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COLLEGE STUDENT ACTIVISM: AN EXPLORATION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

by

Marisela Rosas

An Abstract

Of a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree
in Counseling, Rehabilitation, and Student Development
(Student Affairs Administration and Research) in
the Graduate College of
The University of Iowa

May 2010

Thesis Supervisor: Associate Professor Debora Liddell

ABSTRACT

Researchers, politicians, and the public have criticized colleges and universities for not effectively preparing college students to be active participants in their communities and within a democratic society. Institutional initiatives on civic engagement have focused on community service and service-learning initiatives to meet this demand. The existing literature, therefore, focuses on these civic engagement involvements and the outcomes associated with involvement. Little research is conducted on another form of civic engagement, activism. This study address the gap in the literature related to activism. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to identify the learning outcomes associated with student participation in activism.

Data from the Higher Education Research Institute's surveys, the 1999 Student Information Form (SIF) and the 2003 College Student Survey (CSS), were used in this study. The theoretical framework for this study was Astin's Theory of Student Involvement and the conceptual framework for this study was influenced by Pascarella's General Model for Assessing Change and Astin's Input-Environment-Output Model. The statistical analyses conducted in order to answer the research questions were multiple regression and logistic regression.

The results of this study provide some noteworthy findings that improve our understanding of activism and its effect on the learning outcomes of undergraduate students. First, students involved in activism or not involved in activism were no different when comparing demographic descriptive data (gender, modal age, college grades, etc.). Students differed in their academic course selection and out-of-class involvements. Secondly, characteristics positively predicting involvement in activism

were male, African-American or Latino, involved in leadership training and racial/ethnic student organizations, who experienced high faculty support, and who enrolled in ethnic and women's studies' courses. Thirdly, student with high socio-political influence scores were associated with positive growth in all four of the learning outcomes, while student involvement in demonstrations was associated with positive growth in only two of the learning outcomes: humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application. Finally, the conditional analysis conducted to determine if different students (e.g., female and male, and White and Latino, African American, etc.) experience differently the effects of involvement in activism on the learning outcomes found: (a) conditional effects existed for males and females for the learning outcome humanitarianism and (b) no conditional effects existed for students of different racial/ethnic groups.

This examination of specific learning outcomes associated with activism offers student affairs professionals and higher education scholars and policy-makers a better understanding of what students gain from their activism. In addition, the results of this study contribute to the body of knowledge on the role of college involvements in developing an action-oriented citizen.

Abstract Approved: _____
Thesis Supervisor

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Title and Department

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requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree
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May 2010

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Graduate College
The University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

_____

PH.D. THESIS

_____

This is to certify that the Ph.D. thesis of

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To my family with all my love and devotion

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I am so fortunate to have been raised in a loving household with parents and siblings as wonderful friends. I am indebted to my parents whose hard work and sacrifices to give us a life filled with opportunities are never forgotten. And to Melissa and Daniel, you are my best friends. I am extremely proud of who you have turned out to be.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Colleges and universities are increasingly more engaged in conversations to refocus and educate students on becoming active citizens within local, national, and global communities (Chickering & Stamm, 2002; Hurtado, Engberg, Ponjuan, & Landreman, 2002; Schneider, 2001). Influenced by public accountability from various stakeholders (public officials, trustees, parents), a changing economy from industrial-based to knowledge-based, and a more interconnected global world, university presidents and professional organizations want to engage students in issues of social change and social responsibility (Association of American Colleges and Universities [hereafter cited as AACU], 2002; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003). Ropers-Huilman, Carwile, Lee, and Barnett (2003) state:

> Higher education, as an important social institution, is directly related to social justice in that it prepares people for increased roles in decision-making and helps to provide them with resources to distribute at will, thereby enabling them to become agents of change if they so desire. (p. 5)

The range of activities institutions have used to increase civic engagement and civic responsibility include: student initiatives (e.g., community service through student clubs), changes in curricula (e.g., service-learning classes, community-based learning, experiential learning, first-year programs, learning communities, capstone experiences), and establishment of administrative/academic units with an outreach mission (Thomas, 2000). Other student initiatives around civic engagement have included student activism (Braungart & Braungart, 1991; Fendrich & Lovoy, 1988; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Marwell, Aiken, & Demarath, 1987; McAdam, 1989; Sherkat

& Blocker, 1997). Student activists, after all, are also experimenting with engagement and participation within a democracy on college campuses.

Institutions committed to civic education may be able to assist students in making relevant connections between their activism and their roles as citizens within a democracy. The interests and issues of student activists have often spoken to the larger concerns of society. As higher education moves toward renewing its commitment to civic engagement, citizenship, and education in democracy, understanding the learning outcomes emerging from involvement in activism will help develop civically responsible citizens.

Statement of the Problem

Since the late 20th century, researchers, politicians, and the public have criticized institutions of higher education for not preparing college students to actively participate in their communities and within a democratic society (AACU, 2002; Boyer, 1987; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Kellogg Commission, 1999; Newman, 1985). Newman (1985) states, "If there is a crisis in education in the United States today, it is less that test scores have declined than it is that we have failed to provide the education for citizenship that is still the most significant responsibility of the nation's schools and colleges" (p. 31). Colleges and universities responded by making a stronger commitment to community service programs and the development of a service-learning pedagogy (Colby et al., 2003; Long, 2002; Ward, 1996). These initiatives intended to engage students within their communities and facilitate students' developmental growth while in college. The expectation from the public, institutions of higher education, and politicians is that civic engagement may be a good habit that takes hold during college and continues

well into adulthood (Boyte & Kari, 2000; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, Rosner, & Stephens, 2000; Colby et al., 2003; Newman, 1985).

Indeed, institutions' focus on community service programs has worked well for today's student population at the local level. Students are participating in community service initiatives at record numbers (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Blackhurst & Foster, 2003; Farrell, 2006; Primavera, 1999; Rhoads, 1998a). One of the reasons local community service attracts students is that students "can make direct connections and experience feedback that reassures them that their actions have a meaningful impact" (Long, 2002, p.5). Involvement in community service provides students an almost immediate sense of contribution to community and the belief that they can best effect change by their local commitments to community (Colby et al., 2003; Dreier, 1998; Levine & Cureton, 1998b; Long, 2002; Schlumpf, 2001).

Student involvement in local issues and service plays a role in establishing a sense of empowerment in students' ability to produce change. Levine and Cureton (1998b) found that 73% of undergraduates believed that an individual could produce societal change. Prime examples are the student divestment movement in the 1980s and the anti-sweatshop movement in the 1990s. The students involved in the 1980s divestment movement put pressure on their universities to divest their endowments from companies doing business in South Africa. In the 1990s, students put similar pressure on their universities to do business with companies that participate in fair labor practices (Longo & Meyer, 2006). As a result of this student activism, how universities invest their money and engage in labor practices have changed (Blumenstyk, 2006; Fain, 2006; Field, 2006; Strout, 2006).

Through service, students realize social issues are not just indicative of problems at the local level but are symptomatic of problems at the global level (Schlumpf, 2001). For example, Duke University President Nannerl Keohane in 1999 stated that the anti-sweatshop movement experienced on the Duke campus resulted directly from students' community service (Greenhouse, 1999). As a result of their service, students developed a sense of personal responsibility that led them to protest against unfair labor practices. Not surprising then is research which finds that an increase in student community service and social engagement is followed by student unrest (Levine & Hirsch, 1991). To participate within a democracy, this current generation of college and university students is going beyond conventional means of voting and connecting with political leaders, and choosing to engage in community service (Long, 2002; Sax, 2004) and activism (Longo & Meyer, 2006).

Historically, activism is on the increase. During the late 1960s, 28% of college students reported participating in a demonstration. In the late 1970s, participation had dropped to 19%. By the early 1990s, participation in demonstrations had risen to 25%, almost to the level of the 1960s, the height of student protests (Levine & Cureton, 1998a). While, students are just as involved in activism today as they were in the 1960s the nature of their activism has changed (Dreier, 1998). Today's student activists do not use tactics of the 1960s (such as staging sit-ins, or taking over buildings) to the same degree (Hamilton, 2003; Levine & Cureton, 1998b), and their interests are more diverse than those of students in the past (Dreier, 1993; Hamilton, 2003; Rhoads, 1997b). Some current issues that interest student activists include: anti-sweatshops, homelessness, identity politics, environmental issues, immigration, and free and fair trade agreements

within the international community. Many of these issues are extensions of the concerns of student activists of the 1960s (Rhoads, 1998a), as students are still concerned with human rights, social justice, and global connectedness. Student activism around these issues has lead to recent changes in college policies.

In addition to affecting their communities, students' involvement in activism may influence student development outcomes. Astin (1993a) found that students who were involved in protest activities had a stronger commitment to the environment, and developed a philosophy of life, "growth in artistic interests and leadership abilities, aspirations for advanced degrees, and increased chances of voting in a presidential election" (Astin, 1993a, p.48).

Students involved in activism on their college campuses also have the opportunity to be involved in and demonstrate their commitment to social change (Bickford & Reynolds, 2002; Ropers-Huilman, Carwile, & Barnett, 2003). These students challenge, work, and struggle not only with democratic processes and principles but also with their own values (Colby et al., 2003).

Participation in activism can have long-term effects on students. Student activism in college tends to be more than an involvement happening in a single and isolated period. Studies conducted on student activists of the 1960s showed that those involved in activism were more likely to remain active in their adult years (Braungart & Braungart, 1991; Cole, Zucher, & Ostrove, 1998; Fendrich, 1977; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Hoge & Ankeny, 1982; McAdam, 1989; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). As adults, they remained active in a variety of social movements and maintained the social networks that sustained their involvement in movements (McAdam, 1989).

Purpose of the Study

Research is lacking on the learning outcomes associated with student activism as a particular aspect of civic engagement. The purpose of this study is to identify the learning outcomes associated with student participation in activism. Specifically:

1. Who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college?
2. What characteristics (of students, of high school activities, of institutions) predict involvement in activism?
3. What are the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence after controlling for background characteristics, precollege characteristics, institutional characteristics, and college academic and nonacademic experiences?
4. Are the learning outcomes associated with activism the same for all students or do they differ for students with different background characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity)?

The results of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge on the role of activism in the lives of students. Additionally, these results will assist institutions and institutional agents to better serve and understand these student activist perspectives. Understanding the learning outcomes associated with activism can also have policy and program implications. Colleges can better understand how to create opportunities for students to voice their political and social concerns.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions will be used for the purpose of this study while the learning outcomes used in this study will be defined later in Chapter 2:

Civic Engagement in this study is defined as:

> Working to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting quality of life in a community, through both political and nonpolitical processes (Ehrlich, 2000, p. vi).

Civic engagement is an all-encompassing term for political or non-political activities by individuals or groups of individuals to improve community and may include community service, voting, service-learning, and activism. In this study, community service, service-learning, and activism are all types of civic engagement activities.

Civic Responsibility means "active participation in the public life of a community in an informed, committed, and constructive manner, with a focus on the common good" (Gottlieb & Robinson, 2006, p.16)

Community Service "denotes a particular form of voluntary action in which individuals and groups donate time and effort to benefit others" (Serow & Dreyden, 1990, p. 554). In addition, community service is described as "an immersion experience wherein one works with, rather than for, an individual or group" (Neururer & Rhoads, 1998, p. 321).

Activism can be "violent or peaceful, noisy or quiet actions taken by groups of people, some small and some huge, [in] attempts to alter society according to the desires of those taking action" (Jordan, 2002, p.8). Activists "desire, demand, and work for change" (Jordan, 2002, p.12) and "includes forms of political behavior that extend beyond voting and include occupationally relevant social action" (Epstein & Reeser, 1990, p.35). For the purpose of this study, activism is defined as involvement in demonstrations, where

demonstration is the “public display of a group feelings toward a person and cause” (Merriam-Webster, 2009) and there is a strong commitment to involvement in political and social changes towards a social justice means.

Involvement is the "amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (Astin, 1999, p. 518).

Social movements, defined by McAdam and Snow (1997), are characterized by collective or joint action, have change-oriented goals, and have some degree of organization. The types of changes movements seek to pursue require sustained organized activity. Examples of social movements are the civil rights movement and anti-war movement.

Biographical consequences of activism are defined as the effect participation in activism has on the life course events of individuals (Giugni, 2004), such as the political, marital, and occupational aspects of an activist’s life.

Biographical availability is defined “as the absence of personal constraints that may increase the costs and risks of movement participation, such as full-time employment, marriage, and family responsibilities” (McAdam, 1986, p. 70).

Structural availability refers to “the presence of interpersonal networks that facilitate recruitment to activism” (Schussman & Soule, 2005, p. 1086).

