of social change behaviors associated with each category. The first is Personally Responsible Citizens and actions can include, "contributing to food or clothing drives …[and volunteering] in a soup kitchen or a senior center" (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004, p. 3). The second is the Participatory Citizen which includes actions such as "actively [participating] in the civic affairs and the social life of the community at local, state, and national levels" (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004, p. 4). The third and final category is the Justice Oriented Citizen, and is concerned with actions involving "critically analyzing and addressing social issues and injustices" (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004, p. 4). All of the behaviors associated with each of Westheimer and Kahne's categories are intended to improve the community. However, the ways in which individuals engage the community, and the lasting impact of their actions increases with each level (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004).

Higher education institutions have been incorporating social change as part of their mission and curriculum over the past 30 years (Maurrasse, 2001). This is evidenced by an increase in institution – community partnerships to address issues related to poverty, economic growth, and environmental sustainability. College students may engage in social change behaviors related to these issues as part of their collegiate experience (Astin, 2000). However, institutional efforts to foster social change behavior among college students are not always focused in ways that are mutually beneficial for both students and the community (Musil, 2003).

Dey, Barnhardt, Antonaros, Ott, and Holsapple (2009) note the following about institutional efforts to focus social change efforts within the community, "There is a troubling gap on campuses between aspiration and actuality" (p. vii). In a sample of 9,000 faculty and administrators and 24,000 undergraduate students across 23 institutions, Dey et al. (2009) measured importance of institutional focus on contributing to the larger community versus perception of actual efforts. Findings indicate a 30.8% gap for faculty and administrators and 16.5% gap for students between what institutions should be doing and the perception of actual effort. These findings provide a societal and institutional context social change behaviors, and give a background for understanding research findings described in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Social change behaviors among college students can include a wide range of endeavors aimed at making a constructive difference that benefits society (HERI, 1996; Musil, 2003; Wagner, 2009). These behaviors can include activities such as being involved with student organizations that serve the institution and adjacent community, volunteering with civic associations seeking to contribute to some social problem, and participating in efforts to influence political causes. The following sections explore the types of social change behaviors measured in this study.

Community Service

Volunteering matters. According to Flanagan et al. (2009), measures of behaviors associated with social change among young people within their community has declined in all areas (e.g., trusts others, group member, religious attendance, union member, read newspaper, self-reported voting, contacted by party volunteer, community project, and attend club meeting) except volunteering through community service.

However, volunteering has been on the rise over the past decade. College students continue to collaborate with one another and their communities to address social issues through performing community service (Dolte et al., 2006). For example, student interest has in serving their community has increased over the past five years. Pryor et al. (2009) found that 35.8% of new first-year students identified becoming a community leader to be essential in 2009 compared to 30.7% in 2004.

Community service is the most prevalent and documented example of social change behavior among the K-16 student population (Dolte, Cramer, Dietz, & Grimm 2006). National aggregated data from the 2009 administration of the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP), college senior survey, administered by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI), indicated that 71.4% of college seniors occasionally or frequently performed volunteer work while attending college (Franke, Ruiz, Sharkness, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2009).

Women in college participate in community service at higher rates than college men. White women in particular have been the focus of research on college student community service involvement (Jones & Abes, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001, 2003). Using data collected by the Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS), Dolte et al. (2006) reported that 33% of women engage in service compared to 26.8% of men, and 30.2 % of all college students perform service while in college. Racial composition of students who perform service breaks down to 30.2% (which happens to be the same proportion of all college students who perform service) of White students volunteering, and 23.6% of students from other racial and ethnic groups. Comparing CIRP data with CNS data would suggest a higher portion of college seniors participated in community

service at some time in college compared to all students in college, or that the different frequencies delineate sporadic or even one time participation (CIRP) and regular participation (CNCS). The literature does not clearly state how service is defined for either measure.

Participation data parsed into racial and gender groups revealed that youth with college experience participated at higher rates than their same race and gender counter parts among the non-college population (Dolte et al., 2006). American Indian and White youth participate at the highest rates, both at 23%, followed by Asians (16%), Blacks (13%), and Hispanics (10%) (Kirby, Marcelo, & Kawashima-Ginsberg, 2009). The order of these rankings is the same for groups with and without college experience. In a qualitative study of 19 (11 students of color and eight White) college students' retrospective view of their high school community service experiences, Jones et al. (2008) found that students of color did not necessarily consider serving within their own community organizations as service. Segar (2010) used verbatim transcripts from Jones et al. (2008) to analyze service experiences using race as a lens. Findings indicate that students perceived community service as an activity organized by their school, and the work they performed within their community was not necessarily defined as community service. For example, participants discussed how working in the soup kitchen of one's own church or assisting with the church's mission project was viewed as something one does with church and family. This indicates a need for institutions to be more deliberate in helping students understand the definition and meaning of service.

The rate of community service participation among college students is higher than youth of the same age who are not in college. According to longitudinal data reported by

the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE), among all 20 to 29 year-olds, the volunteer rate was 25% for those with some college experience and 11% for the same population with no college experience (Kirby et al., 2009).

Similar to their college-going counterparts, women among the non-college experience population still participate at higher rates than men of the same group. The participation rates of women and men with no college experience were 13% and 9% (Kirby et al., 2009). However, an even greater participation gap exists between men and women with college experience, whose rates were 29% and 21% respectively. Not surprisingly, women with college experience participate at a rate of 29% compared to their non-college peers who participate at a rate of 13% (Kirby et al., 2009).

The college environment plays a significant role in fostering youth participation in community service and other types of social change behaviors (Dolte et al., 2006; Foley, 1969). Among all populations, college students aged 16 to 24 ranked third in service participation at 30.2%, with adults aged 45-54 ranked second at 32.7% and adults aged 35-44 ranked first at 34.5% (Dolte et al., 2006). Although most college students express high interest in service, their participation in community service is sporadic (Dolte et al., 2006; Marks & Jones, 2004). Instead of making long-term commitments to one or two organizations over a long period of time, students are more likely to work with multiple organizations for one-time or short-term projects.

According to a report on incoming student trends, titled The American Freshmen: National Norms for Fall 2009, (Pryor, Hurtado, DeAngelo, Palucki Blake, & Tran, 2009), 29.8% of new first-year students considered participating in a community action program

to be essential or very important compared to 21.5% in 2004. However, values toward service or stated intentions to volunteer are not necessarily accurate measures of student actual participation in service (Jones, Segar, & Gasiorski, 2008). Yet, a HERI study on first-year student experiences and outcomes reported 57.7 % of first-year students engaged in service by the end of their first year in college (Ruiz, Sharkness, Kelly, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2010). However, the total time students committed to service was not documented in the HERI study. Thus, this figure captures any amount of service participation, independent of the total hours served.

Students may participate in community service through several avenues (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Marks & Jones, 2004). For some students, community service may be associated with being part of a student organization (Scheuermann,1999). Other students may be enrolled in a course that incorporates service that is related to the curriculum (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). Still, for others, service may be a part of a high school or college requirement (Jones & Abes, 2004; Metz & Youniss, 2005; Raskoff & Sunden, 1999). Students are more likely to participate in service when it is structured through a curricular or co-curricular activity than to initiate and maintain a commitment on their own (Jones & Hill, 2003).

Protecting the Environment

Student interest in protecting the environment can be traced to the civil rights era. A view into history reveals "Student-activists who broke away from the civil rights and antiwar movements formed the core of the environmental movement in the early 1970's" (Bullard & Wright, 1989, p. 1). More recently, Pryor et al. (2009) found that 26.9% of incoming first-year students considered becoming involved in programs to clean up the

environment to be essential or very important compared to 17.5% in 2004. At the end of the first year in college, the portion of students who held this value increased to 33.3% (Ruiz et al., 2010).

Analysis of longitudinal data suggests that student goals related to the environment increases over time. The CIRP College Senior Survey found that 19.9% of seniors began their college career indicating a high regard for being involved with programs to clean up the environment when they were first year students. As seniors, 30.2% reported that being involved with cleaning the environment was very important or essential (Franke et al., 2010).

Emanuel and Adams (2011) conducted a multi-campus study on how college students perceived sustainability efforts at their respective institutions. Researchers found that students across institutions were concerned and aware of environmental issues related to consumption. However, students' desire to take action did not correlate with their level awareness. In other research, students expressed awareness and support for improving the environment, but do not take action to change their behaviors (Fumiyo, 2007).

Awareness and a desire to take action for change is not enough. However, when students are presented with periodic feedback on their efforts, an opportunity to collaborate with their peers, and instructions for taking a course of action behavior can change (Arnold, Fay, Cohen, & Warner, 2009; Bandura, 1989). For example, researchers at Oberlin College educated students on how they could reduce electricity usage in their residence halls and provided visual feedback on usage (Peterson, Shunturov, Janda, Platt, & Wainberger, 2007). Over a two week period of time, students used an average of 43%

less electricity across four residence halls. Students reported that they would continue with their behavioral changes with continued feedback. Researchers hypothesize that the peer group influence within the residence halls influenced the decrease in utility usage.

When analyzing how students spend their time volunteering, the Corporation for National and Community Service reported that 2.0% contribute time to organizations addressing environmental concerns (Dolte et al., 2006). College women give more time to environmental issues than men college students. Nonetheless, students have a number of opportunities to collaborate on environmental issues. Fernandez (2010) described green committees, environmental clubs, class projects, and one-time projects as examples of student participation aimed at addressing environmental problems. Each of these types of involvements is distinguished by the composition of the organization, project focus, and length of commitment.

For example, a green committee is charged with advising an institution's sustainability, efforts is made up of students and faculty. This group influences change through working with several processes such as "new construction, building retrofitting, and changing the way business is done, from food services to maintenance to landscaping" (Fernandez, 2010, p. 36). Students educate their peers about sustainability and work with contractors on new building construction and renovations. Committee members can be appointed by an institution's administration or participation can be open to all members of the community.

Environmental clubs are student run, and focus on both "one-day projects and long-term activities such as LEED-certification planning for new buildings" (Fernandez, 2010, p. 36). Individuals in these organizations are influenced by friends to join and

continue involvement within the organization (Arnold et al., 2009). Clubs can focus on service-related activities such as projects to improve the institution and adjacent community. Examples of activities include recycling, removing litter, and reducing utility usage (Fernandez, 2010). However, these organizations sometimes partner with faculty and administrators to promote awareness and advocacy around institutional policies and practices that influence the environment (Arnold et al., 2009; Fernandez, 2010).

Social Issues

Attitudes and actions. Ruiz et al. (2010) found that 61.3% students who responded to a CIRP survey of first-year student experiences and outcomes understood social problems facing the United States at the end of their first-year in college. In the CIRP College Senior Survey (CSS) over 50% of seniors reported an increased understanding of social problems in the United States compared to their first-year in college (Franke et al., 2010). These student attitudes translate to 16.3% of college students volunteering their time to social or community service (Dolte et al., 2006).

College students have worked independently and within organizations to address social problems for decades. The most salient example of this phenomenon in the 20th century is the civil rights movement in the United States of the 1960s. For example, organizations such as the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee mobilized thousands of college students across the country to confront racial discrimination (Sorey, 2010). In the 21st century, student efforts are directed to independent campus-based clubs and campus chapters of nationally affiliated organizations. Commonly known examples of the later include Habitat for Humanity, American Cancer Society Relay for Life,

Rotary International, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Students use these organizations as venues to address community and societal issues such as homelessness, cancer, poverty, health, and racial inequality.

Campus and community. Collaboration has been used as a tool to bring together students, faculty, administrators, and members of the community to address social problems (Hamrick, 1998; Kezar, 2010; Rhoads, 1998). In a study on student activist's perceptions of their institutions, Ropers-Huilman, Carwile, and Barnett (2005) found that students seek opportunities to collaborate with administrators and see them as a valuable resource towards achieving their goals. In research on student leadership training outcomes, Cress et al., (2001) found skills gained on how to collaborate with campus and community stakeholders to be one of the highest rated outcomes.

There are several examples of issues where students, campus members, and community members collaborate. Service-learning is one of the most salient examples of the way these groups come together to achieve common goals that benefit the common good (Hamrick, 1998; Jacoby, 1996). Bickford and Reynolds (2002) suggest that service-learning can often be a form of collaborative activism to address societal issues such as the environment and homelessness. Kezar (2004) and Ropers-Huilman et al. (2005) posited that higher education institutions and student affairs administrators in particular, have a responsibility and opportunity to leverage their resources to work with students to solve large-scale concerns.

Global issues. College student interest in taking action to promote awareness of global issues has been largely influenced by curricular and co-curricular experiences. Cultural immersion programs abroad or intensive conversations about world issues often

foster greater concern about world issues for college students from the United States, and challenge students to consider the lived experiences of individuals outside of the United States compared to their own (Landerman, Rasmussen, King, & Jiang, 2007; Mather, 2008; Zúñiga et al., 2005).

Through course work and participation in student organizations, college students have increasingly become more aware of and active in advocating world-wide issues. Student efforts to advocate for these issues are typically directed into short-term abroad immersion experiences, fundraising, and educating peers to recruit their support to bring about change (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Epple & Osuch, 2009). Examples of global issues that are of concern for college students include "global poverty, clean water, human rights, and immigration" (Torres, Jones, & Renn, 2009, p. 593). Economics, health, and terrorism are also issues of concern (Mather, 2008). During the mid-1980s through the turn of the century students become increasingly aware and concerned of exploitive economic practices, particularly those perpetuated by higher education institutions in the United States, that impact the lives of individuals in third world countries (Van Dyke, Dixon, & Carlon, 2007). Taking action against these issues has sometimes led to campus demonstrations and calls for change from campus and civic leaders (Rhoads, 1998).