Summary

Much research exists on the involvements of students in civic engagement initiatives, such as service learning and community service programs. There is, however, a gap in the student affairs literature on the involvement of students in activism. Chapter 2 explores the involvements of students in civic engagement as well as an exploration of

the literature necessary to understand college student activism and the learning that occurs in activism. Literature exploring college student involvement in civic engagement, learning outcomes associated with student civic engagement, and current student activism will also be examined. This review will provide insight into current research and highlight where research is lacking.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study examines the impact of college activism on learning. To better understand the context of this study, this chapter provides a brief history of student activism focused on social justice in the United States, reviews the learning outcomes related to civic engagement and activism, and provides the theoretical and conceptual framework for this study. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the need for further research on student activism.

A brief history of activism will provide a context to inform the reader of the types of issues around which students have mobilized during two distinct periods of student activism, the 1930s and 1960s. Briefly discussed during each time period are the reasons these student movements emerged and the tactics used. Also addressed are the influence that student activism has had on society.

History of Student Activism

Throughout the history of American higher education, students have not been strangers to activism in one form or another. Most student protests in the nineteenth century dealt with grievances against peers, faculty, and administrators (Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Brax, 1981; Horowitz, 1986). The issues of concern to students did not revolve around a single ideology or with national politics. Students were not interested in changing society, nor were their political differences or ideologies different from those of their teachers and college administrators (Brax, 1981, DeConde, 1971). The student body at that time was homogenous in ethnicity, social standing, and values. Since students did not have varying political or ideological differences, they were likely to accept the status

quo and view college as the means to prepare themselves to be leaders within society (Brax, 1981).

Hence, typical protests of the day were local. While students may not have been involved in national issues, locally students attempted to increase their representation in university decision-making processes. Students most often protested against authority figures such as the college president, or with town residents (Brax, 1981; Lipset, 1971). In the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, protests revolved around two particular issues, *in loco parentis* and the removal of unpopular college presidents (Brax, 1981; Wood, 1974). College administrators operated under the doctrine of *in loco parentis*, whereby "the college would assume the parental role over the student" (Melear, 2003, p. 127). Students' rights to due process in both academic and non-academic manners were not guaranteed. While students at that time were criticized by the public for their apathy and lack of interest and involvement in national politics (Brax, 1981), there was activism around local and personal issues such as establishing freedom of expression and speech on campus and fighting against the censorship of campus newspapers (Altbach, 1979; Altbach & Peterson, 1971). In working on issues related to *in loco parentis*, a collective identity and consciousness developed among students (Lipset, 1971).

Historians characterized the students of the 1920s as politically inactive and "basically a conservative time for college students…[and] dominated by the 'rah-rah college boy and girl' (Brax, 1981, p.5). However, the college population was beginning to change. The students of the 1920s were politically conservative and uninterested in

politics, while culturally and socially rejecting social conventions and values (Braungart & Braungart, 1990).

The 1920s also saw “a period of rapid expansion of higher education—the proportion of youth attending college rose from 4% in 1900 to 12% at the end of the twenties” (Altbach & Peterson, 1971, p.5). The idea that college was only for the elite was changing (Lipset, 1971). The increase in student population brought students from more diverse backgrounds and views into contact with one another. The increasing college population not only provided a larger proportion of students to mobilize during the 1930s, but also a more diverse population. Although little has been written about the characteristics of students involved in the 1930s student movement beyond their liberal political leanings, Cohen (1993) found that activists from this period came from families that valued activism and social justice. Many of their parents and grandparents were activists and immigrants who leaned towards the left politically. In the end, researchers described the students of the 1930s as “more serious-minded, socially aware, and politically liberal than their predecessors” (Brax, 1981, p. 57).

Not until the 1930s did students begin to organize into large groups interested in national politics (Altbach, 1974; Altbach, 1979; Altbach & Peterson, 1971; Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Obear, 1970; Rhoads, 1998a). During this time, the United States experienced an economic depression and changes in international politics such as rising fascism in Europe and an impending threat of war (Altbach, 1979; Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Brax, 1981; Cohen, 1993). Concern about the threat of war resulted in the emergence of the first recognized student movement within the United States (Altbach, 1979; Brax, 1981; Kerr, 1970; Petrosino, 2001). The student movement of the

1930s was different from isolated incidents of student activism in the past in a variety of ways. Students of the 1930s were involved in collective action, had change-oriented goals, had a degree of organization, and had a degree of temporal continuity--which are all characteristics of social movements (McAdam & Snow, 1997).

However devastating the American economy at the time, students of the 1930s did not organize around the Depression. These students were less concerned with the Depression because of a belief that the existing institutional structures would effectively take care of the economy (Brax, 1981). This attitude reflected the middle and upper class socioeconomic standing of college students of the day (Altbach, 1979). Students, therefore, focused their efforts on international politics and the student movement focused on anti-war campaigns (Altbach & Peterson, 1971). Many Americans, including students, had bitter feelings and regrets towards the United States' involvement in World War I, and many blamed the coming threat of World War II on this country's involvement in World War I (Brax, 1981). Until then, American foreign policy could be described as isolationist. Upon entering World War I, Americans were told that this war would make the world safe for democracy (Lipset, 1971).

Students did not want to enter another war without purpose; more importantly, they did not want to risk their lives in battle. Initially, student war protests occurred independently from the influence of national organizations. Tapping into the protest interests of students, national student organizations such as the National Student League and Student League for Industrial Democracy later spread activism throughout the country (Altbach & Peterson, 1971; Brax, 1981). Examples of student protest activities spreading from California to New York included boycotts of Japanese products, traveling

peace caravans, calls for the creation of Peace Departments, and student conventions for peace (Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Brax, 1981; Cohen, 1993; Rudy, 1996). In addition to student protests against the war, students also demonstrated about free speech, *in loco parentis*, and anti-ROTC programs on campus (Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Cohen, 1993; Rudy, 1996). In addition, students also began protesting for Black civil rights (Cohen, 1993).

During this time, racial discrimination and segregation were widespread, accepted, and legally enforced on college campuses and throughout society. Student leaders openly "criticized the racial discrimination of the North and the Jim Crow system of the South" (Cohen, 1993, p. 205). Student activists pressured the government and college officials for better treatment of Black students on their campuses. The commitment of racial equality was reflective in the student movement's social composition. Black students were leaders in the National Student League and the Student League for Industrial Democracy (Cohen, 1993). The student activists of this time did not end segregation, but they did highlight the racial inequality in society and the need for a true egalitarian society.

The student movement of the 1930s lasted from 1930-1941 and essentially ended when the U.S. entered World War II. The student movement of the 1930s demonstrated that students were not politically apathetic and that they were able to organize. In addition, the movement also supplied the tactics later activists would use and build upon in the 1960s. More importantly, the student protestors of the 1930s became parents of the 1960s student protesters and were also political leaders during the 1960s (Altbach & Peterson, 1971; Brax, 1981; Laufer & Light, 1977; Lipset, 1971).

Historians described the 1940s and ’50s as a period of apathy for college campuses, similar to the description of the 1920s, the period before the 1930s student movement (Kerpelman, 1972; Obear, 1970; Rhoads, 1998a). Students in the 1950s were “career-oriented, politically conservative, and uninvolved in social issues” (Braungart & Braungart, 1990, p. 96). In the 1960s, students began to actively respond to the current issues of the civil rights movement, free speech, and the threat of expanding the Vietnam War (Braungart & Braungart, 1990; Kerr, 1970; Rhoads, 1997a).

College campuses became an ideal location for such activism to occur. During the 1960s, there was increased access to higher education brought about by the G.I. Bill (Foley & Foley, 1969; Heineman, 2001; Kerr, 1970; Laufer & Light, 1977). The increase in access to higher education meant not only that students had an increased opportunity to attend college, but also to engage with a more diverse student body. Students also had more opportunities to become members of multiple student cultures and organizations within their universities. Colleges and universities became centers where students could meet and exchange ideas. Students were encouraged to question established beliefs and seek meaningful professions (Kerr, 1970). They found their parents and churches more permissive than those of previous generations, and peers took on more importance in their development of beliefs and values (Kerr, 1970). Indicative of this newfound freedom was the dismantling of *in loco parentis* during this time, both legally and as a matter of tradition.

The student protests of the 1960s began with the civil-rights movement (Laufer & Light, 1977). Specifically, student protests began in 1960 with the organized sit-in of four Black students from North Carolina A & T at a segregated lunch counter (Horowitz,

1986; Obear, 1970; Rudy, 1996). Following this lead, Black college students throughout the South began their own sit-ins and marches, picketing and boycotting against segregation and discrimination. In 1964, White college students from northern and Midwestern states were actively recruited to assist in civil rights efforts in the South through the Freedom Summer campaign of 1964 by registering Black voters and staffing Freedom schools (Horowitz, 1986; McAdam, 1986).

The recruitment of White students into the civil rights movement exposed White students to a variety of tactics of civil disobedience later used at their home campuses (Horowitz, 1986; Laufer & Light, 1977; Rhoads, 1998a). The tactics of civil disobedience taken from the civil rights movement included sit-ins, teach-ins, mass demonstrations, and effective use of extended student networks (Obear, 1970; Rudy, 1996). Student activists during the 1960s protested and voiced their concerns on a number of issues that included student involvement in university decision-making, U.S. foreign-policy, specifically the Vietnam War, and free speech on campus (Heineman, 2001; Peterson, 1970; Rhoads, 1998a; Rudy, 1996; Simon, 1980).

The dismantling of *in loco parentis* during this time highlights the powerful impact of the 1960s student movement. At a time of increased student protests on many college campuses, administrators disciplined students by dismissing them from school. A turning point in ending legally sanctioned *in loco parentis* came in 1961, when students were expelled from Alabama State College for their participation in a civil-rights protest. The expelled students were not informed of the reason behind their dismissal and claiming their “due process rights” had been denied took legal action. Ultimately, their case was heard by the United States Supreme Court, which decided in their favor. As a

result of the decision in *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education*, students at public institutions were extended the rights of due process guaranteed in the Fourteenth Amendment (Melear, 2003). As a result, students for the first time were viewed as legal adults.

Another lasting impact and accomplishment of the 1960s student movement was the impact it had on the attitudes of U.S. society (Altbach, 1979; Altbach, 1989; Gitlin, 1997). The more liberal attitudes of college students towards civil rights, abortion, marriage, and drugs ultimately spread across society (Altbach, 1989). The 1960s movement also brought about some improvements in the treatment of Blacks, women, and gays and lesbians (Altbach, 1979; Astin, 1998; Gitlin, 1997; Horowitz, 1986). Colleges and universities developed curricula and support programs dedicated to women and Black studies (Altbach, 1979; Horowitz, 1986). Heineman (2001) argues that the 1960s protests contributed to a change in the moral values of many Americans, and to a decline in the authority of schools, government, press, family, and church. An example of the decline and challenge to authority were the concessions in free speech and student rights made by universities and colleges (Rhoads, 1998a). Ultimately, the student activists of the 1960s, similar to the activists of the 1930s, demonstrated once again that they could have an impact on national politics, attract media attention, and mobilize large groups of students.

The student movement of the 1960s declined in the early 1970s. Altbach and Cohen (1990) provide a number of reasons for why the student movement of the 1960s declined. The Vietnam War, a factor that mobilized large numbers of students, slowly came to an end by 1975. The economy changed in the 1970s (Altbach & Cohen, 1990;

Rhoads, 1998a; Rudy, 1996). With high levels of unemployment and inflation, students began worrying about the job market and choosing majors with favorable job prospects, such as business and science majors. In addition, some students distanced themselves from movements that involved more violent means. The American political climate also changed, moving to the conservative right; an environment where liberal ideas could flourish no longer existed for students. Therefore, the 1970s and 1980s, while having small spurts of student activism, did not reach the levels of student activism of the 1960s. Since the 1960s, every student movement has carried the burden of being compared to the accomplishments of that period (Altbach & Cohen, 1990; Rhoads, 1998a).

This brief overview of the history of American college activism ended with the student movements of the 1960s, and displayed the far-reaching influences and important role of student activism in U.S. history. The following section will provide a view of the current issues and concerns for students, as well as tactics used by today's student activists.

Prevalence and Type of Activism Today

In interviews of student affairs professionals, student body presidents, newspaper editors, and small focus groups conducted on 28 campuses across the U.S. from 1993-95, Levine and Cureton (1998b) found that 93% of the campuses had experienced campus unrest. While protest participation did not rise to the levels of the 1960s, there was an increase of involvement over the last decade. Levine and Cureton (1998a) found that the protest participation level of college students in the early 1990s increased almost to the levels of the 1960s. During the late 1960s, 28% of college students reported participating in a demonstration. In the late 1970s, participation dropped to 19%. By the early 1990s,

participation in demonstrations had increased to 25% (Levine & Cureton, 1998b). The two primary issues of concern for students in the Levine and Cureton (1998b) study were multiculturalism (sexual orientation, civil rights, and gender equity) and the rising costs of college. Campus unrest was campus-based and not externally influenced.

Each year the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) conducted by the Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA examines trends of first-year college students through an annual survey disseminated to participating institutions. Institutions of higher education who participate must pay a fee for the survey and is considered eligible if the institution "admits first time freshmen and [are] granting a baccalaureate-level degree or higher listed in the Opening Fall Enrollment (OFE) file of the files of the U.S. Department of Education's Higher Education General Information Survey" (HERI, 2005, p. 118). CIRP publishes "The American Freshman" which provides national norms on attitudes and behaviors. In addition, CIRP data looks at first-year students' pre-college participation in activities and at their anticipated participation while in college.

The 2005 data of entering first-year students points to an increasing commitment to social and civic responsibilities (HERI, 2005). While CIRP data does not directly ask questions on activism, the CIRP survey does ask questions on community service. The responses to these questions are important as historically high levels of community service are followed by student activism (Levine & Hirsch, 1991). Approximately 83.2% of entering first-year students in 2005 reported at least occasionally engaging in community service in their senior year in high school. These results are a record high. In 1989, 66% of incoming first-year students reported frequent or occasional community service work compared to 82.6% in 2001 (HERI, 2001). Of the incoming first-year

students in 2005, 67.3% believed they would participate in community service while in college. In addition to directly helping others through service, more students today report valuing the importance of becoming community leaders, participating in community action programs, and influencing social values than in the past (HERI, 2005).

The recent trends in first-year students' behaviors and attitudes also indicate the potential for an increase in acts of dissent and demonstrations as acts of activism. As stated earlier, history has shown high levels of community service work and social engagement are followed by student unrest (Levine & Hirsch, 1991). In addition, the beliefs and attitudes of today's first-year students also point to a possible increase in protests. Approximately 63% of students agreed "dissent is a critical component of the political process" and 49.7% reported that they had participated in an organized demonstration during high school (HERI, 2005). This was the highest percentage in the CIRP's forty-year history. First-year students are entering college with previous civic engagement and they seem ready to continue their engagement in college.

Once students enter college, there seems to be a difference in how student activists and volunteers view community service. For student activists, involvement in service activities is the training ground needed to become social change agents, while community service participants view their involvement as a means to connect with an issue locally (Heffernan, 1992). Not surprising then is the research finding that 26% of students volunteering in college are involved in protest activities, while 81% of college student protesters have also volunteered in college (Hirsch, 1993). Student activists seem not only interested in serving others, but also in making social, cultural, and political changes.

More recent examples of student activist interests around social justice include anti-sweatshops, Darfur genocide, immigration, and free and fair-trade agreements with the international community. As in the past, students continue to work on human rights, and all of these issues focus around humanitarian issues that are less likely to split students along political lines (Stancill, 2006). The collective effort of student activism has resulted in successes. There are countless examples available within the last couple of years across U.S. college and university campuses.

In 2006, students at Michigan State University, DePaul University, Harvard University, Indiana University, and the University of Illinois-Urbana Champaign demonstrated against Coca Cola's questionable labor practices in Columbia and environmental damage in India (Walters, 2006). These student protesters were part of a nationwide college movement to have Coca-Cola removed from the campuses. After protests at the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor, New York University, and Swarthmore College, administrators decided to stop selling Coca-Cola products (Walters, 2006).

In October 2006, students at various colleges in North Carolina (University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina-Greensboro, Elon University, and Duke University) and other campuses across the United States participated in fasts, writing campaigns to government officials, teach-ins, and fundraising to highlight the genocide in Darfur (Stancill, 2006). Driven by student activism, colleges and universities throughout the country are also divesting from companies doing business in Sudan (Blumenstyk, 2006; Fain, 2006; Field, 2006; Strout, 2006). The list of colleges and universities adopting divestment polices in Darfur are growing rapidly and includes

University of Pennsylvania, Princeton University, Williams College, and Harvard University (Strout, 2006).

Evident from the recent examples of student activism, the protest tactics students use today are less disruptive than those used in the past. Building takeovers, strikes, and destruction of property as tactics are not used in the same numbers as they were in the 1960s (Hamilton, 2003; Levine & Cureton, 1998b). Although campus activism is on the rise, the peaceful tactics hide the strength of this current reality. Protests and demonstrations occur with administrators' knowledge that they are occurring (Levine and Cureton, 1998b; Urrieta, 2004). The protest, as a tactic, carries little surprise, therefore garnering little media attention. For example, police are present because students need to file necessary permits in order to protest publicly. The protest-by-permit is indicative of the influence on policies and procedures that the 1960s activists have enacted.

Today demonstrations, petitions, and educational activities such as teach-ins are the reliable and dependable tactics of choice by students (Levine & Cureton, 1998b). New tactics are also emerging, such as e-mail distributions and organized boycotts and buycotts made using informed consumer purchasing decisions. A study by the Institute of Politics at Harvard University found that 30% of students surveyed had written an e-mail in support of a political cause, and 36% had signed a petition online (Institute of Politics, 2005). Students are extending their networks beyond their local group of friends and peers and reaching across the country.

Students are also coming together to use their purchasing power to influence companies and their colleges and universities. As noted in the protests mentioned above, consumer tactics have successfully influenced a change in buying practices by not only

students but also their colleges and universities. Student consumer tactics include wearing wristbands or t-shirts with a political message or cause and boycotting companies. The emergence of these types of tactics is linked to the new consumerism mentality of today's students (Levine & Cureton, 1998b). Students are using their purchasing power to influence the companies they patronize, and are using this power to garner high-profile successes. As consumers, "college students can exert tremendous influence on businesses" (Walters, 2006, p. A30). For example, students from twenty colleges and universities began the "Boot the Bell" campaign. In protest of the wages earned by Florida laborers who picked tomatoes used by Taco Bell, students successfully removed the Taco Bell franchise from their campuses. After four years of a nationwide boycott, Taco Bell increased the wages of the laborers by one cent for a pound of tomatoes (Beckel, Dembosky, Macabasco, Mooallem, & Stein, 2005). While not a seemingly big increase in wages, the raise did amount to a 75% increase in wages for the farm laborers (Coalition of Immokalee Workers, 2005). Students effectively demonstrated their consumer power to act to improve the conditions of wage laborers.

Students are also engaging in the democratic process. Students are continuing to participate in elections as a continued demonstration that they care deeply about their community and their country (Institute of Politics, 2009). The extensive voter outreach conducted by young college student volunteers during the 2008 elections lead to record voter turnout by young people. An estimated 22 million people under 30 voted in the 2008 elections (Kirby & Kawashima-Ginsberg, 2009). The 2008 election was the third highest turnout rate among young people since the voting age was lowered to 18 years of

age. In addition, young African Americans had the highest turnout rate of any racial or ethnic group since 1972 ((Kirby & Kawashima-Ginsberg, 2009).

The previous section provided a brief history of recent student activism, illustrating college students' impact on changing cultural, social, political, and economic inequalities within our society. Activist students have had the opportunity to be involved in and demonstrate a commitment to social change, as well as working and struggling with democratic processes and principles. For these students, engaging in activism is their way of engaging civically within their communities. In addition to the contributions student activists made to their communities, their involvement in activism also contributes to personal learning and growth. The next section will provide an overview of results associated with two types of civic engagement popular among college students—community service and activism.

Civic Engagement: An Overview

The development of well-informed citizens has long been a goal and mission of institutions of higher education within the United States (Newman, 1985; Pascarella, Ethington, & Smart, 1988; Rudolph, 1990; Sax, 2000). Over the last few decades, colleges and universities have been criticized for the lack of attention paid to developing civically responsible students (AACU, 2002; Boyer, 1987; Colby et al., 2003; Kellogg Commission, 1999; Newman, 1985). Colleges and universities have responded to this criticism by providing a wide range of activities, such as making curricular changes (e.g. first-year programs, service-learning classes, capstone experiences), encouraging student community service participation, and establishing administrative/academic units with

outreach missions (Thomas, 2000). The wide range of activities provided echoes the advice Sax (2000) gave to colleges and universities to increase civic engagement:

> The message to institutions is to provide a wide variety of opportunities for student involvement, particularly in ways that expose students' to a diversity of people and issues. The more involved and connected students become during college, the more likely they will seek out forms of involvement in their communities after college. (p.16)

Presidents of colleges and universities, along with faculty and student affairs administrators, not only believe that college civic engagement will lead to increased participation after college, but also that college civic engagement impacts student developmental and academic growth (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005; Sax, 2000).

Participation in community service and student activism are only two types of civic engagement activities among a range of activities. Because the most popular form of civic engagement for college youth is community service, research on civic engagement has revolved around growth associated with participation in community service. Most of the literature associated with college student activism has been in the discipline of sociology. Therefore, the review of research is divided into two sections. The first provides a review of research on the outcomes associated with community service involvement. The second section of the review focuses on the outcomes associated with college student participation in activism.

Outcomes from Community Service

Strong evidence indicates that college student community service increased in the late 1980s to early 1990s (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Blackhurst & Foster, 2003; Primavera, 1999; Rhoads, 1998a). Student community service participation continues to rise as evidenced by data collected by The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at

the University of California-Los Angeles. HERI reported in 2005 that 70.6% of entering first-year students reported that they had participated in community service in high school on a weekly basis. Of these students, 67.3% predicted they would be involved in community service in college (Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Lindholm, Korn, & Mahoney, 2005). While the number of students continuing to be engaged in service from high school to college decreases, a significant number of students do continue their community service participation. Campus Compact, a coalition of 950 college campuses committed to promoting public and community service in higher education for civic purposes, annually conducts a survey of its member institutions. The results show an increase over time of students' involvement in community service on campus. Approximately 40% of students at member campuses spend on average 4 hours a week in service (Campus Compact, 2004). When compared to data from 2001, these figures in 2005 reflect a 33% increase in student-dedicated time to service.

While community service has widely been discussed as a tool in developing undergraduate students as engaged citizens (Kezar, 2002; Perry & Katula, 2001; Rhoads, 1998b; Sax, 2004; Serow, 1990), little research has examined the outcomes associated with service involvement. Much of the literature regarding community service focuses on the motivations of college students involved in community service (Fitch, 1987; Jones & Hill, 2003; Marotta & Nashman, 1998; Sergent & Sedlacek, 1990; Serow, 1990, 1991; Serow, Ciechalski, & Daye, 1990; Trudeau & Devlin, 1996; Winniford, Carpenter, & Grider, 1995) and these students' demographic characteristics such as gender, socioeconomic status, and ethnic background (Fitch, 1987; Fitch, 1991; Serow & Dreyden, 1990; Winniford et al., 1995). While an exploration of the demographic

characteristics and the motivations of students involved in community service may be helpful to educators this is beyond the scope of this study and is therefore not included here.

Much of the research conducted has also been on service learning (e.g. Batchelder & Root, 1994; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Morton, 1995). Service learning pedagogy is "a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote learning and development" (Jacoby & Associates, 1996, p. 5). Students engage in service as a required part of a course, whereas this study is interested in student outcomes impacted by out-of-classroom activism involvement. Therefore, only reviews of studies that examine the learning outcomes associated with out-of-classroom service are included below.

Research focusing on the fostering of civic responsibility in volunteers is more widely studied that any other form of civic engagement. Consistently, evidence from major studies overwhelmingly supports the finding that community service involvement does lead to increase in one's civic responsibility. A synthesis of the literature exploring civic development of service participants is provided below.

Researchers at the University of California's Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) conducted the major studies on service involvement. Using freshman surveys and follow-up surveys, these studies had samples that were more representative and complex research designs than did the smaller studies. Two published studies from this data examined the short-term and long-term benefits that college students gained from service participation (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999). The results of

their research suggested that service participation was positively associated with both short-term outcomes as well as more enduring outcomes, even after nine years of college service participation.

The published study from HERI by Astin and Sax (1998) examining the short-term effects of service participation had 3,450 participants from 42 institutions. Participants were drawn from five consecutive administrations of the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Survey from 1990-1994 and were followed up through the College Student Survey (CSS) in 1995. The final sample included 2,309 student service participants and 1,141 student non-service participants. Astin and Sax (1998) examined the impact of undergraduate involvement in four types of service activities related to education, human needs, environment, and public safety. The researchers specifically examined service participations' impact on three domains— civic responsibility, life skills, and educational attainment.

All of the civic responsibility outcomes were positively influenced by service participation in all four types of service. There were 12 survey items selected from the CSS to measure civic responsibility. These include student responses to their commitment to helping others in difficulty, helping to promote racial understanding, influencing social values, and influencing the political structure. The results established undergraduate service participation had positive effects on students' development of civic responsibility. Service participants showed a greater increase in: promoting racial understanding, participating in community action programs, and influencing social values. Participants also reported a stronger commitment to helping others, serving their communities, promoting racial understanding, working for nonprofit organizations, and

continuing their service work than before participating in the service activities. In addition to these gains, service participation enhanced life skills. Leadership ability, social self-confidence, self-efficacy, critical thinking, interpersonal skills, and an understanding of problems facing their communities and nation were positively influenced by service participation.