Protests

College students have been participating in protests and other forms of civil disobedience since as early as 1766 at Harvard. However, most of the issues of concern for the first 170 years of higher education focused on student complaints about service and policies at their institutions (Braungart & Braungart, 1990). Modern student protests

provide opportunities for learning and growth (Biddix, Somers, & Polman, 2009). Furthermore, the motives and methods behind student protests have markedly changed over the past 50 years to address more complex and systemic issues.

During the 1960s through the 1990s college campuses experienced several protests related to the Civil Rights Movement and equity for underrepresented and underserved groups including African Americans, Latinos, women, gay, lesbian, and veteran students (Rhoads, 1998). Hamrick (1998) noted that "increased diversity has coincided with bold and vocal student challenges to institutional policies and decisions identified as indifferent or hostile to underrepresented students" (p. 449). Shifting demographics and student recognition of inequity in treatment and experiences for certain groups of students accurately describes this 40 year time period.

Today's college student protest behaviors are aimed at drawing attention to social justice and international issues related to equity in global economics, immigration, poverty, and social justice related to social identity (Rosas, 2010). Current methods of protesting focus more on educating others about issues instead of being disruptive or destructive. Although sit-ins and picketing are still used, students are also relying on technology such as email, website, blogs, and social media to advance their causes (Biddix, 2010; Rhoads, 1998).

This section of the review of literature began with establishing a context for understanding social change behaviors. Next, examples, and research findings on the types of college student social change behaviors measured in this study were presented. The literature suggests that participation frequency and activity patterns appear to be influenced by the college environment. How students engage in these activities changes

while they are in college. In addition, the ways in which students participate in these behaviors has changed over the past several decades. The following section will discuss a range of pre-college factors and environmental influences that have been found to be predictive of social change behaviors.

Predictors of Social Change Behaviors

The previous section discussed examples of literature related to each of the social change behaviors explored in this study. This section will explore predictors of social change behaviors among college students. Demographic variables will be explored first followed by pre-college factors, and college involvement factors.

Nonetheless, it is worth noting that the research literature does not give the full treatment of empirical study on predictors for all categories of social change behaviors. Limited research exists that describes the relationship between pre-college and college participation of activities associated with each category of social change behavior measured in this study. Instead, most of the literature focuses on behaviors related to community service and advocacy for social causes.

Social Identity

The influence of social identity on student outcomes has been documented in research (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Social identities include race, gender, and sexual orientation. All individuals have a complex composition of multiple social identities (Jones & McEwen, 2000; Abes & Jones, 2004). However, these social identities exist within a dichotomy of dominate and subordinated identities (Goodman, 2001). Sidanius and Pratto (1999) suggested this phenomenon transcends society in the United States and is relevant to other cultures as well. However, the particular identities

that get privileged are unique to the socio-historical context of the country (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). For example, when looking at race as a social identity, being White would be considered being part of the dominant group within that social identity and all other races, particularly within the context of the United States, would be considered subordinated identities.

Students who identify with a subordinated group identity may choose to engage in social change behaviors related issues pertinent to their group. For example, in a qualitative study of 32 African American male student leaders from six predominantly White institutions (PWIs), Harper and Quaye (2007) found that "Regardless of the organizations he chose or the positions he held, each student leader articulated a commitment to uplifting the African American community" (Harper & Quaye, 2007, p. 134). Similarly, in a study on student motivation for community service, Jones and Hill (2003) found that African American students intertwined participation in community service with their lives to the point where they self-reported that they did not consider their actions to be service, but a responsibility to their community. Nonetheless, their action would be considered service by most definitions. Students in both studies expressed a strong identification with their race.

In a study on involvement and racial identity of African American men at PWIs Taylor and Howard-Hamilton (1995) found that students who were highly involved with activities related to a race or cultural affinity group reported higher levels of racial identity development as measured using Helms' (1990) racial identity development scale compared to those African American men who were not similarly involved. Affiliation with positive race-related activities has been found to foster a stronger sense of Black

racial identity and self-acceptance (Cross, 1995). Guffrida (2003) supported this notion and suggested that educators be more intentional about connecting African American students with race-based involvements. Therefore, the literature suggests that race is a relevant consideration when exploring student participation in social change behaviors. Racial context and level of racial identity development offers insight into student motivation. The aforementioned literature suggests that race-affirming endeavors have an influence on racial identity development.

Although presented herein as a fixed attribute, racial identity is fluid and contextual (Stewart, 2009). Furthermore, in the lived experience, race and other social identities, are not experienced in isolation at the individual level (Collins, 2003). Nonetheless, the literature on social identity discussed in this chapter focused on group-level experiences.

Renn (2007) found a relationship between student activism and the degree to which LGBT students identified with their sexual orientation. Increased identity salience was associated with increased commitment to social change within and on behalf of the LGBT community. Similar to the research on race, LGBT-identity affirming experiences are related to a more sophisticated sense of identity and participation in social change behaviors associated with one's group. "No matter how participants came into leadership of LGBT organizations, they entered what I have called the involvement-identification cycle in which increased leadership promoted increased public identification as LGBT/queer, which in turn promoted increased leadership" (Renn, 2007, p. 318).

Using data collected from the National Survey of Student Engagement with a sample of 129,597 students, Cruce and Moore (2007) found that "students of color are

more likely than White students to volunteer during the first year of college, and among those students who did not volunteer, students of color are more likely than White students to plan to volunteer during college" (Cruce & Moore, 2007, p. 667). Students of color comprised 20% of the sample in the study.

Pre-College Experience with Social Change Behaviors

College students bring their high school experiences with them to college (McEwen, 2003). Most students have had some experience with activities aimed at social change before they arrive at college, many students can trace their experiences to high school (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Pre-college experiences have been shown to have a significant influence on students' post-secondary involvement choices.

Community service. Several studies have explored the efficacy of secondary education participation in community service as a predictor of long-term involvement with service (Berger & Milem, 2002; Marks & Jones, 2004; Vogelgesang, 2005). The findings from these studies are inconclusive. However, these empirical investigations provide some evidence worth noting. For example, pre-college service involvement has been found to be predictor of college service experience when the service is not required and personal commitment to service was internal (Jones & Hill, 2003). Findings also suggest that when students are encouraged and supported with ample opportunities, but not required, to do community service in high school they are more likely to continue in college (Jones & Hill, 2003; Marks & Jones, 2004; McLellan & Youniss, 2003; Metz & Youniss, 2003).

However, the application of these findings is limited due to the differences between methods used populations studied. Nonetheless, the literature is clear that high school experiences play a role in influencing post-secondary service experiences. Yet, the direction and velocity of this influence is contingent upon whether service was required or not, the type of service involved, and the degree to which service was integrated into the overall high school experience (Jones et al., 2008). According to Pryor and Hurtado (2010), "Volunteering in high school predisposes students towards volunteering in college, and is correlated with higher scores in social agency and pluralistic orientation" (Pryor & Hurtado, 2010, p. 29).

Findings from most studies exploring the relationship between high school service and post-secondary commitment to service cannot be generalized or replicated because of the methodologies or populations used in those studies (Cruce & Moore, 2007). Populations are often derived from a single institution, and qualitative approaches limit broad applicability of findings. However, in general, students who voluntary participate in high school community service usually continue in college (Cruce & Moore, 2007). Comparatively, the relationship between required participation in social change behaviors in high school, such as community service, and continued involvement in college is mixed (Jones et al., 2008). "The overall results from [current reviews of community service literature suggests] that students who participated in service in high school tended to continue in college if they made an internal commitment and received strong family and school encouragement" (Jones et al., 2008, p.6). The opposite is also true; students who were required to perform service in high school are likely to discontinue service in college.

Service and leadership. Community service participation in college has been linked to leadership outcomes. Cress et al. (2001) found a positive relationship between the number of volunteering hours served and the likelihood of growth in leadership measures. The outcomes in the study included awareness of multicultural and community issues, "leadership skills and knowledge, civic responsibility, and understanding of personal and social values" (Cress et al, 2001, p. 23).

In a study examining the effectiveness of 31 Kellogg Foundation funded leadership programs, Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt (1999) found several individual outcomes connecting community service, leadership capacity, and social change behaviors. The highest outcome was that 93% of the programs reported that participants experienced a greater appreciation for social issues. In addition, 86% of programs indicated an "increased commitment to service and volunteerism" (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999, p. 56) as an individual outcome of participating in a leadership program. These two outcomes were the highest rated among 22 individual outcome measures of participation in leadership development programs.

Peer influence. Jones and Hill (2003) found peer group influence to be a significant predictor of students' continued participation in community service. This is consistent with research on the overall influence of peer groups on student attitudes and behaviors (Arnold et al., 2009; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Gurin et al., (2002) noted the importance of peer influence in student participation in democratic outcomes. This includes students engaging in conversations with peers of different backgrounds and sharing diverse perspectives about social and cultural issues.

Socio-Cultural Issues Discussions and Related Outcomes

Socio-cultural issues discussions as measured in this study are defined .as out-of-class conversations in which students discuss topics among their peers about different values, lifestyles, and issues related to politics, diversity, and multiculturalism. These discussions may or may not be part of a paraprofessional training or leadership development experience. (Segar, Hershey, & Dugan, 2008). According to findings from the 2009 administration of the first college year survey, 29% of first-year college students reported having had meaningful and honest discussions about race/ethnic relations outside of class (Ruiz , 2010).

Most research on this topic is focused on in-class discussions related to intergroup dialogue, which is a narrowly defined and highly structured pedagogy aimed at facilitating conversations around a specific topic (e.g., Zúñiga et al., 2005; Zúñiga, Nagda, Chesler & Cytron-Walker, 2007; Zúñiga & Sevig, 1997). Nagda and Derr (2004) define intergroup dialogues as "facilitated face-to-face encounters between two or more social identity groups that have a history of conflict" (Nagda & Derr, 2004, p.131). References to intergroup dialogue sources within this study are included to illustrate the positive outcomes associated with student conversations around topics of diversity and multiculturalism, but are not intended to describe the process of socio-cultural conversations that are measured in this study.

Dugan and Komives (2010) found that socio-cultural discussions among peers outside of the classroom was one of three predictors of socially responsible leadership as measured by a revised version of the socially responsible leadership scale (Tyree, 1998). Several professional associations and researchers have identified "socially responsible

leadership as a core college outcome" (Dugan & Komives, 2010, p. 525). Limited studies have used out-of-class socio-cultural issues discussions as a predictor of student outcomes.

The efficacy of socio-cultural issues discussions has been mostly researched in terms of attitudes and beliefs (Hurtado, Engberg, Ponjuan, & Landreman, 2002; Pascarella et al., 1996; Whitt et al., 2001; Zúñiga et al., 2005). The underlying assumption has been that changing attitudes and beliefs would lead to a change in behavior. Socio-cultural issues discussions is one dimension of cross-cultural contact which has been identified as both an outcome of college and student involvement (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pederson, & Allen, 1999). Furthermore, socio-cultural issues discussions have been linked to democratic outcomes such as a predisposition to making social change and changing attitudes about lifestyles and cultures (Zúñiga et al., 2005).

Astin (1993) found positive outcomes related to students discussing racial or ethnic issues in a study of 25,000 students across 217 four-year institutions. This is one of the earliest studies exploring outcomes of socio-cultural discussions. However, Astin's study was limited to conversations around race and ethnicity, and did not differentiate between in- and out-of-class discussions. Commitment to cultural awareness and promoting racial understanding were among the strongest outcomes predicted by student participation in conversations about race and ethnicity. Although Astin's study is not a direct parallel to the measures in this study, the relationship between discussions and outcomes is noteworthy.

Pascarella et al. (1996) and Flowers and Pascarella (1999) incorporated three socio-cultural discussions items on an openness to diversity/challenge scale of eight

items, thus connecting the concept of socio-cultural discussions and openness to diversity. This is an example of how the concept of socio-cultural issues discussions has been implemented in other research. However, no known studies posit socio-cultural issues discussions as defined in this study as a predictor of self-reported social change behaviors.

The following section explores the relational leadership model and the paradigms that support the conceptions of leadership, social change, and the historical background of leadership presented previously. Student leadership is the over-arching theoretical and conceptual domain in which this study is situated; therefore the following section is necessary as it provides context and relevance for this study. The concepts presented in the following section provide context for understanding the instrumentation used in this study.

Student Leadership

Relational Leadership Model

The relational leadership model (Komives, et al, 2007) defines leadership as "…a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish a positive change" (p. 29). It provides an informative framework for understanding ways in which students can work together to engage in social change behaviors, and has been used in for this purpose in previous studies (Biddix, 2010). The key elements in this definition include a focus on the common good and collaborative effort among two or more individuals. This aspirational model articulates how a group of people can positively influence one another through meaningful interpersonal relationships that establish values such as trust, respect, and honesty. Burns (1978) posits that these values are necessary

for positive change to occur. Change comes about through a mutual agreed upon effort that is facilitated through establishing and maintaining relationships. Komives et al. suggest individuals must engage in personal development work as a precursor to forming and deepening personal relationships necessary for working towards positive change.