Astin and Sax (1998) in this study concluded that participation in community service positively influences students' civic responsibility, educational attainment, and life skills, and that the effects associated with service participation have shown to continue even nine years after college. To further explore the long-term effects of service participation Astin, Sax, and Avalos (1999) studied how college participation in service affected post-college development. Astin et al. (1999) found that students who participated in community service during college were associated with increases in 13 of the 18 examined outcomes including: attending graduate school, socializing with persons from different racial and ethnic groups, helping others in difficulty, promoting racial understanding, participating in community action groups and environmental cleanup groups. Five outcomes that researchers found were not associated with service participation were: satisfaction with graduate school, income, overall job satisfaction, perception of how undergraduate college prepared them for graduate school, and political leanings. In all, these results indicate that participating in service programs continues to influence behavior and attitudes beyond college. Missing in the analyses are noted differences between students of various ethnic backgrounds, gender, or by types of community service.

Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) compared service-learning and community service along eleven different outcomes known to be impacted by service participation. These outcomes include measures of values and beliefs, academics, leaders, and future plans. The researchers conducted a longitudinal comparison of students using CIRP data from the Student Information Form (SIF) from students' first year and the College Student Survey (CSS) provided four years later. Three student groups were compared: service-learning participants, community service participants, and non-service participants. The total sample was 22,236 students where 29% participated in service learning, 46% participated in community service, and 23% participated in no community service activity. The researchers did not report demographic information such as gender and ethnicity of the student participants. The results of a study determined that all eleven outcomes are positively affected by both community service and service-learning involvement. Community service though had a stronger effect than service-learning on self-efficacy and leadership outcomes.

Studies smaller in scale reached the same conclusions as did the studies mentioned above that used large CIRP datasets. Fenzel, Peyrot, Speck, and Gugerty (2003) also examined the long-term effects of undergraduate service participation on behaviors and attitudes. Specifically, they examined the extent to which college alumni--who participated in community service as undergraduates--continued to be involved as alumni. In addition, they examined the extent to which undergraduate service involvement contributed to their levels of service participation as alumni and their attitudes towards social and personal responsibility.

Fenzel et al. (2003) surveyed a sample of 314 alumni involved in community service as undergraduates and 166 alumni who were not involved in community service as undergraduates from an east coast Jesuit Catholic liberal arts college. A majority of the respondents were White (92% undergraduate service vs. 88% no undergraduate service), women (64% undergraduate service and 56% no undergraduate service), service-related professions (53% undergraduate service and 33% no undergraduate service), and were Catholic (79%). Fenzel et al. found those alumni who had participated in service as undergraduates were more likely to have participated in community service within the last year when compared to alumni who had not participated in service while undergraduates. They were also more likely to hold a service-related job and been a member of a community organization when compared to their counterparts. In addition, alumni involvement in undergraduate community service was a predictor of positive attitudes towards their personal and community responsibility to improve the welfare of disadvantaged individuals and community. Fenzel et al. concluded that participation in undergraduate service influenced civic-oriented behaviors and attitudes.

Fenzel et al. (2003) lack of inclusion of confounding variables within the methodological design points to flaws. The researchers in this study did not control for other potential factors such as socioeconomic status, pre-college ability, Jesuit mission of the institution, or other undergraduate involvements that may have contributed to the development of personal and community responsibility. Controlling for these influences is necessary. The study is also narrow in scope. Generalizations made to the overall college student population are difficult to make, due to Whites, women, and Catholics

being overrepresented in this study. While Fenzel et al. conclusion may be reasonable, limitations to their study exist.

Not all research showed a positive link between service involvement and positive growth. Berger and Milem (2002) used a smaller CIRP data sample size (441 students from six United Methodist-affiliated liberal arts colleges) and explored different outcomes than were explored in previous studies. The students in the sample participated in the 1992 CIRP freshman survey and the 1996 College Student Survey (CSS). The demographic make-up of the group was 67% female and 89% Caucasian. Their study investigated the effects of community service involvement on the development of students' "self-concept." For the purpose of this study, Berger and Milem explored three specific dimensions of self-concept: academic ability, achievement orientation, and psycho-social wellness. Community service involvement was defined as time spent by students on service, types of services engaged in by students, and students motivation for service. They identified four types of student community service involvements: academic community service, religious community service, co-curricular community service and off-campus community service.

Berger and Milem found that higher levels of involvement in community service did not have a positive effect on students' overall self-concept. This is contrary to the positive benefits associated with service involvement found by Astin et al. (1999). The lack of supporting evidence may be due to the small sample size of 441 students. In addition, there was low variability in responses found in Berger and Milem's measure of involvement in service. The mean number of hours students spent during their fourth year in service was only one hour per week. Also, how the researchers operationalized

the self-concept construct as an outcome measure of service involvement may have impacted their results. That said, the results might support the claim that the quality of involvement is more important than quantity of involvement, a claim supported by the studies reported below.

Two qualitative studies, one by Rhoads (1997a) and the other by Primavera (1999), support the idea that the quality of the student experience may be more important than how long the student is involved. In his study, Rhoads (1997a) explored how engaging in community service contributed to the development of self-identity and social responsibility. Rhoads collected data over six years at three universities: Pennsylvania State University, the University of South Carolina, and Michigan State University. Students participated in community service projects ranging from short-term to ongoing service initiatives. Rhoads found that involvement in structured community service offered opportunities for students' self-exploration and understanding of diverse others, and provided a better context on how to serve the social good.

Service participation provided students the opportunities to explore their identity and connection with others in their local and global communities. Neururer and Rhoads (1998) conducted a re-examination and re-analysis of Rhoads' (1997a) data and found additional themes emerging. The students involved in this study had limited experience with others from various ethnic and racial backgrounds. Through participation in service activities, students confronted their racial stereotypes in their work with community members. In interviews, Neururer and Rhoads found that students were naïve about race and class issues, minimized the role of differences within society, and preferred a color- and class-blind society. Neururer and Rhoads concluded that service participation for

these students was an introduction to learning about race and class issues and much more needed to be done to explore these issues.

Another qualitative study examined the learning outcomes associated with college student community service in a children's literacy program. Like Rhoads, Primavera found that through participation in service, students reported increased self-esteem, self-knowledge, and insight into potential future careers. Students also reported positive impact on their academic performance and greater connections between coursework and service, an increased understanding of social issues and inequities, and a greater understanding and appreciation of diversity. In examining the motivation behind continued student involvement, Jones and Hill (2003) found that students were more likely to continue their service involvement if they had experienced the positive outcomes listed above.

In the qualitative studies reviewed here, students self-identified the gains made by their involvement in service. The students' involvement contributed to the development of self-identity, social responsibility, and appreciation of human differences. Both the quantitative and qualitative studies demonstrated that students involved in community service learned as a result of their involvement. The quantitative and qualitative learning outcomes were similar. In short, students involved in service understand and appreciate human differences and are more civically and socially minded than they were when they first began their service.

The previous studies illustrated how students participating in service encounter new social situations and learn about their values, attitudes, and philosophies of life. Involvement in community service encourages students to be more socially/civically

responsible, more committed to racial understanding, and more empowered. The research shows that service involvement may influence students' behaviors and attitudes. The impact of their involvement also continues to influence their behavior and attitudes well beyond their undergraduate experience.

A shortcoming of the community service literature is the lack of studies examining the outcomes associated with service participation until recently. While studies have provided evidence of cognitive and civic-oriented gains, the research is limited to small sample sizes from single institutions (Boss, 1994; Fenzel, Peyrot, Speck, & Gugerty, 2003; Holzberg, Gerwitz, & Ebner, 1964; Primavera, 1999). Recent studies with better methodological designs (longitudinal, control variables, multi-institutional) are contributing to the literature on learning-related outcomes of service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). As is evidenced by the small number of studies presented, empirical evidence on the learning outcomes associated with community service participation is limited but evidence of learning outcomes associated with college student activism is even more limited.

While activism and community service are different, they are both forms of civic engagement. Important connections exist between college community service and college activism. Students who are involved in activism are often involved in community service. Hirsch (1993) found "26 percent of those who volunteer in college are also involved in protest activities; 81 percent of college protestors also volunteer in college" (p.36). Therefore, one might conclude from this one study that student activists are more likely to volunteer, than volunteers are to protest. Heffernan (1992), in studying the

motivation of students involved in community service, found that students who identified as activists viewed their involvement as a training ground for becoming social change agents, while community service participants viewed their involvement as a means to connect with an issue locally. Research by Levine and Hirsch (1991) found that increases in student volunteerism and social engagement tend to be followed by a trend of student unrest. This conclusion was based on a research study spanning the course of 14 years at five different colleges and universities and an analysis of past trends of student volunteerism and student unrest. The large numbers of students volunteering today point to an increasing social consciousness among college students laying fertile ground for activism to take root (Rhoads, 1998a).

In summary, when the body of literature on the outcomes related to community service is considered, students are changing and learning due to their service involvement. This conclusion is reassuring as students are engaged in service more than in any other type of civic engagement activity. Less known are the outcomes associated with the less studied civic engagement activity of activism. The next section will provide an overview of the outcomes associated with activism.

Outcomes of Student Activist Activity

The consequences and lasting effects from participation in activism around social justice issues have been widely studied in the field of sociology (Fendrich & Lovoy, 1988; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; McAdam, 1989; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). The outcomes of activism identified by sociologists are organized around the biographical consequences of involvement such as career choices, continued activism in adulthood, and political orientations, whereas this study is interested in identifying the learning

outcomes gained from involvement in activism. While the research in sociology does not neatly package the long-term impacts into easily identifiable learning outcomes, it does point to gains made along a variety of learning domains. For instance, sociological research has consistently demonstrated that students' experiences and participation in activism continue to influence their social, economic, and political choices well into their adult lives. Following is a summary of studies that examined the long-term post-college impact of student activism, as well as differences along gender and ethnic lines.

Post-college impact of student activism

The research on the post-college impact of student activism focuses on the student activists of the 1960s, when students voiced their concerns on a number of issues such as the civil rights movement, free speech, and anti-Vietnam protests. Some studies were longitudinal, following student activists from this period through different phases of their lives and examined the impact of their activism on their life choices.

Studies also examined if differences in biographical consequences emerged due to type of college involvement. Fendrich and Tarleau (1973) compared the political activism of former civil rights activists (n=28), student government members (n=31), and non-activist undergraduates (n=36). A total of 95 former students participated in this study. These three groups provided a cross-sectional comparison of occupational and political activities less than ten years after graduation from college. The four dependent variables selected for study were occupational choice, current political expression and behavior, political and economic opinions, and political efficacy. Differences along the dependent variables emerged between the three groups, highlighting the significant role activism plays in activists' later lives. For example, they found that former activist

concentrated in academic professions (54%) and social service and creative occupations (29%). Activists reported that they sought occupations that allowed them to match their values and beliefs with their work. Former student government leaders' occupations were concentrated in the private sector (42%), private practice of professionals such as lawyers and doctors (29%), and in academic professions (16%). Politically, the former activists self-identified themselves as "radicals" and "liberals" and continued to be involved in institutional politics and change. They were involved in a high number of organizations that focused on "attempting to reorder the priorities of the community and society." (p. 252). Specifically, 21% were members of "leftist political organizations," 11% in anti-war groups, 14% environmental groups and 11% in civil liberty groups. The ideologies and commitments activists held while in college continued to influence their occupational and political lifestyle choices well beyond their early adulthood. A glaring limitation in this study was female activists were not included, only male activists were included. In addition, the small group size under study limits generalizations.

Further illustrating the impact of activism throughout adulthood, Hoge and Ankeny (1982) examined the differences between 215 men active in political organizations (organization activists), demonstrations (demonstration activists), and non-active students ten years after their undergraduate enrollment at the University of Michigan. Demonstration and organization activists continued to be distinct from non-activists in several ways. They maintained their interest in political issues, their distrust towards social and political institutions, and their interest in local community affairs over interest in national affairs. Their involvement shifted from national to local issues.

Occupationally, organization activists were overrepresented in the human services area of government.

In their exploration of change in attitudes after the ten-year period, Hoge and Ankeny (1982) found that while in college, the activist attitudes were much more extreme when compared to the non-activists. Ten years later, the activists' attitudes were generally not as distinctive from the attitudes held by their non-activist counterparts. The former activists became more "family oriented, less critical of colleges and organized labor, more open to traditional religion, and less alarmed about the inevitability of future wars" (p. 370). Whether students were involved as demonstration or organization activists, they continued to recognize their role as citizens within their communities.

Later, McAdam (1986, 1989) conducted a number of studies on the students participating in Freedom Summer. He specifically examined the differences between the applicants who were accepted and participated in Freedom Summer (activists) and those who were accepted and did not participate in Freedom Summer (no-shows). McAdam (1986) found no-shows and activists did not differ in their attitudes and demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity, social class, region, or type of college attending). The significant difference between these two groups was their participation as civil rights activists. At the onset, these students were no different from one another.

A later study using the same student population, McAdam (1989) examined the impact of activism 20 years after student activist involvement in the civil rights movement. McAdam (1989) researched the occupational, marital, and activist histories of individuals involved in Freedom Summer (activists) and applicants accepted into Freedom Summer, but did not show-up (no-shows). McAdam's study explored the

unique contribution participation had on a students' life. Nearly 20 years after Freedom Summer, McAdam (1989) distributed a questionnaire to 212 activists and 118 no-shows.

McAdam found activists were still influenced by their past involvement in activism and there were significant differences between activists and no-shows in their work histories (occupation and income), marital histories, and current political involvement. McAdam found similar results to Fendrich & Tarleau (1973). He found activists secured jobs that allowed them to further their commitment to the values and goals of Freedom Summer (addressing ethnic, social, and economic inequalities). A disproportionate number of former activists were in the teaching and helping professions. Many also had non-traditional job histories of changing jobs more frequently. The marital histories of activists compared to no-shows also differed. Only 50% of activists by 1984 were married compared to 72% of no-shows.

Activists were also more likely to be engaged in political activism than no-shows were. After Freedom Summer, many of these activists remained "tied to networks of organizational and personal relationships that helped sustain their activism" (McAdam, 1989, p. 758). In their work and communities, activists reported using the skills, they learned during Freedom Summer to improve work conditions and address community issues in their current lives. They were more likely than no-shows to consider themselves liberal and leftist in political orientation (McAdam, 1989).

The activists from Freedom Summer "have continued not only to voice the political values they espoused during the 60s, but to act on those values as well" (McAdam, 1989, p. 757). While previous studies have found similar results to McAdam, this study represented geographic diversity, a control group, and a larger sample size not

present in other studies. In addition, McAdam followed up with the Freedom Summer activists and no-shows 20 years later, providing some understanding of the long-term impact and consequences of their involvement in activism.

Other research confirmed McAdam's (1989) findings. Sherkat and Blocker (1997) looked at how activists (anti-war, women's rights, civil rights, and student movement) and non-activists differed over time in choice of job, political affiliations, religious ties, and family structure. In the Youth Parent Socialization Panel Study (YPSPS), the first wave of data collection occurred in 1965 when the participants were high school seniors. The second data collection wave was completed in 1973 and the final collection wave was in 1982, 17 years after their high school graduation.

Unlike McAdam (1989), who focused solely on civil rights activists, Sherkat and Blocker (1997) included student activists involved in a variety of issues from the 1960s (anti-war, women's rights, civil rights, and student movement). However, like McAdam, Sherkat and Blocker (1997) controlled for socialization factors (e.g., gender, ethnicity, geographic region, political efficacy, socioeconomic status) and educational attainment found to be associated with protest involvement. Controlling for these factors allowed the researchers to assert with "more confidence that dissimilarities between activists and non-activists are related to their participation in protest movements, rather than arising from factors that precipitated movement participation or from differences in education" (Sherkat & Blocker, 1997, p. 1058).

Like McAdam, Sherkat and Blocker (1997) found that activists were still more liberal, more likely aligned with the Democratic Party, and more likely as adults to have participated in a demonstration as compared to non-activists. Activists were also more

likely to have attained additional education than non-activists, though this education did not result in higher earnings than non-activists in 1973. Interestingly, the earning gap had closed by the last data collection wave in 1982. Activists were also more likely to change jobs and hold jobs in the public sector and teaching fields. In addition, activists were less likely to be married and more prone to marry later in life. They were also less likely to have children than non-activist classmates.

Researchers of these major studies reached similar conclusions about the ways activism impacted student activists' occupational, social, and political choices later in life. While these studies provide support for a single conclusion about the long-term impact of student activism, evidence from smaller studies and single-institution studies is more mixed. For instance, Nassi (1981) compared former Berkeley free-speech activists, student government members, and non-activist students from the mid-1960s along the dimensions of moral development, occupational choice and income, political beliefs, life-style, and political activity fifteen years later in adulthood. The Berkeley free-speech activists were arrestees who had participated in the free-speech movement at the University of California-Berkeley.

Nassi used six instruments in this study including: internal-external locus of control scale, politico-economic conservatism scale, political activity scale, and Kohlberg moral judgment scale. While using a post-test only design, Nassi found that activists were overrepresented at the principled level of moral judgment in Kohlberg's (1976) stages of moral reasoning. At the principled level of moral reasoning, individuals make "a clear effort to define moral values and principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of groups or people holding these principles and apart from the

individuals' own identification with these groups" (Kohlberg, 1981, p.18). The higher levels of moral reasoning among the Berkeley activists, therefore, were not surprising. Students demonstrated willingness to risk going to jail when confronted with university policies they believed had no moral grounding (Obear, 1970; Wood, 1974).

Similar to the results from other studies, Nassi (1981) found these former activists were also more liberal and more likely to hold "radical" political orientations than were non-activists and student government members fifteen years after college. Compared to their peers, they also earned less money annually and were overrepresented in social service and creative occupations. Contradicting previous studies, Nassi (1981) determined that the Berkeley activists did not differ significantly from their peers in current political activity. Activists in other studies consistently demonstrated a higher level of political activity than did their non-activist peers. Although Nassi's study found discrepant results from other studies, the finding that activists' political convictions continue to be influenced by their previous activism even after fifteen years remains.

The post-test only design used is problematic. In using this design, Nassi (1981) used a control group (non-activists and student government members) that may not have been similar in beliefs, attitudes, and values from the onset of college entrance. There were no pretest measures to test the equivalency of these two groups and establish a baseline. In comparing these two groups on the measures, the differences between the three groups can be due to the involvement in activism or due to other reasons. The ability to make a strong claim that student participation in activism led to all of these conclusions without some controls is difficult. Without this frame of reference, the researcher is unable to conclude that activism affected their lives in certain ways. An

attitude, moral reasoning, or political orientation could have been due to another life event and not necessarily their activism.

Braungart and Braungart (1991) explored the differences between leaders of the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) and the conservative group, Young Americans for Freedom (YAF) and found similarities in the learning outcomes, political activity, and current political ideology of these two politically opposite groups. Twenty years after the students' involvement in activism, the researchers used qualitative methods by conducting life-history interviews. Former leaders of the SDS and YAF were invited to share their personal experiences, perceptions, and interpretations of life events over the course of three phases of their life: childhood-adolescent, activist, and post-1960s adulthood. There were 13 SDS leaders and 11 YAF leaders interviewed.

The leaders of both of these groups attributed individual growth and development as a result of their 1960s activism. One SDS woman stated, "Community action was a learning experience about how the world functioned and helped me define what I wanted to do in it" (Braungart & Braungart, 1991, p. 304). Participants reported that their activism allowed them to translate their ideas, values, and ideology into practice with others. As a result of their activism, these students emerged with a desire to link their activism with their occupations.

After graduation, SDS activists chose careers that allowed them opportunities to exercise their political values. They found jobs as teachers, writers, and craftspeople. YAF activists, on the other hand, were more likely to work directly in politics, were paid for being political consultants, and held political office. This may be indicative of the 1970s' and 1980s' conservative political and economic climate (Altbach & Cohen, 1990;

Rudy, 1996). There was a welcoming environment for the YAF leaders in politics. There was a rejuvenation of conservatism brought on by the election of a conservative president and an economic climate where "the scramble for wealth dominated the national scene" (Atlbach & Cohen, 1990, p. 39).

Consistent with findings from previous studies, both groups of activists still wanted to make a difference and viewed their attitudes and behaviors as different from the "mainstream's" attitudes and behaviors. They remained engaged in politics through demonstrations, interest groups, and political party affiliations. SDS and YAF activists' political views remained consistent with their younger views with only minor shifts for both groups.

While former student activists retain many of their values and attitudes, some also change over time. An earlier study by Marwell, Aiken, and Demarath (1987) illuminated the changes individuals make over time. Marwell et al. (1987) examined the political attitudes of White civil rights activists over a twenty-year period, beginning in the summer of 1965. A questionnaire was disseminated to White civil rights activists following training sessions sponsored by the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) to register Black voters in the South. A second questionnaire was completed following the completion of their work in the summer. Twenty years later, 145 out of the 223 original activists surveyed completed a third questionnaire. This follow-up questionnaire focused on attitudes towards the South and the civil rights movement, opinions on American society and politics, and various social issues (e.g., reducing poverty, providing foreign aid). While there were changes in political attitudes over time, the changes were not statistically significant. The political attitudes of former activists

moved from “extreme liberalism” towards “liberalism.” For example, over time there was a reduction in their commitment towards nonviolence--a hallmark of the civil rights movement--but they were still generally favorable towards nonviolence. The former activists reported being committed to the needs of disadvantaged groups and expressed distrust towards the federal government. This distrust may have been influenced by the American political climate of the 1980s. The climate had moved to the conservative right creating an environment where” liberal” ideas were unwelcome. The activism of their youth, regardless of political orientation or movement affiliation, provided learning experiences, a personal and collective identity, and the foundation of a stable political ideology.

Gender differences

Few studies have examined the impact of gender difference when exploring the impact of activism; however, Braungart and Braungart (1991) included the life histories of women in their exploration of Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) and Young Americans for Freedom (YAF). Women from both the SDS and YAF continued to be involved in political activities as adults twenty years after their activism. While both groups of women supported increasing the rights of women in society, SDS women were more active as leaders in the women’s movement. While YAF women were not involved in women’s rights organizations, they expressed a commitment to improving women’s rights within their families, jobs, and volunteer organizations.

In addition, both sets of women found it difficult to establish careers as adults, although the reason was different for these two groups. For the SDS women, they found it difficult finding a career that would match their political views and identity. SDS

women held a variety and number of jobs as adults. YAF women, on the other hand, told a different story. While they did not hold a variety of jobs, they did start their careers later in life. The reasons for the late entry into the work force for some included divorces and raising children while at home.

Most of the studies previously described (Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Hoge & Ankeny, 1982; McAdam, 1989; Nassi, 1981; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997) did not report on gender differences of activists as had Braungart and Braungart (1991). A generalization that all activists have similar consequences and impacts due to participation, therefore, is difficult to make. A few studies have looked at the impact of protest participation on women. Franz and McClelland (1994) conducted a longitudinal study examining both White women and White men active in protest in the 1960s. Men and women who were activists and non-activists were interviewed at the age of 31 and 41 years. Franz and McClelland (1994) interviewed them on their attitudes and values and their 1960s involvement. They also obtained demographic information and used measures of personality, values, and attitude such as the Defining Issues Test measuring Kohlberg's stages of moral development. As a result of their study, they found women activists were located at higher occupational levels than were their non-activist counterparts with similar educational backgrounds. In fact the correlation for women between income and participation in activism was positive (r=.29) and statistically significant. They also found women activists were less often married and were more likely to remain unmarried at the age of 41 than female non-activists.

In a later study, Cole, Zucher, and Ostrove (1998) examined the lives of activist and non-activist women from the University of Michigan. The women activists were

involved in a number of local and national issues (civil rights, anti-war, and women's rights) during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Women activists and non-activists were sent a questionnaire measuring demographic characteristics, political attitudes and participation, feminist consciousness, and reflections on the personal impact of their participation.

Results from the questionnaire showed that at midlife, women activists and non-activists had similar family and career lives. Both groups of women were equally likely to be married (activists=72% married vs. non-activists=83% married). The significance of this difference was not statistically significant. Activist women married slightly later in life at 26 yrs of age and non-activist women at 24 years of age. Both groups had similar levels of education and salaries. These results are contrary to those by Nassi (1981), McAdam (1989), and Sherkat and Blocker (1997) who discovered that activists had a higher level of education and earned less than their non-activist counterparts. In these studies, the researchers did not examine gender differences between male and female activists and non-activists. The participants were largely male, skewing results and limiting generalizability.

These limited studies on women and activism indicate that there are differences between women and men. The research results including women are more mixed. In the Cole et al. (1998) study, no differences in family and career lives existed among women activists and non-activists, while Franz and McClelland's study reported higher occupational attainment by women activists than by non-activist women. The noted difference in Cole et al. study is in the higher levels of political involvement by women activists. Although the results are mixed, the research points to changes occurring in the

lives of women who were activists. Additional studies and replications are needed to continue to explore gender differences and the consequences of activism along gender.

Ethnic differences

Like gender effects on activism, little is known about the effects of ethnicity on activism. Most studies conducted using the 1960s student activist population did not isolate the differences in political attitudes and involvement between ethnic groups, specifically Black and White activists from the 1960s. One exception is Fendrich's study of the biographical consequences of Black and White student civil rights activists 10 years after their involvement. Fendrich gathered data from Black and White male activists ten years after they participated in demonstrations as part of the civil rights movement, as well as Black and White student government participants and non-activists. Questionnaires mailed to activists and non-activists included items about protest behavior, political attitudes, occupational values, and general demographic information (e.g., socio-economic status, race, career choice, graduate education, etc.).

Differences were found between these two groups around political leanings and later involvement in political demonstrations. In describing their political orientation along an continuum of liberal to conservative, White activists identified themselves as more liberal than their Black counterparts. As adults, there were also differences in participation in demonstrations and illegal protests. Seventy-five percent of White adults participated in political demonstrations while did 47% of Blacks. Also, 43% of Whites reported participation in illegal political protests, while 19% of Blacks did the same.