Anyone has the capacity for leadership when committed to the process as articulated by Komives et al. (2007). Leaders can either have a formal title accompanied by power or authority or could be committed towards the process of improving the world around them in cooperation with others (Komives et al., 2007; Wagner, 2009). In fact, the relational leadership model disassociates authority from leadership; therefore authority is not necessary for someone to be active in the leadership process (Kezar et al., 2006). Purpose or mission is what propels the leadership process instead of position or status. The relational leadership model includes the following four overlapping and interconnected domains: inclusive, empowering, ethical, and purpose. These four domains, visually depicted as spheres, are situated in the encompassing sphere of process. Together, these five areas represent the relational leadership model. Each of the five elements of the relational leadership model suggests ways of knowing, being, and doing (Komives et al., 2007). Kezar et al. (2006) state "The model is more complex than merely understanding and applying the five elements because each element entails learning knowledge, attitudes, and skills to successfully enact elements" (Kezar, et al., 2006, p. 64).

The inclusive domain challenges leaders to explore their biases and values. Through this domain leaders embrace and respect ideas, perspectives, and world views

beyond their own. Leaders recognize that the nature of the group changes and adapts based on its membership.

The empowering domain is about fostering the sense that all members of the group matter (Komives et al., 2007). Each member's contributions towards achieving the group's objectives are valued and encouraged. Affiliation with the group serves to foster one's belief in his or her capacity to make a difference.

Being ethical is reflected through the values of doing good, being just, and serving the community (Komives et al., 2007). Decisions are informed and made within established guidelines and standards, "The actions of leaders and participants emanate from a set of values, which we hope are congruent and shared" (Komives et al., 2007, p. 98). The values associated with ethical behaviors are viewed as essential to leadership, and are expressed in other student leadership models.

Through the domains of the relational leadership model, Komives et al. (2007) outline several important foundational requisites for students participating in the process of leadership that are relevant to this study. Individuals must know themselves and understand their values and assumptions. They must also work to understand the needs of others, their points of view, and encourage them to act. All of the other domains of the model are maintained through "collaboration, reflection, feedback, civil confrontation, [and] community building" (Komives et al., 2007, p. 104). How the group works together receives as much attention as the group's desired outcome.

Komives et al. (2007) give significant attention to how individuals build and sustain trust and mutual understanding. Students engaging in the leadership process must commit to both a shared purpose and establishing trusting relationship with one another.

The focused attention on these behaviors as a characteristic of leadership is a departure from previously discussed models. However, this aspect of the relational leadership model provides a lens for understanding the interaction between students participating in activities related to the independent variable explored in this study.

Paradigms for Leadership

The preceding sections described leadership frameworks and theories relevant for understanding the student interactions explored in this study. The approach to leadership as described in the social change model and the relational leadership model reflects two paradigms. The first paradigm is social constructivism which assumes that "culture and context have a significant effect on leadership, an ever-evolving concept that has changed over time" (Kezar et al., 2006, p. 16). Scholars and practitioners focus on meaning-making, individual and group perspectives, and the fluid nature of leadership as a construct. Empirical investigations related to these models utilize a constructivist-developmental approach in that the participant or individual is at the center of the phenomena of interest (Keegan, 1994). Most researchers subscribe to this framework promoting a collaborative orientation as opposed to prior approaches that subscribed to a functionalist assumption viewing leadership as one-direction process and a means to an end (Kezar et al., 2006). Further, researchers who subscribe to a constructivist world view "[reject] the notion that there is an objective reality that can be known and [take] the stance that the researcher's goal is to understand the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge" (Mertens, 2005, p. 14).

The second paradigm is critical theory which centers on the inequities that exist among various social groups and identities, and the dynamics of power (Mertens, 2005).

Social problems stem, in part, from the different experiences of various groups based on social inequities and recognition that social groups experience marginalization (Tierney & Rhoads, 2004). The social change model and the relational leadership model focus on collaboration and place value on social change and share the underlying assumptions that problems exists within society that need to be addressed by concerned individuals willing to work together (Kezar et al., 2006). Examining the foundations of social power, critical theory is concerned about decentralizing and challenging the legitimacy of power sources (Tierney & Rhoads, 2004; Rhoads & Black, 1995). Leadership is aimed at improving the social conditions for a broad group beyond the narrow confines of the individuals who are working for change. The critical paradigm presupposes "From a critical/postmodern perspective [that] leadership is not so much concerned with efficiency and effectiveness as it is with the concern for the development of dialogue within the educational community" (Tierney & Rhoads, 2004, p. 333). Critical theorists are concerned with "[exposing] how supposedly value-free assumptions of early leadership theories have resulted in disguising unequal power relations and reinforcing the status quo of organizations" (Kezar et al., 2006, p.72). Whereas early conceptions of leadership focused on the use and manipulation of power, emerging models dismantle and distribute power reducing the significance of its role and necessity in facilitating the leadership process (Kezar et al.; Rost, 1991; Tierney & Rhoads, 2004).

The purpose of naming these epistemological foundations is to illustrate the assumptions and worldview that inform how leadership and social change are conceptualized in this study. However, these foundations are not utilized as a means of grounding the study itself. Yet, the preceding frameworks were named because the

implied values and beliefs associated with social change and leadership as discussed in this review of literature, although explicit within the realm of these models, are not universally accepted or embraced in all conceptualizations of leadership (Kezar et al., 2006). Leadership researchers and practitioners of an earlier era did not subscribe to such perspectives, and conceived a world from a much more positivistic orientation (Kezar et al., 2006; Northouse, 2003; Tierney & Rhoads, 2004).

Leadership Summary

The influence of intra and interpersonal relationships is a persistent theme throughout the preceding discussions of leadership development. Individuals are empowered to work collectively towards change, and "the chain of influence proceeds between people instead of passing through the hierarchy" (Kezar et al., 2006, p. 78). The underlying notion of social change undergirding leadership as described in the preceding section seeks to foster justice, care, compassion, and greater equity (Kezar et al., 2006). These concepts are necessary for understanding how individuals form interdependent groups who collectively increase their individual and group leadership capacity and contribute to change processes. The leadership development literature suggests that when individuals, dedicated to a cause that serves a common good, assemble together, and commit to a process of personal and shared growth, they cultivate ability to make a positive difference in their environment.

Chapter Two Summary

This review of literature provided research findings and examples of college student social change behaviors were measured this study. Next, predictors of social change behaviors were explored, including the relationship between pre-college and

college participation in social change behaviors. An overview of socio-cultural issues discussions among college students was presented. The chapter concluded with a discussion of relevant student leadership theories and conceptual models.

Although socially responsible leadership has often been identified as a desired outcome of leadership development, there is an empirical gap between capacity for making change and the actual occurrence of change. This study sought to close this gap. The next chapter will outline the research methodology, participant sample, measures, data, and analysis chosen to explore the relationship between socio-cultural discussions and social change behaviors..

Chapter Three: Methodology

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. This study utilized data collected from the 2009 administration of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). First administered in 2006, the MSL is national survey of student experiences and environmental factors that contribute to student leadership development. Since its inception, the MSL has been administered annually to college students at hundreds of higher education institutions (Center for Student Studies, 2009). The purpose of the MSL is to further knowledge on how higher education influences student leadership capacity thus filling a void in the existing student leadership development research (Dugan et al. , 2006). I was a member of the original MSL research team between 2005 and 2007, and participated in the instrument creation and administration of the study.

Research Question and Hypothesis

As explored in chapter two, there is no published research that provides a direct empirical link between participating in socio-cultural issues discussions and engaging in social change behaviors. Existing research suggests a theoretical relationship between these two constructs, and provides support for the hypothesis of this study. Dugan and Komives (2010) found a strong positive relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions among college students with their peers and leadership capacity. Although Zúñiga et al. (2005) studied curricular-based discussions, the researchers noted the potential benefit cross-cultural interactions within a co-curricular setting, and recommended that future studies explore the influence of out-of-classroom discussions on

behavioral outcomes. In both of the aforementioned studies, socio-cultural issues discussions was found to have a statistically significant positive influence on a dependent variable (i.e., socially responsible leadership and motivation to reduce one's prejudice and take action to promote social justice.). Yet, it is important to note that these two studies operationalized socio-cultural discussions in very different ways with Zúñiga et al. focusing on highly structured, in-class discussions, as explained in chapter two. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) have found decades of empirical evidence espousing the power of peer influences on college outcomes. However, no published research exists that has explored the direct relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and participation in social change behaviors as investigated in this empirical study. Therefore, the causal comparative study and secondary data analysis was conducted using the following research question and hypothesis:

Research question. Does frequency of engaging in socio-cultural issues discussions predict a significant amount of the variance in social change behaviors beyond pre-college experience, positional leadership experience, and self-perceived leadership capacity?

Hypothesis. The frequency of engaging in socio-cultural issues discussions will be a significant predictor of social change behavior frequency after controlling for participants' pre-college experiences, institutional characteristics, positional leadership involvement, and self-perceived leadership capacity.

Research Design

Context. This study utilized an existing data set collected during the 2009 administration of the MSL, a collaborative venture between the MSL research team, the

National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs, and the Center for Student Studies (Center for Student Studies, 2009). The sample of data is comprised of 101 higher education institutions within the United States. Institutions volunteered to participate in the MSL through an invitation to participate in Spring and Summer 2008. The enrollment process was open and participating institutions reflect a diversity of size, governance, geographic location, affiliation, and Carnegie type (Center for Student Studies, 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2009).

The call for participation in the MSL was widely distributed to student leadership development educators and student affairs professionals through professional association listservs. Institutions selected to participate in the MSL agreed to provide student participant samples using criteria based on an institution's undergraduate student population. At the conclusion of data collection each institution received a report including descriptive statistics and data analysis of the core scales of the study. Participating institutions also received data on leadership experiences and outcomes of their student sample and aggregate data sets of the national sample grouped by Carnegie type. A description of the sample used in the study is further explained in a later section of this chapter.

MSL design. The study conducted secondary analysis on data collected from the 2009 administration of the MSL which utilized a causal comparative design (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Krathwohl, 1998; Mertens, 2005). The MSL used Astin's college impact model (1991, 1993) for the design of the study, which requires pre and post tests associated with true experimental designs where data are collected longitudinally. However, the MSL employed a modified version of Astin's college impact model and

used a cross-sectional design, which allowed MSL researchers to collect data at one point in time and the MSL instrument required participants to retroactively respond to certain items to provide data that measured how an individual may have changed over time (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Conceptual framework. The conceptual framework for the MSL and this study is provided by Astin's college impact model (1993). This input-environment-outcome (IEO) model is commonly used in research that explores the influence of college environments and experiences on student related outcomes (Astin, 1993; Fisher, 1995; Kelly, 1996). Inputs are pre-college student or research participant characteristics such as gender, race, ethnicity, and family of origin factors. Additional examples of inputs include pre-college experiences, beliefs, and pre-existing conditions related to the research participant (Astin, 1993).

The study incorporated gender, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation as demographic inputs. Evidence has been found in the literature that outlines the impact of these variables on participation in various types of social change behaviors (Alkandari & Alshallal, 2008; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn, 2007; Renn & Bilodeau, 2005). Therefore, controlling these variables is necessary to isolate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Pre-college experiences can predict student outcomes beyond what can be accounted for within the college environment (Astin, 1993; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Therefore, the study included as inputs the following three measures to asses participants' pre-college experiences: participated in community organizations, took leadership positions in community organizations, and worked with others for change to address a

societal problem. Student participation in social change behaviors prior to college has been found to be a predictor of this type of involvement in college (Cress et al., 2001; Jones & Hill, 2003; Pryor & Hurtado, 2010)

Environments are institutional influences that can influence an outcome measure. Examples can include experiences related to the curriculum, student involvement in campus organizations, and leadership training. Institutional policies and practices are also examples of environmental measures. All of these dimensions can influence student outcomes (Astin, 1993).

The environmental variables for this study are positional leadership involvement, leadership capacity, and participation in socio-cultural issues discussions. Positional leadership and has been found to be predictive of student leadership capacity (Dugan, 2006a; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) therefore making it necessary to control this variable in the data analysis process. Next, leadership capacity, measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Tyree, 1998) at the time of the study, is included in the framework as an environmental variable after positional leadership to control its influence on the dependent variable, social change behaviors. Socio-cultural issues discussions is the primary independent variable of interest in this study, and comes after leadership capacity.

Outcomes are student behaviors and/or characteristics measured after student exposure to the environment. The outcome measure for this study was student participation in social change behaviors. The input measures described above were controlled so that the effect of the environment measures, positional leadership involvement, leadership capacity, and socio-cultural issues discussions could be

measured in isolation. Using the appropriate statistical techniques allow for an analysis of the relationship between the environment and outcome measures (Astin, 1991, 1993).

Research Participants

Population. The population from which the sample was selected is derived from the 101 institutions across 31 states and the District of Columbia that participated in the data collection for the MSL between January and April of 2009. Each participating institution was required to receive local Institutional Review Board approval prior to data collection (Dugan et al., 2006). MSL instrumentation guidelines provided parameters on sample selection at each institution. The number of students on each campus selected to receive an invitation to participate in the MSL was dependent on the institution's total undergraduate student population. Institutions with 4,000 students or less were instructed to select all students to participate in the study. Institutions with undergraduate populations greater than 4,000 were instructed to draw a random sample of participants using a desired confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of ± 3, and were instructed to oversample at a rate of 70% to achieve a survey return rate of 30% which is acceptable for web-based surveys (Couper, 2001; Crawford, Couper, & Lamias, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007). A total of 337,482 undergraduate students were invited to participate in the 2009 administration of the MSL.

Data collection procedures. The data for the study came from the responses received from the 2009 administration of the MSL. Data collection at each institution took place over a three week period of time. Each participant received an email initial invitation with a unique code to participate in the study. Participants received up to three follow up invitations to complete the survey. Only participants who did not complete the

survey received follow up email invitations. Survey responses were separated from the unique code to maintain participant anonymity.