Fendrich (1977) was careful to note that the differences between White and Black former civil rights activists may not be due to a change in commitment by former Black

activists. Rather these differences can be traced back to their motivation for participating in civil rights activism for both of these groups. Black civil rights activists reported they were fighting for the "right to enter the mainstream of American society" (Fendrich, 1977, p.154). Fendrich hypothesized that after their involvement with the civil rights movement of the 1960s, college-educated Black activists were now interested in benefitting from the civil rights they had worked hard to attain. Their initial political leanings did not necessarily influence their participation in activism. White civil rights activists, on the other hand, "were motivated by a leftist political ideology and humanistic commitments" (Fendrich, 1977, p.154). White activists who were involved entered with "leftist" ideologies and maintained them through adulthood.

In summarizing the consequences of civil rights activism for Black and White activists, Fendrich (1977) concluded that activists of the 1960s "developed a high level of political consciousness and participation in their youth" (p. 155). Involvement in activism while in college provided an identity, reinforced a sense of political efficacy, and increased their understanding of various social and economic inequalities leading to continued interest in involvement as adults. For the student activists in all of these studies, their participation in activism occurred while in college.

While the previous section focused on the post-college consequences from activism in the field of sociology, the next section will focus on research conducted within the field of higher education. Within the field of higher education and student affairs, little research exists on identifying the learning outcomes emerging from student engagement in activism. The literature in the field of higher education and student affairs focuses on reflections, responses, and advice from administrators who experienced

student activism on their campus (Blimling, 2002; Brown, Miser, & Emmanuel, 1988; Hathaway, 2003; Laliberte, 2003; Miser, 1988b; Ryan, 2004; Shaffer, 1988; Williams & McGreevey, 2004). Other writers have commented on legal and policy considerations (Chen, 2000; Miser, 1988a; Paterson, 1994), and historical pieces at single institutions (Casanova, 2001; Roseboro, 2005).

One comprehensive study by Astin, Astin, Bayer, and Bisconti (1975) examined the behavior and attitude changes of students involved in protests in the late 1960s. Astin et al. (1975) surveyed 5,251 first-year students using CIRP's Student Information Form (SIF) from 178 nationally representative institutions in the fall of 1967 and followed-up with these students in the summer of 1968. Both surveys contained the same behavioral and attitudinal items. In order to assess how students were affected by participating in protest activity, researchers statistically controlled for changes that occurred independent of protest participation. In short, Astin et al. determined what the overall changes were at the end of students' first year regardless of whether they had participated in protests or not. From here, Astin et al. were able to determine the attitude and behavior changes of protesting students beyond would be expected from their first-year characteristics in their follow-up.

In this study, students were asked whether they had participated in one of three specific organized demonstrations (against racial discrimination, against college administrative policy, and against the Vietnam War). Astin et al. (1975) found protest participation was related to an overall increase in involvement in academic and interpersonal areas. Examples of involvements included seeing a foreign movie, arguing with a teacher in class, being a guest in a teacher's home, discussing religion, and reading

an unassigned reading for a course. The behavior most associated with participating in protests was discussing politics. Student protesters tended to maintain "an interest in intellectual and cultural matters and to develop closer ties with instructors" (Astin et al., 1975, p.162). Participation in protests was also associated with negative behaviors such as drinking more frequently, smoking cigarettes, and taking tranquilizing pills. Astin et al. (1975) attributed this behavior to a general openness to experiences by students who participated in protests. In addition to behavioral changes, students' attitudes changed as well. Student participation in protests intensified the growth of more liberal attitudes. Astin et al. (1975) did caution against making causal inferences from their analyses, as there was no way of knowing whether participating in protests affected attitude, or attitude affected protests.

In a period when many researchers conducted studies on student activism, Astin et al.(1975) study contributed to the understanding of behavior and attitude changes of student activists. While strong methodologically, this study only examined changes that occurred within a limited time frame of less than one year. This study supports the finding that change occurs due to involvement in activism; however, additional studies and replications are needed.

Summary of Outcomes of Student Activist Activity

The primary purpose of this section of the literature review was to synthesize the literature on the consequences related to activism. The second purpose was to establish the need for more current research in activism. As is evidenced by the research provided, the consequences and lasting impacts of student activism are widely studied in the field of sociology (Fendrich & Lovoy, 1988; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; McAdam, 1989;

Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). The evidence from the major studies in sociology overwhelmingly supported the finding: Activism influences future attitudes, behaviors, and involvements. Regardless of whether activists were involved in the Berkeley free-speech movement (Nassi, 1981), anti-war movement (Sherkat & Blocker, 1997), civil rights movement (Fendrich, 1977; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Marwell, Aiken, & Demarath, 1987; McAdam, 1989), or were leaders in the right and left-wing movements (Braungart & Braungart, 1991), their involvement during college impacted their occupational, social, and political choices later in life. In summary, activists maintained their political attitudes regardless of their political leanings, maintained higher political involvement than did their peers, and were more likely to work in academia and social service occupations. Though they completed more higher education than non-activists, former activists were more likely to earn less income. This research also suggests that participation as activists in youth increased the likelihood of becoming involved in other activist movements later in life (Braunguart & Braungart, 1991; Fendrich, 1977; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Jennings, 2002; McAdam, 1989; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997).

The research on activism suggests that activists in college gain competencies from their involvement. College activists gained an understanding of social, cultural, and political realities and how to influence change. In addition, college activists continued to apply the knowledge gained well into adulthood, as shown by their participation in political and community organizations, demonstrations, and work histories. College activists also displayed interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Their involvement in activism as young adults cultivated a strong sense of self and collective identity, a

sense of civic responsibility, political ideologies, and appreciation of human differences. Cole et al. (1998) said it best: “These findings suggest that activism can be understood as a set of resources—particular attitudes, skills, and behaviors—that are learned in young adulthood and can persist even in the face of the demands of adult life” (p. 367).

The review of the literature provided was an exhaustive search of the literature on college student activism. The review provided does have limitations. First, all of these studies were conducted on student activists from the 1960s. Second, an understanding of the learning and impact of activism on current students is lacking. Third, a majority of these studies did not explore group differences. In addition, not all students had the same experiences and benefits because of their involvement in activism. In spite of some limitations, the review also highlighted studies that were strong and contributed to future research. A majority of these studies were longitudinal, had strong methodological designs, and provided a good sense of the long-term consequences of activism. Needed is research that explores what students are learning and gaining as a result of their involvement in activism while in college.

The next section explores the characteristics of students involved in activism and their environmental influences. The characteristics of both the individual and institutions are helpful in identifying the variables important when studying college student activists.

Personal Characteristics of Students Involved in Activism

Students entering college bring a variety of experiences and personal characteristics that can moderate college outcomes (Astin, 1970b; Pascarella, 1985). Past research has shown that socioeconomic status (Astin, 1970a; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Kahn & Bowers, 1970; Lipset, 1971; Sherkat & Blocker, 1994), academic ability (Astin

et al., 1975; Baird, 1970, Kahn & Bowers, 1970; Kerpelman, 1972; Norr, 1977), and biographical and structural availability (Kerpelman, 1972; Morris, 1981; Schussman & Soule, 2005) all influence involvement in activism while in college. The following section will explore the connections between background characteristics and activism, particularly socioeconomic status, ethnicity, academic ability, and biographical and structural availability.

Several researchers have found that student activists come from higher socioeconomic backgrounds than do non-activists (Astin, 1970a; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Kahn & Bowers, 1970; Lipset, 1971; Sherkat & Blocker, 1994), and from families that emphasize academic achievement as a way to foster a strong intellectual identity (Baird, 1970; Heffernan, 1992; Sherkat & Blocker 1994). Kahn and Bowers (1970) explored socioeconomic status (SES) by looking at activism in the 1960s across various selectivity levels of colleges and universities. The researchers surveyed 75-100 students from each of the 100 sample institutions selected to represent accredited colleges and universities throughout the United States. In examining their hypothesis that activist students come from families with a higher socio-economic background, Kahn and Bowers (1970) found that the "higher the parents' status, the more likely was the student to become involved in student political activism" (p. 42). Parental education, family income, and father's occupation were the measures used to construct an SES index. In fact, 30% of students who came from families with a high SES index were activists as compared to 17% of students from families with a low SES index.

Once ethnicity is taken into account, the relationship between SES and activism provides additional revealing results. Lipset (1971), exploring the differences between

White and Black student activists in the 1960s, found the two groups differed in SES. The Black student activists came from a lower SES than did their White counterparts (Lipset, 1971). A reason for the difference may be the different motivations Black and White students of the 1960s had for being involved in activism. Black students reported that they were involved in activism to improve their social and economic condition within American society. As a result, college-going Blacks were more likely to protest than were White students in the 1960s (Sherkat & Blocker, 1994). The type of students engaged in activism in the 1990s has not changed much from the 1960s. Student activists are still typically ethnic minority students (Heffernan, 1992; Levine & Cureton, 1998a).

When it came to academic performance in high school, Baird (1970) found that activists and non-activists were statistically no different from each other. Kerpelman (1972) also found similar results for these students once they entered college. Neither study relied on students' self-reported academic ability results. In Kerpelman's study, 291 students from three different institutions of higher education in the east coast undertook surveys on personality, attitude, and intelligence. Two measures of intellectual ability were given to students measuring verbal and academic ability. Results indicated no statistically significant difference on academic ability between activists and non-activists as measured by the two tests. Although these results support the conclusion that student activists are no different in academic achievement, other studies have found a difference.

Several researchers have found student activists to have a higher academic ability than non-activist students (Astin et al., 1975; Heffernan, 1992; Kahn & Bowers, 1970). Student activists, researchers concluded, were "disproportionately recruited from the

group of better-than-average students…these students have a greater commitment to intellectual values and to questioning the status quo" (Norr, 1977, p. 59). The conclusion reached by these researchers, that activist students have a higher academic ability than do non-activist students, may have come from analyzing students' self-reported responses on academic achievement. In self-reports, activists may likely perceive themselves to be more academically able than their peers.

A better conclusion may be that activists are no more intelligent than are their peers, but rather perceive themselves as intellectuals in need of participating in social and political issues. As Kahn and Bowers (1970) point out, "Students who were intellectually oriented were substantially more likely to be activists than were their classmates" (p. 53). Their awareness of local and global issues may draw them to participate in activism.

Examination of sociology literature allows for an exploration of other factors influencing individual participation in activism and social movements. Sociologists explore how individuals are recruited into social movement participation. Differential recruitment is the term used by sociologists exploring the factors influencing individual participation in social movement activity (Jenkins, 1983; McAdam, 1986; Zurcher & Snow, 1981). Two of the explanations provided to explain protest participation are biographical availability and structural availability. Biographical availability is defined as "the absence of personal constraints that may increase the costs and risks of movement participation, such as full-time employment, marriage, and family responsibilities" (McAdam, 1986, p. 70). Structural availability refers to "the presence of interpersonal networks that facilitate recruitment to activism" (Schussman & Soule, 2005, p. 1086).

It is important here to differentiate between social movements and activism. Social movements are defined as collective or joint action, have change-oriented goals, and have some degree of organization (McAdam & Snow, 1997). The type of changes that movements seek to pursue require sustained organized activity. Sociologists, interested in the process of how a group emerges and functions, have studied the emergence, recruitment, and sustainability of a social movement group. Examples of social movements are the civil rights, anti-war, and white power movements. While students have been involved in social movements, and this study may include individual activism in a social movement, this study is not examining activism within specific social movements.

Schussman and Soule (2005) found that young people are more likely to be involved in protests than are older individuals because young people are "more likely to be in school, unmarried, and free from obligations imposed by careers and families" (p. 1085). College students, therefore, who do not hold a job, who attend school full-time, and who live on-campus are more likely to be involved in activism. Students who attend college part-time, live off-campus, and are non-traditional, on the other hand, are less likely to be involved in activism.

In addition to being biographically available, sociological research suggests that individuals are more likely to become part of a movement if they are involved within organizations and have strong social networks involved in activism (McAdam, 1986; McAdam & Paulsen, 1993; Paulsen, 1991). How connected an individual is to others increases the likelihood that he or she will mobilize. Specifically, the type of organization in which individuals are involved determines whether they mobilize. It is

not necessarily who individuals are, but what they are a part of that determines their involvement. In their study examining the motivations of college student participation in service, Jones and Hill (2003) found that friends and peers played a significant role in influencing service participation. The students "consistently involved in college talked about volunteering with friends as fun, but also that this peer group shared values and social concerns" (Jones & Hill, 2003, p. 528). The types of activities and involvements students engaged in were influenced by the activities and involvements of their peers.

Connections to organizations matter for a number of reasons. Organizational involvement integrates people into activist social networks, deepens their ideological commitment to the cause, and develops an activist identity. A number of empirical studies have supported that networks matter (Klandermans & Oegema, 1987; McAdam, 1986; McAdam & Paulsen, 1993; Morris, 1981; Passy & Giugni, 2001; Paulsen, 1991; Snow, Zurcher, Eckland-Olson, 1980; Walsh & Warland, 1983). For example, Morris (1981), in explaining the Black southern student sit-ins of the 1960s, found that the sit-ins were initiated through organizational and personal ties, which produced the first clusters of sit-ins in the south. For activists involved in the anti-nuclear protests, activists reported higher levels of political organizational affiliations, as well as participation in past protests (Walsh & Warland, 1983). Individuals who are also involved in a variety of political organizations are already joiners. The number of organizations that individuals belong to encourages activism because of the joining phenomenon. McAdam (1986**)** found that organizational participation produced feelings of personal efficacy in their success as an activist. The more active individuals were within an organization, the more likely they were to regard activism as effective and worth participating in.

Organizational membership also increased the chances that an individual would learn about activist causes underway.

The research on the types and amounts of involvements of college student activists supports these findings. Student activists tend to belong to more campus activities than are non-activists (Kerpelman, 1972). This phenomenon is not surprising. Engaging in campus activities provides opportunities for students to come into contact with other students and adults who are activists and to learn about opportunities to become involved in activism. In fact, Heffernan (1992) studied the motivations of students involved in community service and found that students self-identifying as activists mentioned the influence of faculty members, peers, and mentors as a reason for becoming activists. VanDyke (1998) also found that "institutions where students are able to maintain a greater number of connections with other students are more prone to protest activity than those institutions where students are more isolated" (p. 213). A student's network, in which there is shared political beliefs and values, opens up the opportunity for students to come in contact with student activists who encourage their involvement.

Environmental Influences on Student Activists

In addition to the personal characteristics of students involved in activism, this review looks at environmental characteristics of universities where activism has taken place, particularly type of institution and geographic region. Research has found there are shared environmental and structural characteristics of universities where activism has taken place. Activism more often occurs at larger institutions (Astin, et al., 1975; Blau & Slaughter, 1971; Norr, 1977; Van Dyke, 1998). The size of an institution provides a

significant student population where subcultures and communities of activists can exist (Van Dyke, 1998).

In the 1960s, demonstrations and protests were also more likely to occur at institutions whose students had higher academic abilities and interests (Blau & Slaughter, 1971; Lipset, 1971: Norr, 1977). Colleges and universities that attract intellectually oriented students and that have high admission standards historically have the highest levels of protest. Therefore, highly selective institutions are more likely to experience activism (Astin et al., 1975; Lipset, 1971; Soule, 1997; Van Dyke, 1998). Two examples of activism where participants were from selective institutions are Freedom Summer applicants and student divestment movement participants. A majority of the applicants to Freedom Summer were from highly selective institutions. There were 233 colleges and universities represented in the Freedom Summer activist pool, "elite, private universities, such as Harvard, Yale, Stanford, and Princeton, accounted for nearly 40 percent of the total" group of students (McAdam, 1988, p. 42). In addition, activists from prestigious state universities such as University of California, Berkeley, University of Wisconsin, and University of Michigan were also well represented. In fact, 57% of the student activists came from the top ranking public and private colleges and universities (McAdam, 1988). Another example of activism occurring most often at highly selective liberal arts institutions are the shantytown protests of the 1980s. Soule (1997) studied the student anti-apartheid movement and the usage of shantytowns as a protest tactic during 1985-1990. In Soule's findings, selective, liberal arts colleges in the Northeast had higher rates of shantytown protests than other institutional types.

Researchers have offered a number of reasons for the high level of protest at highly selective institutions. Researchers suggest that selective colleges encourage activism in their students by creating an atmosphere against apathy and towards involvement (Blau & Slaughter, 1971; Kahn & Bowers, 1970). These institutions attract more intellectually-oriented students who may be sensitive to social justice issues and interested in political issues and activism (Van Dyke, 1998). Another explanation is that students attending elite institutions have more economic resources (individual and institutional) to use in mobilizing a protest. Soule (1997) found institutions with larger endowments had higher levels of activism.

Other researchers have found that activism in the 1960s was more likely to occur in certain geographic regions of the country. Lipset (1971) and Sherkat and Blocker (1994) concluded that student protests of the late 1960s were least likely to occur in southern regions of the U.S. McAdam (1988) found that educational institutions in the Great Lakes, mid-Atlantic, and Far West regions had higher rates of participation in 1964 during Freedom Summer. A more recent study on activism from the 1980-90s, Soule (1997) found that institutions in the Northeast had higher rates of anti-apartheid "shantytown" protests than existed in other geographic regions. There are multiple reasons why institutions in certain geographic regions are more likely to have student protests. However, examining the influence of geographic culture and other possible influencers on activism is beyond the scope of this study.

The research presented in this section suggests that involvement in activism is influenced not only by students' background characteristics, but also by institutional

characteristics. The next section will outline the theoretical and conceptual framework which guided the development of the model used in this study.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Astin's (1984) theory of student involvement provides a useful framework for this study. The theory of student involvement, as described below, assisted in determining what variables to measure outside of activism and what relationships to identify between activism and background characteristics, institutional characteristics, and learning.

Astin's Theory of Student Involvement

Astin's theory of involvement (1984) emerged from a longitudinal study (Astin, 1977) that explored a variety of involvement factors. In Astin's (1977) study, he found that involvement was linked to the retention of college students. Specifically, students who were living in a residence hall, were involved in a student organization or athletics, and had on-campus jobs were more likely to stay in college than were students who were not involved. Hence, retention was the likely outcome of an involved student. Later, Astin (1984) expanded his study of involvement to include other educational outcomes such as learning.

Astin (1984) defines involvement as the "amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (p. 297). This theory focuses on student's behavior, emphasizes the intentional participation of students in their learning, and encourages educators to focus their energies on what students are doing with their time. Astin's theory of student involvement (1984) has five postulates:

1. “Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in various objects” (p.298). “Objects” describes the in- and out-of-classroom experiences to which students commit their time and energy.
2. “Regardless of the object, involvement occurs along a continuum—different students manifest different degrees of involvement in a given object, and the same student manifests different degrees of involvement in different objects at different times” (p. 298).
3. “Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features” (p.298). In essence, involvement is measured by the amount of time a student spends in an involvement and what he does during that involvement (member versus leader).
4. “The amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to quality and quantity of student involvement in that program” (p.298). A student’s educational outcome is related to his involvement within that program.
5. “The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement” (p. 298).

Astin (1993b) further elaborated on his theory of involvement stating:

> One of the crucial factors in the educational development of the undergraduate is the degree to which the student is actively engaged or involved in the undergraduate experience…two critical factors are (1) extent to *w*hich the student interacts with student peers and (2) the extent to which students interact with faculty (p. 425).

A vast amount of research exists on the role of involvement with peers and faculty in learning outside of the classroom (see for example, Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). While a thorough exploration of the literature on peer and faculty influence on learning is

informative, such is beyond the scope of this study. For the purpose of this study, the learning of most interest is associated with outside of the classroom involvement in activist activity. The impact of peers and faculty influence on learning outside of the classroom is summarized here.

Peer and Faculty Influence on Learning

Astin (1993b) states that peers are "the single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years" (p. 398). In addition, a synthesis of the literature on the impact of college conducted by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005) described the importance and value of peer interactions. They stated that peer interactions "promote positive academic and social self-concepts, self-confidence, and leadership skills" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p.615). Past research has repeatedly demonstrated the positive cognitive, psychosocial, and affective development in students as a result of involvement with student peer groups (Astin, 1996; Baxter Magolda, 1992; Foubert & Grainger, 2006; Inman & Pascarella, 1998; Kuh, 1993, 1995; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996; Twale & Sanders, 1999; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Nora, & Terenzini, 1999). Activist students work closely with their peers around cultural, social, and political issues. Interaction with peers may encourage a reflection on values and attitudes, as well as encourage participation in activism. The influence and relationship with other activist students may also influence their learning outcomes.

Faculty interactions with students outside of the classroom have also led to positive developmental outcomes for students. In reviewing literature on faculty-student interactions in the 1990s, Kuh and Hu (2001) concluded that faculty interactions outside

of the classroom may “empower students to do more than they think they can and help validate them as full members of the campus community” (p. 330). The influence of positive faculty-student interactions is linked with developmental growth in several areas. Students reporting higher levels of faculty interactions outside the classroom than that of their peers demonstrate growth in critical thinking skills (Eimers, 2001; Kuh, 1995; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella, & Nora, 1995; Terenzini, Theophilides, & Lorang, 1984), intellectual and academic development (Eimers, 2001; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Terenzini, Theophilides, & Lorang, 1984), career development (Eimers, 2001), interpersonal and interpersonal competence (Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004), and develop an understanding and appreciation for human differences (Astin, 1993a, 1993b; Kuh, 1995).

For the purpose of this study, Astin’s (1984) theory of involvement is also helpful in defining activism as an aspect of student involvement. Using Astin’s theory, participation in activism represents a students’ investment of his psychological and physical energy in the college experience. In addition, this theory suggests that student learning and personal development is directly proportional to the student’s investment within activism. While much research has focused on learning outcomes associated with college involvement, few studies have explored the outcomes related to involvement in activism. For this study, the learning outcomes of most interest are those associated with the out-of-class involvement in activist activity. Therefore, activism within the classroom is not included within this study.

Conceptual Framework of This Study

This study seeks to understand the effect of college student activism involvement on a set of learning outcomes. The framework for this study is based on two college impact models (Astin, 1977; Pascarella, 1985). Pascarella's general model for assessing change and Astin's Input-Environment-Output models have been widely used in college impact studies (e.g., Bryant, 2003; Franklin, 1995; Kim, 2001; Mulgetta, Nash, & Murphy, 1999; Nora, Cabrera, Hagedorn, & Pascarella, 1996; Stoecker & Pascarella, 1991; Tam, 2002; Thurmond, Wambach, Connors, & Frey, 2002; Whitmire, 1998).

General Model for Assessing Change

Pascarella (1985; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; 2005) developed a general model for assessing change or growth. According to Pascarella's model, five sets of variables are important when studying college students' developmental growth: students' background and pre-college characteristics, structural/organizational characteristics of institutions, interactions with agents of socialization (peers and faculty), institutional environment, and quality of student effort. These variables directly and indirectly influence learning and development. Growth and development "are directly influenced by student background characteristics, interactions with major agents of socialization, and quality of student effort (Pascarella, 1985, p. 49). Therefore, this study includes demographic and precollege characteristics, college environment and experiences, and college involvement measures to better assess the developmental growth of students involved in activism.

Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) Model

Astin's (1970b, 1970c, 1993b) I-E-O model provides a similar framework for studying outcomes from college or college experiences. According to Astin's model, college outcomes are directly and indirectly a result of students' inputs and environment. Student inputs "refer to the characteristics of the student at the time of initial entry to the institution" (Astin, 1993b, p. 7). Examples of student inputs are family socioeconomic status, demographic characteristics, pre-college academic abilities, and experiences. Environment "refers to the various programs, policies, faculty, peers, and educational experiences to which the student is exposed" (Astin, 1993b, p. 7). Examples of environment are institutional characteristics, faculty and peer group characteristics, and student involvement activities. Outputs are defined by Astin (1970b) as "measures of the students' achievements, knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, aspirations, interests, and daily activities" (p. 224). A more thorough discussion of these outcomes will follow the conceptual framework section.

Astin's (1970b, 1970c, 1993b) I-E-O model and Pascarella's (Pascarella, 1985; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005) general model for assessing change is helpful in addressing the methodological problem of the non-random assignment of students to experiences or colleges inherent in non-experimental studies. These models provide a framework helpful in isolating the unique effects derived from involvement in activism. The effects of activism on learning outcomes can best be examined after controlling for the effects of student characteristics and their environments. Some students, after all, are more inclined to participate in activism than other students. Measuring outcomes associated with activism, and controlling for background and environmental

characteristics, isolates the impact of activism participation net of individual differences in characteristics that affect activism.

The learning outcomes identified for this study are Kuh's (1993) outcome clusters associated with student out-of-classroom experiences. The next section provides an overview of the learning outcomes identified to study the effect of student activism involvement.

Learning Outcomes

Research conducted by Astin (1977) suggests that different forms of involvement lead to different developmental outcomes for individual students. Astin (1999) recommended that future research be conducted to identify learning outcomes related to various student involvements. Specifically, research should explore how various types of involvement facilitate student development along various dimensions, whether a type of involvement produces different outcomes for different students, and whether certain student characteristics are significantly related to different forms of involvement. Astin's theory of involvement has been connected with learning outcomes associated with experiences both in- and out-of-classroom (e.g., Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Foubert & Grainger, 2006; Kuh, 1993; 1995; Kuh, Douglas, Lund, & Ramin Gyurnek, 1994; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005). Consistently, involvement in college has been connected with various types of learning outcomes with differential effects on different types of students. For this study, learning outcomes associated with out-of-classroom involvement can be reduced into outcome clusters.