The response rate was 34% with 115,632 returned surveys and 115,582 usable surveys after the removal of manipulated cases (Dugan & Komives, 2009). Only surveys with at least 90% of the core survey and 90% of the SRLS completed were retained for this study which equates to 94,367 participants making up the usable sample for the study. This strategy is consistent with other research utilizing MSL data (Dugan et al., 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2007 & 2010). Mean substitution was used to account for missing responses to items on the social change behaviors and socio-cultural issues discussions scales.

Variables and Measures

The first version of the MSL instrument was initially created in 2005 by a research team consisting of faculty, graduate students, and practitioners with expertise and interest in leadership development. The 2009 MSL instrument is comprised of items from the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) (Tyree, 1998), a self-report instrument created to measure the process of socially responsible leadership theoretically grounded in the eight values of the social change model (HERI, 1996). It contains numerous demographic variables and scales or measures for numerous college experiences. Those used in this study will be described below.

Pilot. The MSL 2009 survey was piloted in June 2008 to create new scales. The Crowne Marlow test was use to test for social desirability. A random sample of 3,000 participants was chosen to complete the revised instrument with 660 responses for a 22%

response rate (Dugan & Komives, 2009). The Cronbach's alpha for the scales ranged between .79 and .92 for the measures used in the study.

Social change behaviors scale. The social change behaviors scale was designed by MSL research team members following an extensive review of related literature and other measures and consists of 10 items that assess respondent's self-reported frequency of participation in behavior aimed at improving one's community or society. MSL researchers sought to create a behavioral scale that assessed distinctive actions linked to social change. The ordinal scale response options are 1-Never, 2-Sometimes, 3-Often, and 4-Very Often, and were treated as continuous data for the purpose of analysis. The social change behaviors scale was introduced in the MSL 2009 survey. Items for the social change behaviors scales were created using social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989, 2001), research on activities related to student leadership (Cress et al., 2001), and literature on the capacity of students to influence meaningful and positive change in society (Astin, 1996; Chrislip & Larsen, 1994; Couto, 1995; Kiesa et al., 2007; Komives, 1996; Lopez et al., 2006; Morton, 1995). Table 3.3 lists all items in the social change behaviors scale.

The social change behaviors scale began with 15 items. Several items on the initial scale were correlated at 0.3 or higher suggesting that the relationship among the factors was sufficient to precede with principle component analysis (see Table 3.1). Two additional indicators were used to determine if principal component analysis was appropriate. First the Kaiser-Meyer -Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was used determine the strength of the partial correlations among the items in the scale. The KMO should be greater than 0.5 to proceed with principal component analysis (Bryant

and Yarnold, 1995). Second, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is a test of the null hypothesis that the items within a scale are not correlated, thus this procedure assess the strength of the correlations among the measures within a scale (Bryant and Yarnold, 1995). Observed significance levels above 0.05 or less are desired for principal component analysis to proceed. The KMO for the social change behaviors scale was 0.934 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at 0.000 indicating that principal component analysis could proceed.

The goal of principal component analysis is to determine the "smallest number of factors that together account for all of the total variance in the correlation matrix of the original variables" (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995, p. 102). Kaiser's stopping rule is one way of determining which factors to remove from a scale based on eigenvalues greater than one. Using this criterion, three factors with eigenvalues greater than one could have been removed explaining 61.182% of the variance. However, one critique of Kaiser's criterion is the removal of more factors than necessary (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995).

Another statistical procedure used to determine the removal of factors is the scree plot (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995) that graphs the factor numbers on the x-axis and the eigenvalues on the y-axis. The scree plot in Figure 3.1 demonstrates the strong influence of the first factor. The second and third factors explain approximately 15% of the variance combined, far less than the first factor. Based on the scree plot, a single factor solution was determined to be most appropriate.

The results of the scree plot require additional analysis to compare eigenvalues. Parallel analysis was used for this purpose. The outcome of the parallel analysis (see Table 3.2) confirms findings from the scree plot. Principal component analysis is run for

a second time forcing a single-factor solution. Factor one explains 45.57% of the variance with an alpha of 0.912. Table 3.3 includes factor loadings for each item in the scale. The final items used in the social change behaviors scale totaled 10 and had eigenvalues between 0.803 and 0.582. The five items that were dropped had eigenvalues between 0.565 and 0.344. Deleting these five items had little influence on scale variance and scale mean scores. The Chronbach alpha for was recalculated for this data set and equaled .90.

Table 3.1

Principal Component Analysis Results

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance Explained	Cumulative Variance
1	6.836	45.572	45.572
2	1.199	7.995	53.567
3	1.142	7.614	61.182
4	.765	5.098	66.280
5	.749	4.996	71.276
6	.605	4.036	75.312
7	.589	3.930	79.242
8	.572	3.810	83.052
9	.489	3.261	86.313
10	.460	3.065	89.378
11	.417	2.777	92.155
12	.359	2.394	94.549
13	.318	2.119	96.668
14	.269	1.792	98.460
15	.231	1.540	100.00

Figure 3.1

Scree Plot

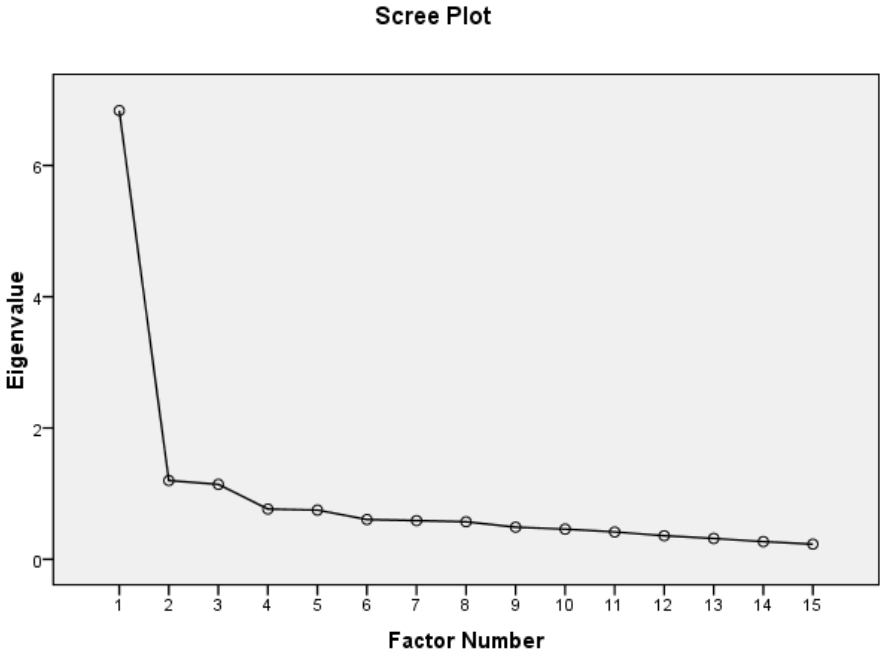


Table 3.2

Parallel Analysis

Factor	Eigenvale	Random eigenvalue	Decision
1	6.836	1.288	Retain
2	1.199	1.222	Remove
3	1.142	1.171	Remove

Table 3.3

Social Change Behaviors Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Acted to raise awareness about a campus, community, or global problem	.803
Took action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem	.802
Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem	.786
Worked with others to address social inequality	.765
Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern	.724
Worked with others to make the campus or community a better place	.721
Been actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community (ex. academic council, neighborhood association)	.714
Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration	.621
Acted to benefit the common good or protect the environment	.606
Performed community service	.582

Socio-cultural issues discussions scale. Socio-cultural issues discussions is the primary independent variable of interest for the study. The scale used to measure this phenomenon consists of six items and was used with the permission of the National Study of Living and Learning Programs (Inkelas & Associates, 2004). The purpose of the scale is to assess the self-reported frequency in which a participant engages in outside-of-the-classroom conversations with peers about different values, lifestyles, and issues related to politics, multiculturalism, and diversity. The ordinal response options for the six questions range from 1-Never, 2-Sometimes, 3-Often, and 4-Very often and were treated as continuous data. This ordinal data are treated as continuous data in this

study. Table 3.4 includes the six items that comprise the scale. The Chronbach alpha in the 2009 data set used in the study was 0.90.

Table 3.4

Socio-Cultural Issues Discussions Scale Items

During interactions with other students outside of class, how often have you done each of the following in an average school year?
1. Talked about different lifestyles/ customs
2. Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own
3. Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice
4. Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were very different from your own
5. Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity
6. Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own

Leadership capacity. Leadership capacity is measured by the omnibus score on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale Revised (SRLS-R3). Tyree (1998) used confirmatory factor analysis to delineate the eight scales associated with the eight values of the social change model. The SRLS consisted of 103 items with a five point Likert-scale response pattern (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) and approximately 10 to 12 items for each of the eight scales. "All of the Cronbach's alpha for the constructs in both phases of the pilot study were greater than .90" (Tyree, 1998, p. 116).

The SRLS was reduced from 103 to 63 items using component analysis in 2005 to create the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale-Revision 2 (SRLS2) (Dugan, 2006a). Items that did not add to a scale's reliability were removed from the instrument. In 2008 MSL researchers further refined the SRLS2 because the reliability of the citizenship scale was lower than desired (Center for Student Studies, 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2009). Additional items were added back to the citizenship scale to increase its reliability. The third revision of the SRLS, SRLS-R3, was used for the 2009 administration of the MSL. Table 3.5 lists sample items for each of the SRLS-R3 scales and Table 3.6 lists the reliability levels for each SRLS-R3 scale and for the Omnibus SRLS . The omnibus SRLS is the mean of all SRLS-R3 items.

Omnibus SRLS-R3. The Omnibus SRLS provides an overall measure of leadership capacity and is utilized as an intermediate outcome measure in the conceptual framework of this study. Each of the individual scores of the eight scales of the SRLS-R3 are summed and averaged to create the omnibus score. The Chronbach alpha for the Omnibus SRLS-R3 is 0.96 (Dugan & Komives, 2009). One possible critique of the Omnibus SRLS-R3 measure is that it consists of all 71 items of the SRLS-R3 whereas the Omnibus SRLS-R3 Pre-test includes eight items. A valid measure of the leadership capacity construct with fewer items is possible. Exploratory factor analysis and principal component analysis techniques could be used to reduce the number of items necessary for an omnibus measure of leadership capacity. The full scale was used in this study.

Table 3.5

Social Change Model Values and Sample SRLS-R3 Items

Social Change Model Value	Sample SRLS-R3 Item
Consciousness of Self	I am able to articulate my priorities
	I am usually self confident
	The things about which I feel passionate have priority in my life
Congruence	It is easy for me to be truthful
	My behaviors reflect my beliefs
	Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me
Commitment	I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to
	I follow through on my promises
	I stick with others through difficult times
Collaboration	I actively listen to what others have to say
	Others would describe me as a cooperative group member
	Collaboration produces better results
Common Purpose	I work well when I know the collective values of a group
	Common values drive an organization
	It is important to develop a common direction in a group in order to get anything done
Controversy with Civility	I am open to others' ideas
	I value differences in others
	Hearing differences in opinions enriches my thinking
Citizenship	I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community
	I volunteer my time to the community
	It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities
Change	There is energy in doing something a new way
	I am comfortable initiating new ways of looking at things
	Change brings new life to an organization

Table 3.6

Social Change Model Scale Reliabilities for the SRLS-R3

Social Change Model Scale Items	Chronbach Alpha
Consciousness of Self	.80
Congruence	.85
Commitment	.84
Collaboration	.83
Common Purpose	.85
Controversy with Civility	.75
Citizenship	.91
Change	.83
Omnibus SRLS-R3	.96

Pre-college experiences. Participants' self-reported frequency of involvement in pre-college experiences is measured using three questions (see Table 3.7). The questions focus on community organization participation, leadership positions in organizations, and working with others to bring about change with societal issues. The ordinal response options for the three questions range from 1-Never, 2-Sometimes, 3-Often, and 4-Very often and were treated as continuous data.

Positional involvement measures. Positional involvement is an environmental input in the conceptual model. Two questions are used to measure self-reported frequency of positional leadership involvement among the participants (see Table 3.8). The questions assess participation in a leadership position in both on- and off-campus

organizations. The ordinal response from 1-Never, 2-Once, 3-Sometimes, 4-Many Time, and 5-Much of the Time and were treated as continuous data.

Demographic variables. The MSL survey also included several demographic measures. Demographic input variables for this study are gender, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation. These variables were selected because of their known influence on the dependent variable as described in the conceptual framework section of this chapter. Table 3.9 lists each demographic input variable and associated categories, coding, and values. The demographic variables were converted from categorical to dichotomous variables, a necessary step for using the variables in the regression analysis. Each dominant social identity category (Goodman, 2001) was assigned reference status and coded with a value of zero, and subordinated identities were coded with a value of one. The gender variables are male, female, and transgender. Male is coded with a value of 0. Female is each coded with a value of 1.

The race/ethnicity question asked participants to choose one or more racial and ethnic groups (see Table 3.9 for list of options). The race/ethnicity membership variables are collapsed for coding purposes. White/Caucasian is coded with a value of 0 and serves as the referent group. All other variables are coded with a value of 1. African American/Black consists of the categories Black American, African, West Indian, Brazilian, Haitian, Jamaican, and other Caribbean. Asian American/Asian consists of Chinese, Indian/Pakistani, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, Pacific Islander, Vietnamese, and other Asian. Latino/Hispanic consists of Mexican/Chicano, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Dominican, South American, Central American, and other Latino. The final two categories are American Indian/Alaska Native and Multiracial or Multiethnic.

Participants had the option of choosing two or more racial or ethnic groups. Those cases were recoded as multiracial or multiethnic.

Table 3.7

Pre-College Experiences Related to Social Change

Participated in community organizations (ex. church group, scouts) Took leadership positions in community organizations Worked with others for change to address societal problems (ex. rally, protest, community organizing)	Response Options 1=Never 2=Sometimes 3=Often 4=Very Often

Table 3.8

Positional Leadership Involvement Questions

Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)? (ex. officer in a club or organization, captain of athletic team, first chair in musical group, section editor of newspaper, chairperson of committee)? Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)? (ex. officer in a club or organization, leader in youth group, chairperson of committee)?	Response options 1=Never 2=Once 3=Sometimes 4=Many Times 5=Much of the Time

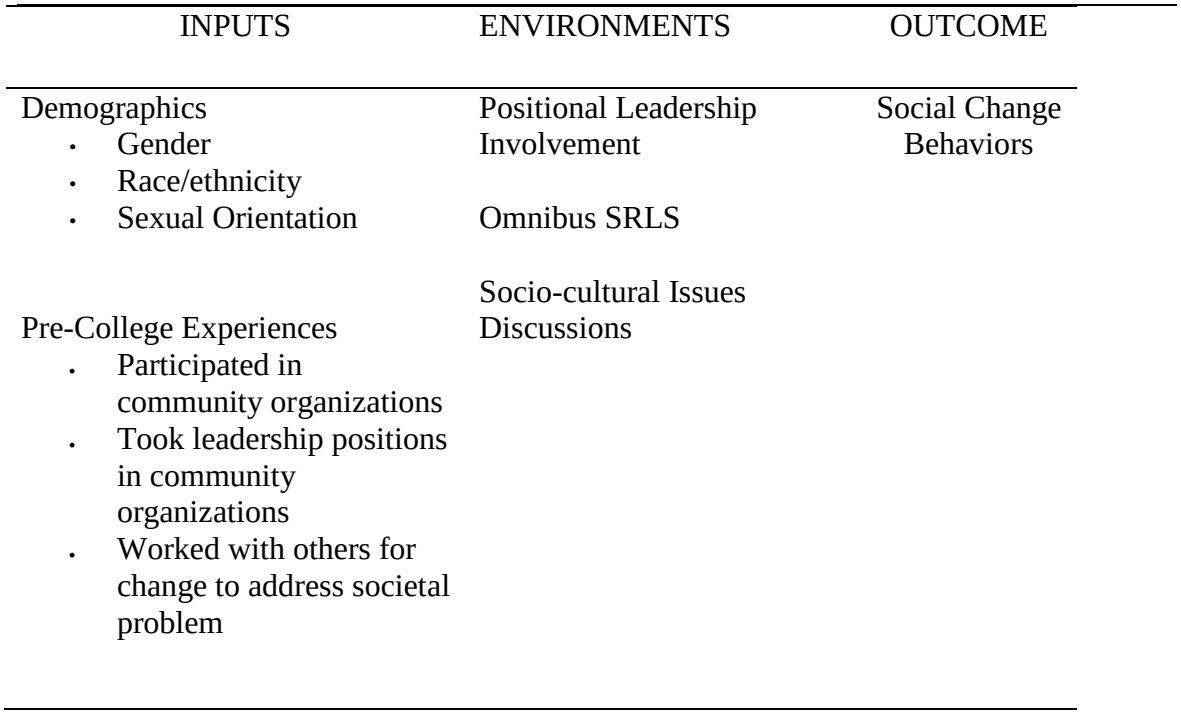
Table 3.9

Demographic Input Variables

Variable	**Categories**	**Coding**	**Value**
Gender	Male	Male	0
	Female	Female	1
Racial/Ethnic Group Membership	White	White/Caucasian	0
	Black American African West Indian Brazilian Haitian Jamaican Other Caribbean	African American/Black	1
	Chinese Indian/Pakistani Japanese Korean Filipino Pacific Islander Vietnamese Other Asian	Asian American/Asian	1
	Mexican/Chicano Puerto Rican Cuban Dominican South American Central American Other Latino	Latino/Hispanic	1
	American Indian/Alaska Native	American Indian/Alaska Native	1
	Multiracial or Multiethnic	Multiracial or Multiethnic	1
Sexual Orientation	Heterosexual	Heterosexual	0
	Bisexual/Gay/Lesbian	Bisexual/Gay/Lesbian	1

Figure 3.2

Conceptual Framework for Study of Socio-Cultural Discussions and Social Change Behaviors



Data Preparation Procedures

The data for this study was reviewed and prepared for analysis. Cases with less than 90% completion of the social change behaviors scale, socio-cultural discussions scale, or SRLS-R3 were removed. This is consistent with previous studies that used MSL data (Dugan et al., 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2007 & 2010). Raw scores and descriptive statistics were reviewed to remove manipulated, duplicated, and outlier cases (Tabachnick & Fiddell, 2007). The total sample was reduced after the data preparation process.

Data Analysis

The inputs, environments, and outcomes elements of the IEO model are quantitative measures. Data are analyzed using multiple regression as a statistical technique. The input and environment measures entered into the regression are determined by existing theory related to the phenomena of interest. The above sections outlined the rationale and supporting literature for the input and environment measures utilized in the study. In addition, Astin's (1993) college impact model dictates the sequence in which the variables are entered into the regression blocks. Thus, variables are entered from most distal to most proximal.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis is the statistical technique used in application of Astin's I-E-O conceptual framework (1993). First, the input variables, demographic data and pre-college experiences, were entered into block one and block two, respectively. Next environmental variables were entered from distal (off-campus organization) to proximal (college organization). Carnegie classification was entered in block three to asses any institutional effects on the dependent variable (Pascarella &

Terenzini, 2005). The fourth block consisted of positional leadership involvement and the Omnibus SRLS-R. The primary independent variable of interest, socio-cultural issues discussions, was entered into the final block. The order in which data are entered into the regression equation allows the researcher to determine which variables explain the largest portion of the variance of the outcome variable. The final regression block is the outcome variable social change behaviors. Table 3.10 outlines each regression block, classification of data, and description of the data with a significance level of .01.

Table 3.10

Regression Blocks

Block 1	Demographic Data	Race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation,
Block 2	Pre-College Experiences	Leadership positions in student clubs, groups, sports
		Participated in community organizations
		Took leadership positions in community organizations
		Worked with others for change to address societal problem
Block 3	Institution Type	Carnegie Classification, size, and control (i.e. private or secular)
Block 4	Positional Leadership Involvement	Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)
		Held a leadership position in a college organization
	Leadership Capacity	Omnibus SRLS-R3
Block 5	Socio-cultural issues discussions	Socio-Cultural Issues Discussion Scale
Block 6	Outcome	Social Change Behaviors

Summary

This chapter presented a description of the methods used to test the hypothesis of this study. The purpose of the study, the research question, and hypothesis were presented first followed by an explanation of the MSL, the source of the secondary data utilized for the study. A description of the conceptual framework was outlined.

Population and sample parameters preceded an explanation of the data collection process. A description of the instrument, its testing, measures, and reliability scores were presented. Finally, the process for data analysis and the regression blocks were described. This chapter has explained the methods used in this quantitative study of the relationship between student participation in socio-cultural issues discussion and student participation in social change behaviors. The next chapter presents the results obtained using the methods described in this chapter.

Chapter Four: Results

Overview

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. This study utilized data collected from the 2009 administration of the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) which is a national survey of student experiences and environmental factors that contribute to student leadership development (Center for Student Studies, 2009; Dugan et al., 2006). Frequency of participation in social change behaviors was measured using a 10-item scale designed by MSL research team members. This behavioral scale assessed distinctive actions linked to social change. Participation in socio-cultural issues discussions was measured using a six-item scale used with permission from the National Study of Living and Learning Programs (NSLLP) (Inkelas & Associates, 2004). The scale assessed the frequency of participation in conversations outside of the classroom with peers about different issues, lifestyles, and values related to politics, multiculturalism, and diversity. Participant characteristics, pre-college experiences, institutional characteristics, and positional leadership experiences were controlled to measure the relationship between the main independent variable, socio-cultural issues discussions, and social change behaviors.

This chapter describes the results of the data analysis conducted to respond to the research question of the study. A description of the sample will be presented first, followed by the results of the hierarchical regression analysis. The explanatory power of the overall model will be explained followed by a description of the influence of each regression block in the final model.

Sample Description

The sample comprised 65% women (*n* = 59,217) and 35% men (*n* = 32,520). Women were overrepresented in this sample. However, national normative data on the gender distribution of undergraduate students at the time data were collected indicated similar gender proportions (Chronicle Almanac, 2008). The proportion of participants by race and ethnicity were as follows: 72.8% White/Caucasian (*n* = 66,722), 5.3% African American/Black (*n* = 4,902), 0.4% American Indian/Alaska Native (*n* = 397), 7.7% Asian American/Asian (*n* = 7,063), 4.1% Latino/Hispanic (*n* = 3,779), 7.6% Multiracial (*n* = 6,989), and 1.4% race/ethnicity not included above (*n* = 1,264). The total proportion of students of color was 25.8% which is slightly below the 28.1% national proportion of students of color enrolled in college at the time data were collected (HERI, 2008). The proportion of participants by sexual orientation was as follows: 93% heterosexual (n = 85,384), 2% Bisexual (*n* = 1,843), 2% Gay/Lesbian (*n* = 1,611), 1% Questioning (*n* = 810), and 2% rather not say (*n* = 2,190). Table 4.1 provides mean and standard deviation values and variable coding for each independent variable.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics and Coding for each Independent Variable

	M	*SD*	Coding
Demographic characteristics			
Men (referent)	.37	.59	0=male
Women	1.30	1.01	1=female
White/Caucasian (referent)	.78	.41	0=no; 0=yes
African American/Black	.07	.25	0=no; 1=yes
American Indian/Alaska Native	.02	.14	0=no; 1=yes
Asian American/Asian	.09	.29	0=no; 1=yes

Table 4.1 (continued)

Descriptive Statistics and Coding for each Independent Variable

	M	*SD*	Coding
Latino/Hispanic	.06	.25	0=no; 1=yes
Multiracial	.03	.18	0=no; 1=yes
Ethnicity not included above	.01	.12	0=no; 1=yes
Heterosexual (referent)	.93	.31	0=no; 0=yes
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	.05	.29	0=no; 1=yes
Rather Not Say	.03	.25	0=no; 1=yes
Pre-college experiences			
Participated in community organizations	2.53	1.08	1=never; 2=sometimes
Took leadership positions in community organizations	1.96	1.02	3=often; 4=very often
Worked with others for change to address societal problems	1.62	.83	
Institutional characteristics			
Research (referent)	.35	.48	0=no; 0=yes
Doctoral	.09	.29	0=no; 1=yes
Masters	.36	.48	0=no; 1=yes
Baccalaureate	.19	.39	0=no; 1=yes
Associates	.01	.11	0=no; 1=yes
Small	.19	.39	0=no; 1=yes
Medium	.36	.48	0=no; 1=yes
Large (referent)	.64	.48	0=no; 0=yes
Public (referent)	.46	.50	0=no; 0=yes
Private	.54	.50	0=no; 1=yes
Religious	.34	.47	0=no; 1=yes
Secular (referent)	.66	.47	0=no; 0=yes
Positional leadership involvement			
Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	2.16	1.50	1=never; 2=once, 3=sometimes
Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	1.52	1.08	4=many times; 5=much of the time

Table 4.1 (continued)

Descriptive Statistics and Coding for each Independent Variable

	M	*SD*	Coding
Omnibus SRLS	3.96	.40	1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree
Main independent variable			
Socio-Cultural Issues Discussions	2.71	.76	1=never; 2=sometimes; 3=often; 4=very often
Outcome variable			
Social Change Behaviors	2.05	.74	1=never; 2=sometimes; 3=often; 4=very often

Means and standard deviations measures for the social change behavior scale were calculated for each demographic variable. Table 4.2 provides a summary of the sample demographic characteristics with means and standard deviations of the frequency of social change behaviors for each demographic category.

Table 4.2

Sample Demographic Characteristics and Means (SD) on Social Change Behaviors

		n	%	mean	SD
Gender					
	Male	32,520	35	1.65	.74
	Female	59,217	65	2.08	.74
Race					
	White	66,722	73	2.03	.73
	African American	4,902	5	2.19	.82
	American Indian/Alaskan Native	397	0	2.12	.79
	Asian American	7,063	8	2.05	.76
	Latino	3,779	4	2.05	.80
	Multiracial	6,989	8	2.18	.81
	Not Included Above	1,264	1	2.19	.81

Table 4.2 (continued)

Sample Demographic Characteristics and Means (SD) on Social Change Behaviors

		n	%	mean	SD
Sexual Orientation					
	Heterosexual	85,384	93	2.03	.73
	Bisexual	1,843	2		
	Gay/Lesbian	1,611	2	2.32	.85
	Question	810	1		
	Rather Not Say	2,190	2	2.13	.82

Note. Percentages were rounded to whole numbers.

Description of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was the statistical tool used to test the hypothesis of this study. Input and environmental variables were entered in five blocks based on supporting literature outlined in chapters two and three. The purpose of the hierarchical regression analysis conducted in this study was to assess the influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable of interest, social change behavior. Since the sample included over 94,000 cases a more conservative significance level of .01 was used to interpret the findings. The final regression model explained 45.5% of the variance with a significant contribution from each block: demographic variables (block1) explained 1.2%, pre-college experiences (block2) explained 15%, institutional characteristics (block 3) explained 1.3%, positional leadership experiences (block4) explained 25.6% and socio-cultural issues discussions (block 5) explained an additional 2.4%.

The final full model explained 45.5% of the variance, F (24, 91,206) = 3,176.65, $p<.001$. Block 1, participant demographic characteristics, was significant ($R^2 = .012$). The following variables in block 1 were significant positive predictors: African American/Black ($\beta = .02$, $p<.001$), Asian American/Asian ($\beta=.01$, $p<.01$), gender ($\beta =$

.04, p<.001), and Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning (β = .04, p<.001). The following block 1 variable was a significant negative predictor: Latino/Hispanic (β = -.01, p<.01). Block 2, pre-college experiences, was significant (R^2 change= .15). The following block 2 variables were significant positive predictors: took leadership positions in community organizations (β = .01, p<.01) and worked with others for change to address societal problems (β = .21, p<.001). Block 3, institutional characteristics, was significant (R^2 change=.01). The following block 3 variables were significant positive predictors: Carnegie type baccalaureate (β = .03, p<.001), institutional control private (β = .02, p<.001), and institutional affiliation religious (β = .02, p<.001). The following block 3 variables were negative predictors: Carnegie type doctoral (β = -.01, p<.001) and Carnegie type associates (β = -.01, p<.001). Block 4, positional leadership involvement, was significant (R^2 change = .26). The following block 4 variables were significant positive predictors: held a leadership position in college organization (β = .39, p<.001), held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization (β = .13, p<.001), and leadership capacity measured by the Omnibus SRLS (β = .14, p<.001). Block 5 (R^2=.02) contained one variable, socio-cultural issues discussions, which was the main independent variable for the study. The variable was a significant positive predictor (β = .18, p<.001). Table 4.3 provides a summary of R^2, adjusted R^2, F Change, and p values for each regression block and beta coefficients and significance values for each variable.

Table 4.3

Predictors of Social Change Behaviors with Model Variance Explained for each Regression Block

	R^2	*Adjusted* R^2	R^2 Change	*F* Change	B	β	*p*
Block 1: Demographic characteristics	.01	.01	01	113.35			***
African American/Black					.059	.02	***
American Indian/Alaska Native					.021	.00	
Asian American/Asian					.018	.01	**
Latino/Hispanic					-.024	-.01	**
Multiracial					.024	.01	
Race/ Ethnicity not included above					.028	.00	
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning					.102	.04	***
Rather Not Say					-.014	.00	
Gender					.057	.04	***
Block 2: Pre-college experiences	.16	.16	.15	5429.06			***
Participated in community organizations					.002	.00	
Took leadership positions in community organizations					.007	.01	**
Worked with others for change to address societal problems					.191	.21	***

Table 4.3 (continued)

Predictors of Social Change Behaviors

	R^2	*Adjusted* R^2	R^2 Change	*F* Change	B	β	*P*
Block 3: Institutional characteristics	*.18*	*.18*	*.01*	*186.05*			***
Doctoral					-.036	-.01	***
Masters					.013	.01	
Baccalaureate					.053	.03	***
Associates					-.059	-.01	***
Medium					-.014	-.01	
Small					-.014	-.01	
Private					.036	.02	***
Religious					.036	.02	***
Block 4: Positional leadership involvement	*.43*	*.43*	*.26*	*13683.43*			***
Held a leadership position in a college organization					.192	.39	***
Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization					.092	.13	***
Omnibus SRLS					.267	.14	***
Block 5: Main Independent Variable	*.46*	*.46*	*.02*	*4019.73*			***
Socio-cultural issues discussions					.171	.18	***

Note. ****p*<.001, **p<.01, *β = Standardized beta coefficient

Post-Hoc Analysis

Multicollinearity. Collinearity statistics were utilized to ensure that independent measures were not highly correlated with the dependent measure (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005). Two statistical measures, Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were calculated and examined to identify the existence of multicollinearity. Tolerance values of less than .10 and VIF values above 10 are accepted as cut-off points for indicating multicollinearity (Pallant, 2005). Tolerance values for the independent variables in the final regression model ranged from .32 to .99 and VIF values ranged from 1.02 to 3.10. These values indicate that the final model does not violate the multicollinearity assumption. Beta values, correlations, and collinearity statistics is included in Appendix A. Appendix B provides correlation values between all measures.

Effect sizes. Effect size is "an indication of how important is the magnitude of some effect. This is different from statistical significance, which tells only whether an effect is present" (Weinfurt, 2000, p. 355). Reporting effect sizes is a necessary step in the analysis process for distinguishing statistically significant, but inconsequential findings, from meaningful results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cohen's (1998) f^2 statistic is the appropriate measure for effect size in hierarchical regression and is calculated using the following formula: $f^2 = R^2/1\text{-}R^2$. Cohen (1988) delineated three effect size levels for hierarchical regression analysis. Small effect is equal to .02, medium effect is equal to .15, and large effect is .35. Small effect sizes were found for regression block 1, demographic data (f^2 = .01), regression block 3, institutional characteristics (f^2 = .01), and regression block 5, socio-cultural issues discussions (f^2 = .02). Medium effects

were found for regression block 2, pre-college experiences ((f^2 = .18) and regression block 4, positional leadership involvement ((f^2 = .34).

Results for the Hypothesis

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. The following hypothesis guided this study:

> The frequency of engaging in socio-cultural issues discussions will be a significant predictor of social change behavior frequency after controlling for participants' pre-college experiences, institutional characteristics, positional leadership involvement, and self-perceived leadership capacity.

Through hierarchical regression analysis socio-cultural issues discussion was found to be a significant predictor of participant participation in social change behaviors. The resulting regression model supports the hypothesis, and explain 45.5% of the variance with the main independent variable, socio-cultural issues discussions explaining 2.4% of the variance after accounting for all other independent variables.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of the results from analysis conducted to test the hypothesis for this study. Descriptive statistics of the demographic variables were presented first. Regression analysis results were presented next with an explanation of the significant variables and the associated R^2 values that emerged in each regression block. Predictors of the dependent variable were identified with beta values and significance levels. Post-hoc analysis found that multicollinearity assumptions of the final model were not violated. Small and medium effect sizes were calculated for the predictor

variables in the final model. The next chapter will present a discussion of the findings and related literature, implications for practice, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter provides a discussion of the results of the analysis conducted to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. The chapter begins with a statement of the problem followed be a review of methods and summary of results. A review of the results and how the results can be explained in the literature follows next. The final three sections present limitations of the study, implications for practice, and suggestions for future research.

Statement of Problem

Fostering leadership for social change among college students has been espoused as a goal and challenge for leadership educators (Astin & Astin, 2000; Dugan, 2010; Gardiner, 1990; HERI, 1996; Kezar et al., 2006; Wagner, 2009). Identifying conditions and experiences that predict such leadership outcomes among college students is the focus of a large body of research (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Results from such research provide educators with knowledge that can be used to shape leadership education experiences and increase students' ability to effect positive social change. Research findings indicate a predictive relationship between particular types of involvement and leadership outcomes. Student participation in positional leadership roles is an example of a type of involvement that influences student leadership outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Yet, one understudied type of student experience with a theoretical connection to student leadership for social change is socio-cultural issues discussions. An emerging body of research suggests a positive relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and leadership outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Other areas of study have demonstrated the influence of socio-cultural issues discussions among college students. Socio-cultural issues discussions have been linked to several positive outcomes including social change, critical thinking, cross-cultural understanding, openness to diversity, self-awareness, and student learning (Pascarella et al., 1996; Quaye & Baxter Magolda, 2007; Whitt et al., 2001). Students' motivation to change their attitudes and work towards engaging positive change in their community has been associated with socio-cultural discussions (Zúñiga et al., 2005).

The importance of leadership for social change and the role of socio-cultural issues discussions as positive predictors of college outcomes (e.g., increased understanding across differences, openness to diversity, self-awareness, student learning, critical thinking, self-awareness (Pascarella et al.,1996; Quaye & Baxter Magolda, 2007; Whitt et al., 2005; Zúñiga et al., 2005)) has been established in previous research and explored in chapters one and two. However, the connection between socio-cultural issues discussions and specific leadership outcomes related to social change has not been empirically explored. No published studies exist examining the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors.

Review of Methods

This study utilized data from the 2009 administration of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a national research project designed to explore student experiences and environmental factors that contribute to student leadership development. An internet-based survey was used to collect data from participants at 101 higher education institutions throughout the United States. The usable sample for this study

consisted of 94,367 undergraduate students who completed at least 90% of the core survey and scales used for the study.

An adapted version of Astin's college impact model (Astin, 1991; 1993) provided the conceptual framework for the study. In this input-environment-outcome (IEO) model participant demographic characteristics and pre-college experiences represented the inputs. The environment included institutional characteristics, positional leadership experiences, leadership capacity, and socio-cultural issues discussions, which was the main independent variable for the study. Social change behaviors was the outcome and dependent variable.

Hierarchical regression analysis is the appropriate statistical technique in the application of Astin's I-E-O conceptual framework (1993), and was used to explore the relationship between social change behaviors and socio-cultural discussions. Five regression blocks containing independent variables were used. Block one included the demographic characteristics of gender, race, and sexual orientation. The second regression block included pre-college experiences related to leadership experiences. Block three consisted of institutional characteristics. The fourth regression block included positional leadership experiences including measures of leadership capacity. Finally, block five was frequency of socio-cultural issues discussions.

One hierarchical regression was conducted to determine the relative predictive relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Astin's (1993) college impact model dictates the sequence in which the variables are entered into the regression blocks. The order in which data are entered into the regression equation allows the researcher to determine which variables explain the largest portion of the

variance of the outcome variable. Therefore, the variables were entered from most distal to most proximal. The resulting analysis illustrated the relationship between socio-cultural discussions and social change behaviors, and indicated factors that were predictive of student s' participation in social change behaviors

Summary of Results

In the final regression model, block one, demographic characteristics, accounted for 1.3% of the variance with gender, African American, Asian American, and Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning emerging as positive predictors. Latino/Hispanic was a negative predictor. The effect size for block one was small. Block two, pre-college experiences, accounted for 15% of the variance with taking leadership positions in community organizations and working with others for change to address societal problems as positive predictor variables. The effect size for block two was moderate. Block three, institutional characteristics, accounted for 1.2% of the variance with Carnegie type baccalaureate, institutional control private, and institutional affiliation religious emerging as positive predictors in this block. Carnegie type doctoral and associates were negative predictors. However, the beta values for each predictor in block three were very small and the effect size for block three was small. Block four, positional leadership experience, accounted for 26% of the variance. Holding a leadership position in a college organization, holding leadership position in an off-campus community organization, and leadership capacity measured by the Omnibus SRLS were all significant variables in this block. The effect size for block four was moderate.

Block 5 contained socio-cultural issues discussions, the main independent variable, and it accounted for a statistically significant 2.4% of the variance. However,

the effect size, or the extent of the impact of a variable, was small. The final regression model accounted for 46% of the variance.

Discussion of Results

Demographic characteristics. Demographic variables contributed very little to the overall regression model. The total amount of variance accounted for was 1.2%. In addition, the effect size or the importance of the magnitude of the effect was small. These findings indicate that student gender, race, and sexual orientation had little predictive power on the dependent variable, social change behaviors. The statistically significant demographic variables among the demographic characteristics are noted below.

Among the statistically significant positive demographic characteristics, being African American was found to be a positive predictor for participating in social change behaviors. This group scored highest on frequency of social change behaviors. These findings are consistent with research on similar outcomes with African American college students. For example, Cruce and Moore (2007) found that students of color are more likely to participate in volunteer activities in college than White students. Harper and Quaye (2007) noted that African American college men use student organizations to engage in activities that could be defined as social change behaviors. For example, findings from their study revealed how awareness of the negative conditions facing African Americans inspired students to take action to make positive change.

Asian American students were the only other racial group identified as positively predicting participation in social change behaviors. Inkelas (2004) found a relationship between participation in ethnic organizations and social identity awareness among Asian

Pacific American students. Although only speculation, Asian American students in the study may have had a moderate to high ethnic awareness influencing one's interest in social change behaviors.

Indentifying as Latino was a negative predictor of participating in social change behaviors. This finding is consistent with mean values which indicated this group had the lowest mean. For example, Kirby et al. (2009) found that Latino students had the lowest rates of participating in service. These findings are not necessarily generalizable to the entire population. Instead, it simply means that this group scored lowest for the specific measures of social change behaviors measured for this study. The types of social change behaviors that this population may participate in were most likely not measured in this study.

Gender was also predictive of participation in social change behaviors and this is reflected in higher mean scores for women than men. Previous research has demonstrated that women participate in these types of activities at much higher rates than men (Cruce & Moore, 2007; Dolte et al., 2006; Jones & Abes, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001, 2003).

Sexual orientation, specifically identifying as gay, lesbian, or bisexual, was found to be a positive predictor of participating in social change behaviors. Renn (2007) found a relationship between student identification with sexual orientation and commitment to advancing the needs of the LGB community. However, the literature did not link participation in social change behaviors unrelated to sexual orientation with identifying as gay, lesbian, or bisexual. Yet, subordinated identity status is associated with a greater awareness of social inequities in general (Goodman, 2001; Rhoads, 1998).

Although no studies have explored the direct relationship between the demographic variables and all the social change behaviors described in this study, literature provides some insight into these above results. Students from subordinated groups are typically more inclined to take action towards positive social change. (Goodman, 2001; Renn, 2007; Rhoads, 1998). Identity salience may be linked to student interest in organizations and activities that address concerns related to one's social identity group (Inkelas, 2004; Renn, 2007; Taylor & Howald-Hamilton, 1995). The applicability of these findings is limited due to the small effect size. Therefore, the explanation of this category of findings and connection to the literature presented must be considered in this light.

Pre-college experiences. Pre-college leadership experiences were significant positive predictors of frequency of social change behavior. The two items within this block, taking leadership positions in community organizations and working with others for change to address societal problems, as positive predictor variables, accounted for the second highest amount of the variance predicted for the overall model. McEwen (2003) noted that aspects of students' pre-college experiences follow them to college. Previous research has demonstrated the strong influence of pre-college experiences on college outcomes (Cress et al., 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Astin and Sax (1998) in a national study on college outcomes found that students who volunteered in high school have a higher likelihood of volunteering in college. Pryor and Hurtado (2010) noted how pre-college exposure to volunteering created a stronger awareness of social issues.

Students who participate service activities in high school may choose to pursue similar involvements in college for intrinsic reasons (Astin, Sax, & Avolos, 1999).

Therefore, pre-college experiences may be the source of motivation to pursue similar activities in college. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found pre-college experiences a highly positive predictor of college involvement choices. However, the predictive nature of pre-college choices related to social change activities are generally limited to those activities that students freely choose. Research on required service suggests that when high school students are forced into activities they are not likely to continue in college (Marks & Jones, 2004; Stukas et al., 1999).

Institutional characteristics. Carnegie type baccalaureate, institutional control private, and institutional affiliation religious where found to be weak positive predictors for participation in social change behaviors. Weak negative predictors of participation in social change behaviors were Carnegie types doctoral and associates. The beta values were low and the effect size for the institutional characteristics regression block was small. Therefore the strength of these relationships is weak overall. This finding is consistent with other research that indicates that institutional characteristics have little influence on student involvement outcomes (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Positional leadership involvement. Student participation in on- and off-campus organizations where they held a leadership position, and student self-reported leadership capacity were the strongest positive predictors of participation in social change behaviors. This finding is consistent with research connecting leadership involvement and participation in social change behaviors (Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001).

The social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996) provides an explanation of the student interactions through which the leadership process occurs. Positional leadership involvement is one possible medium that allows students with

similar interest to work together towards producing a social change related outcome. Aligning one's personal values and a group's negotiating its values and purpose are the essence of the process that leads to the demonstration of citizenship and the outcome of change (Cilente, 2009). Therefore, using the social change model (HERI, 1996) proves to be a useful lens for viewing the individual and group experience of the leadership process. Literature on leader identity development offers an additional level of sophistication to describing what happens at the individual or student level.

Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2009) situate "leader identity development [as] an indispensable component of leader development" (p. 183). This suggests that an individual's ability to engage in leadership processes is influenced by not only one's behavior, beliefs, and interactions with others, but also by one's development of a leadership identity. Biddix (2010) suggests that outcomes of relational leadership, particularly the interactions that students have with one another, can contribute to leadership identity development.

Day (2001) establishes the relationship between leadership development and leadership identity development, which Day calls leader development. Leadership development builds social capital in terms of networking, relationships, and cooperation, and leader development builds human capital such as intrapersonal competence and self-knowledge. Individuals need experiences that promote leadership identity development so they can be prepared to successfully engage in the leadership processes with others (Day et al., 2009). "Attempting to build shared meaning systems and mutual commitments among communities of practice without a proper investment in individual

preparation runs the risk of placing people in challenging developmental situations that are too far over their heads" (Day, 2001, p. 605).

Leadership development and leadership identity development each explain inter- and intrapersonal processes related to how one resolves challenges related to one's environment (Lord & Hall, 2005). Leadership development models outlines how individuals and groups within a particular context work together and resolve issues to bring about meaningful and purposeful outcomes (Day & Harrison, 2007). In general, identity development involves understanding the evolving patterns of thinking, behaving, and interacting with others and one's environment (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Leadership identity development as it relates to college students explores these dimensions.

The leadership identity development model provides a framework for understanding "the process a person experiences in creating a leadership identity" (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005, p. 594). Merging the gap between student and leadership development, the leadership identity development model proposes a complex, cyclical, stage-based succession describing internal and external processes and influences on students increasing their leadership capacity over time (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006). The model consists of the following six stages: awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leader differentiated, generativity, and integration/synthesis.

As participants move through the stages of the leadership identity development model their view of leadership changes (Komives et al., 2006). Participants first conceive leadership as a phenomenon that occurs outside of them and identify leaders as

individuals with titles and prominence. Next, they seek to be involved as a participant, and then increase their involvement by taking on a leadership role. In later stages they understand leadership to be a process, and seek to facilitate leadership capacity in others. A participant's commitment and passion to a cause or organization deepens leading to a search for ways to sustain personal and group development.

One's view of themselves and relationship with others changes over time according to the leadership identity development model (Komives et al., 2006). Self-confidence and interpersonal efficacy increase in step with one's increasingly sophisticated view of leadership (Komives et al., 2005). Participants move from dependence, to independence, toward interdependence. Group membership influences one's sense of self and how one makes meaning of leadership. Adults, peers, meaningful involvement, and reflective learning serve as developmental influences for the entire process (Komives et al., 2006). Cognitively, participants move towards what Baxter Magolda and King (2004) noted as self-authorship, which represents "a shift from primarily accepting knowledge from authorities to constructing knowledge oneself" (Baxter Magolda & King, 2004, p. 3). Influences from peers and adults, interaction with peers, and personal reflection contribute to one's development of a leadership identity.

On a practical level, having a specific leadership role may provide an explanation as to why positional leadership involvement was found to be such a strong predictor of participation in social change behaviors. An individual who has a specific leadership role in an organization that is participating in social change behaviors is more likely to engage in the same behavior because of their organizational affiliation. The opposite could also hold true – if the person was not involved with an organization that was already

committed to social change behaviors then the individual would not independently seek out such involvements. Dugan (2006a) found that students involved within an organization reported higher scores on the group values of the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996). Thus, positional role and organizational affiliation make help explain the strong relationship between positional leadership involvement and social change behaviors.

Socio-cultural issues discussions. Although the main dependent variable of the study, socio-cultural issues was found to be a weak significant positive predictor due to small effect sizes. Socio-cultural issues discussions was found to be a significant predictor of socially responsible leadership in previous studies (Dugan & Komives, 2010). However, its ability to predict participation in social change behaviors is not as strong as its ability to predict the capacity for socially responsible leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Therefore, this would suggest a disconnect between socio-cultural issues discussions as a predictor of socially responsible leadership capacity, as measured by the socially responsible leadership scale (Tyree, 1998), and its ability to predict student participation in social change behaviors as defined and measured in this study.

The above phenomenon may illustrate the distinction between the ability of socio-cultural issues discussions to predict attitudes and its ability to predict behaviors. The literature supporting socio-cultural issues discussions as a theoretical predictor of participation in social change behaviors describes the construct's ability to predict the following attitudes or dispositions such as socially responsible leadership capacity (Dugan & Komives, 2010), increased understanding across differences, self-awareness, critical thinking, self-awareness(Pascarella et al.,1996; Whitt et al., 2005), and inclination

to participate in democratic behavior (Zúñiga et al., 2005). Although the researchers used these attitudinal measures as proxies for behavioral outcomes, none of these studies measured actual behaviors. Instead, they measured intent, ability, capacity, or presence of these constructs among research participants.

The field of psychology provides an understanding of the relationship between predicting attitudes and behaviors. Allport (cited in Wallace, Paulson, Lord, and Bond (2005) advanced the notion that attitudes were predictive of behaviors. Wallace et al. (2005) outlined a thorough review of the untenable and conditional relationship between attitudes and behaviors through an extensive meta-analysis of 797 studies. The outcome of the analysis suggests that attitude is most predictive of behavior when there is strong conceptual connection between the attitude and behavior, when the attitude held is strong, and the consistency of the attitude (Wallace et al., 2005).

Ouelette and Wood (1998) also incorporated meta-analysis in their investigation of the relationship between attitudes and behaviors. The similarity between past and future behavior, the opportunity to participate in future behavior, and the intention to participate in the behavior all contribute to the likelihood that a particular behavior will occur. Intention was far less predictive of future behavior that "requiring conscious decision making" (Ouelette & Wood, 1998, p.66).

The aforementioned research on predicting of behavior yields several possible explanations as to why socio-cultural issues discussions were a weak predictor of social change behaviors. As a construct, socio-cultural issues discussions are more closely linked to the other constructs it has predicted in previous research. The level of intention needed to connect socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors among

students may be much higher than other the other outcomes predicted by socio-cultural discussions. Wallace et al. (2005) highlight the distinction between attitudes predicting attitudes and attitudes predicting behavior. Participation in socio-cultural issues discussions is a behavior and elicits attitudes. Yet, the attitude and behavior associated with socio-cultural issues discussions does not appear to provide a strong behavioral or attitudinal link to action with social change behaviors. The socio-cultural issues discussion measured in this study could have covered any number of broad topics, and were not necessarily linked to the specific set of social change behaviors measured in this study.

Nonetheless, given that socio-cultural discussions contributed 2.4% toward the overall model as the last variable entered into the regression it is still an important component of student leadership for social change. However, the results suggest that it is more effective when coupled with positional leadership experiences.

Limitations

This study had several limitations that should be noted when interpreting the findings. The study used data previously collected for a different purpose. Although the constructs measured for this study where purposefully included for the first study, the purpose of the original study was to explore inputs and environments that influence leadership outcomes. Conceptually, the argument can be made as to what degree the main independent and dependent variables can be categorized as leadership topics.

The use of a modified version of Astin's (1993) college impact model presents a limitation on interpreting the findings since the unmodified version of the model requires a research design that incorporates pre and post data over time. Using a cross-sectional

design in which participants recollect past experiences and current experiences within the same time means limits the interpretation of the impact of prior experiences on current outcomes. However, Gonyea (2005) posits that such methods for assessing college impact are appropriate and applicable when coupled with accurate instrumentation methods. The soundness of the instrument used for this study lessens the impact of this limitation.

The design of this study presents relationships among variables. Findings do not explain the cause of the relationship among the variables, just the predictive value of each independent variable on the dependent variable. Therefore, nature of the relationship between the variables can only be explained using existing theory.

Given the large number of cases in the sample it is possible that the results may suggest a higher explanation of the variance found in the outcome variable than would be determined with a smaller sample size. Therefore the significance level was more conservative at .01. In addition, the study sought to understand the relationship between the independent and dependent variable, but does not predict causality as it is beyond the scope of the study.

The sample used also has concerns that influence the generalizability of the findings. Women were overrepresented at 62%, which was similar to the college population at the time data were collected. However, the proportion of students of color in the sample was 2.3% lower than the population at the time. American Indian/Alaska Native students made up 0.4% of the sample. The proportion of gay, lesbian, and bisexual students was 2%. The composition of the sample as compared to the college population must be considered when interpreting these results.

Finally, the frequency of participation in social change behaviors and other scales are ordinal measures, but are scored in a continuous pattern. Although the response options provide a ranking of participation level among participants, there is no equal measure between each score within the provided scale. In addition, a participant who is selected "sometimes" as an option for several items on the social change behaviors scale could receive a higher score than another participant who selected "very often" for a few items on the scale.

Implications for Practice

Pre-college leadership experiences and positional leadership experiences were the strongest predictors of student participation in social change behaviors. Therefore, practices that encourage these experiences should be embraced. Identifying students with high school leadership experiences and helping them quickly find venues for leadership involvement in college is an important step for practitioners to take in facilitating the continuation of such involvements in college. Cole, Kennedy, and Ben-Avie (2009) illustrate that pre-college experience, the college environment, and student internal motivation collectively influence a student's choice to continue pre-college experiences in college. Past involvement is not necessarily an accurate predictor of future involvement since students' internal motivation is uniquely individual to each student (Jones et al., 2008). However, practitioners can play an important role in shaping the environment to support students who seek to transition their involvements on the collegiate level.

One way to foster this transition is when a student submits an application to college. Admissions offices typically collect information about student pre-college

leadership experience as part of the application process. Although the information is useful for admissions staff during the selection process it can also be used by leadership educators to connect students to college experiences to complement their high school involvements This is one way educators can connect pre-college and college positional leadership experiences. Admissions personnel could collect and organize this data to share with other educators throughout the institution who could reach out to students to encourage further participation in the activity in college. Additionally, the application and enrollment process could include surveys of students' pre-college experiences and the same survey could ask students if they would like to be contacted by staff or faculty who could help foster the same involvement in college.

Educators should heavily invest in creating positional leadership experiences for college students. Findings from this study substantiate the value of positional leadership found in other studies (Astin & Astin, 2000; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Benefits of such involvements are long-reaching, and beyond the immediate outcomes of simply being involved. Positional leadership experiences provide positive outcomes, such as increased civic engagement, beyond the gains associated with a particular organization (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999).

Socio-cultural issues discussions make a difference. Although the effect size and overall contribution to the regression model was small, social cultural issues discussions was found to be a positive predictor of frequency of participation in social change behaviors after accounting for all other predictors. Therefore, its value cannot be discounted. Providing out-of-class opportunities for discussing one's values and beliefs around socio-cultural issues appears to have an influence on one's actions. The findings

from this study suggest that positional leaders who are provided the opportunity to engage in socio-cultural discussions may have a higher likelihood of participating in social change behaviors.

Suggestions for Future Research

The previous discussion on the link between attitudes and behaviors predicting future behaviors points to future research that may provide a more refined analysis of the connection between socio-cultural issues discussions and social change behaviors. The present study did not control for the type of socio-cultural issues discussions measured, and it is possible that there was little connection between the content of the discussions and the types of behaviors measured. Findings from Outlette and Wood (1998) indicate a stronger relationship exists between past attitudes and behaviors and present or future behaviors when the constructs being measured are more closely linked. The researchers found this to be true when using regression analysis as a statistical technique. Past attitudes and behaviors were more predictive of future behaviors when all constructs were similar to one another.

The findings related to the influence of race, being African American, on frequency of participation in social change behaviors warrants a deeper look. African American students at historically Black colleges and Universities (HBCUs) report higher levels of engagement compared to peers at predominantly White institutions (PWIs) (Harper, Carini, Bridges, & Hayek, 2004). This study did not distinguish between African American students at HBCUs and PWIs. Although Carnegie institution type was found to have had little influence on student participation in social change behaviors, PWIs and HBCUs may have a predictive relationship with social change behaviors.

Students of color conceptualize service in different ways compared to White students (Jones et al., 2008; Segar, 2010). As discussed in chapter two, students of color who are actively serving their communities in activities that may be defined as social change behaviors may not define them in the same way. Instead, they may simply see those behaviors as what one is supposed to do for one's community. This study did not label the social change behaviors measured which may explain why African American students scored highest in participation in frequency of participation in social change behaviors. Future research should continue to focus on specific behaviors and avoid labeling the behaviors.

Race was used as one independent variable among several demographic variables used to isolate the influence of the main independent variable, socio-cultural discussions, on the dependent variable social change behaviors. However, the complex nature of race and racial identity (Benson, 2006; Celious & Oyserman, 2001) deserve focused attention and should be used as the main independent variable for a future study. Although student engagement and race have received attention in the literature (i.e., Flowers, 2004; Guffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Taylor & Howard-Hamilton, 1995), future investigations focusing on race as a main independent variable and social change is warranted. Existing studies, as noted above, highlight student engagement, but do not link a theoretically grounded framework of leadership to a range of specific social change behaviors. Such a study would fill a wide gap in the literature.

Conclusion

Leadership educators are challenged to facilitate experiences that promote student participation in socially responsible leadership that produces social change (Astin &

Astin, 2000). Results from this study suggest identifying students with pre-college leadership experiences and connecting them to positional leadership experiences where they can also participate in socio-cultural discussions has the highest likelihood of encouraging students to participate in social change behaviors.

The national data set used to explore the relationship between socio-cultural issues discussion and social change behaviors provided useful findings for practice as noted above. Demographic characteristics were a positive but weak predictor of social change behaviors. Institutional characteristics were found to have little influence in predicting social change behaviors. However, pre-college leadership experiences and positional leadership experiences were found to be strong predictors of social change behaviors. After accounting for these variables, socio-cultural issues discussions was found to be a positive weak predictor. Yet, when matched with other environmental factors, socio-cultural issues discussions play an important part in student leadership experiences related to participating in social change behaviors.

Although research on student leadership and student engagement provides a useful context for exploring social change, more research is needed that focuses on social change behaviors, particularly behaviors beyond community service and service learning. New research is needed that focuses on the influence of race on social change behaviors. The empirical gap between student experiences and social change behaviors has narrowed slightly through this study. However, the outcomes of this study have highlighted the gap and suggest that more work is needed in this area.

Appendix A

Regression Coefficients, Model Values, Correlations, and Collinearity Statistics

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Beta	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
African American/Black	0.059	0.020	0.000	0.050	0.026	0.019	0.960	1.041
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.021	0.004	0.106	0.013	0.005	0.004	0.978	1.022
Asian American/Asian	0.018	0.007	0.006	0.002	0.009	0.007	0.959	1.043
Latino/Hispanic	-0.024	-0.008	0.001	0.001	-0.011	-0.008	0.975	1.025
Multiracial	0.024	0.006	0.023	0.031	0.008	0.006	0.965	1.036
Race/ Ethnicity not included above	0.028	0.004	0.078	0.023	0.006	0.004	0.988	1.013
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	0.102	0.038	0.000	0.060	0.045	0.033	0.748	1.338
Rather Not Say	-0.014	-0.005	0.109	0.009	-0.005	-0.004	0.749	1.335
Gender	0.057	0.037	0.000	0.064	0.049	0.037	0.977	1.024
Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	0.002	0.004	0.263	0.211	0.004	0.003	0.609	1.643
Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	0.007	0.010	0.002	0.294	0.010	0.007	0.527	1.899

Pre-college: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	0.191	0.212	0.000	0.367	0.242	0.184	0.753	1.328
Doctoral	-0.036	-0.014	0.000	-0.001	-0.016	-0.012	0.723	1.384
Masters	0.013	0.008	0.016	-0.021	0.008	0.006	0.518	1.931
Baccalaureate	0.053	0.028	0.000	0.062	0.025	0.018	0.424	2.357
Associates	-0.059	-0.009	0.000	-0.041	-0.012	-0.009	0.958	1.044
Small	-0.014	-0.007	0.027	0.061	-0.007	-0.005	0.564	1.773
Medium	-0.014	-0.009	0.020	-0.101	-0.008	-0.006	0.378	2.644
Private	0.036	0.024	0.000	0.131	0.018	0.014	0.323	3.098
Religious	0.036	0.023	0.000	0.078	0.022	0.016	0.477	2.096
College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	0.192	0.390	0.000	0.515	0.443	0.364	0.874	1.144
College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	0.092	0.134	0.000	0.284	0.167	0.125	0.874	1.145
Omnibus SRLS	0.267	0.143	0.000	0.369	0.169	0.127	0.783	1.277
Socio-Cultural Discussions	0.171	0.175	0.000	0.393	0.205	0.155	0.780	1.281

Note. ***p<.001, **p<.01, *β = Standardized beta coefficient

Appendix B

Correlation Values between Variables

	Social Change Behaviors	Gender	African American/Black	American Indian/Alaska Native	Asian American/Asian	Latino/Hispanic	Multiracial
Social Change Behaviors	1.000	.064	.050	.013	.002	.001	.031
Gender	.064	1.000	.029	.008	-.033	.002	-.001
African American/Black	.050	.029	1.000	.078	-.062	-.019	.094
American Indian/Alaska Native	.013	.008	.078	1.000	-.017	.023	.102
Asian American/Asian	.002	-.033	-.062	-.017	1.000	-.054	.063
Latino/Hispanic	.001	.002	-.019	.023	-.054	1.000	.088
Multiracial	.031	-.001	.094	.102	.063	.088	1.000
Race/ Ethnicity not included above	.023	-.011	-.031	-.017	-.037	-.031	-.021
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	.060	-.020	.014	.013	-.002	.020	.020
Rather Not Say	.009	-.007	.016	.004	.033	.005	.014
Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	.211	.095	.068	.012	-.043	-.022	.002
Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	.294	.068	.033	.000	.008	.001	.001

	Social Change Behaviors	Gender	African American/Black	American Indian/Alaska Native	Asian American/Asian	Latino/Hispanic	Multiracial
Pre-college: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	.367	.070	.068	.013	.039	.046	.038
Doctoral	-.001	.002	-.012	-.006	.013	.038	.008
Masters	-.021	.046	.022	.045	-.062	.011	-.001
Baccalaureate	.062	.011	-.032	-.016	-.048	-.049	-.008
Associates	-.041	.007	.070	.002	.006	.025	.005
Small	.061	.035	-.016	-.017	-.055	-.047	-.004
Medium	-.101	-.037	.024	.001	.039	.029	.000
Private	.131	.011	-.059	-.045	.012	-.006	.012
Religious	.078	.031	-.040	-.025	.004	.016	.014
College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	.515	-.013	-.009	-.013	.014	-.021	.001
College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	.284	-.014	.067	.037	.009	.015	.017
Omnibus SRLS	.369	.075	.050	.013	-.076	.016	.017
Socio-Cultural Discussions	.393	.035	.023	.022	-.028	.026	.051

	Race/ Ethnicity not included above	Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	Rather Not Say	Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	Pre-College: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	Doctoral	Masters
Social Change Behaviors	.023	.060	.009	.211	.294	.367	-.001	-.021
Gender	-.011	-.020	-.007	.095	.068	.070	.002	.046
African American/Black	-.031	.014	.016	.068	.033	.068	-.012	.022
American Indian/Alaska Native	-.017	.013	.004	.012	.000	.013	-.006	.045
Asian American/Asian	-.037	-.002	.033	-.043	.008	.039	.013	-.062
Latino/Hispanic	-.031	.020	.005	-.022	.001	.046	.038	.011
Multiracial	-.021	.020	.014	.002	.001	.038	.008	-.001
Race/ Ethnicity not included above	1.000	.000	.051	.015	.020	.037	-.006	-.006
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	.000	1.000	.494	-.030	-.019	.045	-.008	.001
Rather Not Say	.051	.494	1.000	-.009	-.005	.013	-.006	.008
Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	.015	-.030	-.009	1.000	.605	.284	.028	-.029
Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	.020	-.019	-.005	.605	1.000	.450	.027	-.046

	Race/ Ethnicity not included above	Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	Rather Not Say	Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	Pre-College: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	Doctoral	Masters
Pre-college: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	.037	.045	.013	.284	.450	1.000	.005	-.012
Doctoral	-.006	-.008	-.006	.028	.027	.005	1.000	-.236
Masters	-.006	.001	.008	-.029	-.046	-.012	-.236	1.000
Baccalaureate	.028	.002	.004	.054	.026	.001	-.150	-.357
Associates	.006	.011	.023	-.016	-.023	.000	-.036	-.086
Small	.025	.011	.012	.095	.038	.001	-.002	-.105
Medium	-.009	-.006	.001	-.030	-.044	-.030	-.093	-.278
Private	.013	-.004	-.010	.043	.076	.046	.162	-.062
Religious	.018	-.012	.000	.080	.066	.030	.300	.003
College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	.006	.017	-.008	.121	.200	.114	.002	-.047
College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	.031	-.002	.011	.249	.276	.186	.016	.018
Omnibus SRLS	-.005	.000	-.038	.193	.222	.191	.011	-.012
Socio-Cultural Discussions	.030	.051	-.009	.149	.192	.255	.006	-.037

	Baccalaureate	Associates	Small	Medium	Private	Religious	College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)
Social Change Behaviors	.062	-.041	.061	-.101	.131	.078	.515
Gender	.011	.007	.035	-.037	.011	.031	-.013
African American/Black	-.032	.070	-.016	.024	-.059	-.040	-.009
American Indian/Alaska Native	-.016	.002	-.017	.001	-.045	-.025	-.013
Asian American/Asian	-.048	.006	-.055	.039	.012	.004	.014
Latino/Hispanic	-.049	.025	-.047	.029	-.006	.016	-.021
Multiracial	-.008	.005	-.004	.000	.012	.014	.001
Race/ Ethnicity not included above	.028	.006	.025	-.009	.013	.018	.006
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	.002	.011	.011	-.006	-.004	-.012	.017
Rather Not Say	.004	.023	.012	.001	-.010	.000	-.008
Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	.054	-.016	.095	-.030	.043	.080	.121
Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	.026	-.023	.038	-.044	.076	.066	.200

	Baccalaureate	Associates	Small	Medium	Private	Religious	College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)
Pre-college: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	.001	.000	.001	-.030	.046	.030	.114
Doctoral	-.150	-.036	-.002	-.093	.162	.300	.002
Masters	-.357	-.086	-.105	-.278	-.062	.003	-.047
Baccalaureate	1.000	-.055	.590	-.314	.358	.119	.054
Associates	-.055	1.000	-.056	.153	-.125	-.083	-.055
Small	.590	-.056	1.000	-.368	.397	.334	.055
Medium	-.314	.153	-.368	1.000	-.672	-.445	-.109
Private	.358	-.125	.397	-.672	1.000	.667	.137
Religious	.119	-.083	.334	-.445	.667	1.000	.042
College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	.054	-.055	.055	-.109	.137	.042	1.000
College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	-.010	.029	.018	.029	-.034	.014	.175
Omnibus SRLS	.006	-.006	.007	-.017	.033	.024	.224
Socio-Cultural Discussions	.021	-.041	.024	-.048	.092	.045	.209

	College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	Omnibus SRLS	Socio-Cultural Discussions
Social Change Behaviors	.284	.369	.393
Gender	-.014	.075	.035
African American/Black	.067	.050	.023
American Indian/Alaska Native	.037	.013	.022
Asian American/Asian	.009	-.076	-.028
Latino/Hispanic	.015	.016	.026
Multiracial	.017	.017	.051
Race/ Ethnicity not included above	.031	-.005	.030
Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Questioning	-.002	.000	.051
Rather Not Say	.011	-.038	-.009
Pre-college: Participated in community organizations	.249	.193	.149
Pre-college: Took leadership positions in community organizations	.276	.222	.192
Pre-college: Worked with others for change to address societal problems	.186	.191	.255
Doctoral	.016	.011	.006
Masters	.018	-.012	-.037
Baccalaureate	-.010	.006	.021
Associates	.029	-.006	-.041
Small	.018	.007	.024
Medium	.029	-.017	-.048
Private	-.034	.033	.092
Religious	.014	.024	.045
College: Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)	.175	.224	.209

	College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	Omnibus SRLS	Socio-Cultural Discussions
College: Held a leadership position in an off-campus community organization(s)	1.000	.148	.106
Omnibus SRLS	.148	1.000	.405
Socio-Cultural Discussions	.106	.405	1.000

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