Kuh (1993) developed five outcome clusters or typologies exclusively associated to student out-of-classroom experiences. The outcome clusters were developed from

interviews of 149 seniors at 12 colleges and universities. Students described what they had learned and how they had changed due to their involvements. In reviewing the literature and in consultation with the outcome domains identified by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991), Kuh (1993) found his outcomes were similar in nature. The five outcome clusters are:

1. Cognitive complexity is defined as "cognitive skills including reflective thought, critical thinking, quantitative reasoning and intellectual flexibility" (p. 24).
2. Knowledge acquisition and application is defined as "understanding knowledge from a range of disciplines and physical, geographic, economic, political, religious, and cultural realities, and the ability to relate knowledge to daily life including using information presented in one class in other classes or other areas of life" (p. 24).
3. Humanitarianism is defined as "an understanding and appreciation of human differences including an increased sensitivity to the needs of others" (p. 24).
4. Interpersonal and intrapersonal competence is defined as "a coherent integrated constellation of personal attributes (e.g., identity, self-esteem, confidence, integrity, appreciation for the aesthetic and spiritual qualities of life and the natural world, sense of civic responsibility) and skills (e.g., how to work with people different from oneself" (p. 25).
5. Practical competence is defined as "skills reflecting an enhanced capacity to manage one's personal affairs (e.g., time management, decision-making), to be economically self-sufficient, and to be vocationally competent" (p. 25).

Researchers exploring college student outcomes use similar learning outcome clusters, specifically using data from the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California-Los Angeles. For example, in their exploration of student learning and development over the past decade using CIRP data, Astin, Keup, and Lindholm (2002) examined the outcomes of interpersonal skills (i.e., growth in leadership ability, growth in public-speaking ability, growth in interpersonal skills, etc.) and cognitive skills (i.e., growth in critical thinking ability, growth in general knowledge, growth in problem-solving skills). While these researchers labeled the outcomes differently (e.g., using critical thinking as opposed to cognitive complexity), the outcomes are similar to Kuh's clusters. Another example of similar outcomes to Kuh's clusters is Sax, Bryant, and Harper (2005) who used critical thinking and knowledge and understanding of others as outcomes to examine differential effects of student-faculty interactions on college outcomes for male and female students. The survey items included in the construct "understanding of others" are the same items that would be included in Kuh's construct of humanitarianism. These items are "ability to get along with people of other races/cultures" and "knowledge of people from other races/cultures" (Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005, p. 655).

Based on the research conducted by Kuh (1993) and the learning outcomes identified by previous researchers, the learning outcomes used in this study can be reduced to Kuh's outcome clusters. These outcome clusters will provide a helpful frame for grouping learning outcomes that emerge from student involvement in activism.

Summary

Research on student involvement indicates that participation influences learning outcomes along a variety of domains (Astin, 1996; Baxter Magolda, 1992; Foubert & Grainger, 2006; Inman & Pascarella, 1998; Kuh, 1993, 1995; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996; Twale & Sanders, 1999; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Nora, & Terenzini, 1999). While there is an extensive amount of literature around various types of involvements and their influence on learning, activism is not one of them.

A vast amount of research on activism exists within the field of sociology (Braungart & Braungart, 1991; Fendrich, 1977; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Franz & McClelland, 1994; Jennings, 2002; McAdam, 1988; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). While the research in sociology demonstrates that students gain in knowledge and competencies as a result of involvement, the research focuses on college student activists of the 1960s and not on current students. Research on current student activism is needed along with research from the field of student affairs.

This study is timely and needed. Statistics from HERI (2005) reveal that half of today's students come to college with previous demonstration participation and with the promise of continued involvement. An examination of specific learning outcomes associated with activism will provide student affairs professionals and higher education researchers and policy-makers with a better understanding of what students gain from their activism. In addition, the results of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge on the role of college involvement in developing an action-oriented citizen.

The following chapter describes the methods and design of this study. The variables and constructs used in this study are also defined along with the statistical analyses employed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the methods used to answer the research questions of interest. The purpose of this study is to identify the learning outcomes associated with student participation in activism. Specifically:

1. Who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college?
2. What characteristics (of students, of high school activities, of institutions) predict involvement in activism?
3. What are the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence after controlling for background characteristics, precollege characteristics, institutional characteristics, and college academic and nonacademic experiences?
4. Are the learning outcomes associated with activism the same for all students or do they differ for students with different background characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity)?

This section is divided into four sections. First, the institutional and student sample are described. Second, the data collection methods for the two instruments used in this study (Student Information Form and the College Student Survey) are provided. Third, the variables and constructs used in this study are operationalized. Finally, limitations of this study are addressed.

Sample

The sample for this study is drawn from institutions and students who participated in the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP). The main purpose of CIRP is to assess the effects of college on students (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1999). The American Council on Education (ACE) with the University of California, Los Angeles, sponsors the CIRP. The CIRP began in 1966 as a longitudinal study of the American higher education system. The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California, Los Angeles, collected the data used. The following sections describe the institutional and student samples used in this study.

The population for this study is defined by HERI as "all institutions of higher education admitting first-time freshmen and granting a baccalaureate-level degree or higher listed in the Opening Fall Enrollment (OFE) files of the U.S. Department of Educations' Higher Education General Information Survey" (Sax et al., 1999, p.114). The institutional sample population in 1999 was a national sample of 683 institutions representing various institutional characteristics, such as control and type (e.g., private and public universities, religiously-affiliated and nonsectarian colleges, two- and four-year colleges, historically Black colleges), degree of selectivity, and geographic region. The institutional sample in this study was non-profit, four-year institutions.

The 1999 CIRP Student Information Form (SIF) was collected from 364,546 college undergraduates "during registration, freshman orientation, or during the first couple weeks of classes" (Sax et al., 1999, p.117). The goal of the SIF is to collect data before students have had any significant experience with college life and academics. This becomes, in essence, a pre-college measure. A benefit of using a large dataset is the

representative sample of students from a variety of institutional types, size, and control. The student sample size for this study initially consisted of 15,571 respondents who participated in both the 1999 and 2003 data collection periods. After reducing the student sample to full-time first-time undergraduate students, the sample decreased to 14,461 respondents. The sample was further reduced to students who had complete information on the dependent measures. After these reductions and after eliminating subjects who had missing data on any variable that could not be imputed, the final sample consisted of 13, 047 students.

Instruments and Data Collection

The 1999 Student Information Form (SIF) and the 2003 College Student Survey (CSS) were used in this study. Both the SIF and CSS questions are forced-choice and closed ended. In other words, students were forced to choose among several responses instead of answering in their own words. The Student Information Form also requested demographic information and pre-college information. The College Student Survey measured students' academic and social experiences, beliefs and attitudes, as well as their involvement in activism. Data from the SIF and CSS surveys have long been used by researchers to generate measures of college experiences, attitudes, and behavior (Sharkness, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2010). In these surveys, more than one question is often asked on a topic to gather more information and detail about a specific behavior or experience and also "to get at the more elusive concept underlying the question" often a construct (Sharkness, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2010, p.1). Each researcher creates their own constructs depending on their study. Both instruments are explored below in more detail.

Student Information Form

Data collected from the 1999 SIF provided information on demographic characteristics, expectations of college experiences; attitudes, values, and life goals; expectations of the college experience, degree goals and career plans, and secondary school experiences. In addition, the SIF asks students to compare themselves with the average person along a number of abilities (e.g., academic ability, leadership ability, self-confidence, understanding of others, etc.). The data from the SIF provides initial input information available as control variables or pre-test information for longitudinal research (Astin, 1977; Sax et al., 1999).

College Student Survey

Four years later, students were surveyed using the 2003 College Student Survey (CSS). The 2003 CSS follow-up sample was matched with the 1999 SIF survey responses. The CSS can be administered any time from November to June of an academic year in order to capture December and June graduates (CIRP, n.d.a). The CSS was designed as a follow-up measure to the SIF, but can be used as an independent measure (CIRP, n.d.b). The CSS includes items related to academic and social experiences of students while in college. In addition, items over future goals and aspirations and attitudes and beliefs are included. Scales developed from these items include: faculty support (Denson, Vogelgesang, & Saenz, 2005; Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005), frequency of curricular/co-curricular diversity activities (Denson et al., 2005; Misa, Anderson, & Yamamura, 2005), critical thinking and knowledge (Astin, Keup, & Lindholm, 2002; Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005), interpersonal skills (Astin et al., 2002;

Sax et al., 2005), confidence and self-perception (Astin et al., 2002; Sax et al., 2005), and college experiences (Misa et al., 2005; Sax et al., 2005).

Variables

This section defines the primary independent variable, control variables, and the dependent variables used for this study. A full table of the operational definitions of all the variables used in this study can be found in Appendix A.

Primary Independent Variable: College Student Activism

The intent of this study is to examine the learning outcomes associated with college student activism. Little is known about the learning associated with students' involvement in activism. As described in Chapter I, political activism is defined as involvement in demonstrations and strong commitment to involvement in political and social changes.

For the purposes of this study activism consisted of two reported items: participation in a demonstration, and the composite score of student responses to two items measuring how important are influencing the political structure and influencing social values (Socio-Political Influence). A composite score for socio-political influence was developed from student responses to two items: "Influencing the political structure" and "Influencing social values." The Cronbach Alpha reliability for these two combined items was .717. Cronbach Alpha measures how well or reliable a set of items measure a scale or construct—in this case, two items. There were 229 students who did not respond to either of these questions; they were deleted from the study. In addition, the item "How frequently in the past year they had participated in organized demonstrations" was used as a measure of activism. There were 114 students who did not respond to this item. For

those students not responding, this author recoded the missing response to their not having participated in demonstrations. If students did not respond to this item, participation in demonstrations was likely not to apply to them.

Independent/Control Variables

Astin (1993b) and Pascarella (1985), in their models for assessing change in college students, identified several sets of variables for studying students' developmental growth. These include: students' background and pre-college characteristics, college environment, students' academic experiences, and students' non-academic experiences. These variables need to be taken into account, as they have an impact on learning outcomes and attitude changes, thereby causing an overestimation of the effects of activism on these learning outcomes (Astin, 1977; Astin, 1993b).

Background and Pre-College Characteristics

Using both the 1999 SIF and the 2003 CSS, the first set of control variables were those that described individual background characteristics and pre-college characteristics. For dichotomous and categorical variables, such as individual's sex and race/ethnicity, dummy variables were used. Gender was coded 1=female and 0=male. Students' race/ethnicity was also dummy-coded where White students were the reference group. The SIF provides nine racial/ethnic categories from which students may select (White/Caucasian, African American/Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian American/Asian, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Mexican American/Chicano, Puerto Rican, Other Latino, and Other). The racial categories were recoded into six groups: African American, Latino (Mexican American/Chicano, Puerto Rican, and Other Latino), Asian American/Pacific Islander (Asian American/Asian and Native Hawaiian/Pacific

Islander), Other/Native American (Other and American Indian/Alaska Native), Multi-Racial, and White. These racial categories were selected for practical purposes for later statistical tabulations and were in keeping with collapsed racial categories used in previous studies using CIRP data (McKee-Culpepper, 2007; Saenz & Barrera, 2007; Sax, Arms, Woodruff, Riggers, & Eagan, 2009). Multi-racial was added as a category for students who chose more than one racial/ethnic category.

Mother and father's education was included as a background characteristic. Parents' education was added as a block of dummy variables indicating whether respondents' parents attended high school or less, attended some college or post-secondary education, graduated from college, or received some or completed a graduate program. The reference group was parents who had graduated from college. Two hundred and thirteen respondents (1.6%) had missing data on father's education, while 154 respondents (1.2%) had missing data on mother's education. Based on previous findings of differentials in racial/ethnic group differences of educational attainment (Hudson, 2003; Kao & Thompson, 2003; Perna, 2000, 2005; Thompson, Gorin, Obeidat, & Chen, 2006), this author replaced the missing parents' education information with the mean of mother's and father's education for their corresponding ethnic group. For example, if a respondent indicated he was Asian American but did not respond to his "mother's highest education earned" item, the missing value was replaced by the mean of mother's education earned for all Asian American respondents.

Missing data is typically handled in this manner. The strategy of replacing the group mean for an item "is expected to represent the central tendency (or average) of that

item" (Heppner & Heppner, 2004, p. 235). This strategy is most commonly used in order to maintain a larger sample size.

Parental income was also included as a background characteristic and was divided into quartiles. A block of dummy variables was included with the reference income amount at $50,000-$74,999. Missing data on parental income existed for 1,498 respondents (11.4%). In order to determine how to handle this missing data, a regression was conducted regarding whether to evaluate the relationship between parental income and ethnicity of respondents. Approximately 5% of income was explained by ethnicity and the results were statistically significant: (R^2= .058, F(4, 12,201)=186.792 $p < .000$). Therefore, missing income was replaced by the mean parental income for the corresponding ethnic group. For example, if a respondent indicated he was Latino but did not respond to the parental income item, the missing value was replaced by the mean of the parental income earned for Latino respondents.

Two measures of students' pre-college ability were added into this block (high-school grades and SAT ([verbal + math] or ACT composite score). High-school grades were added as a set of dummy variables. Students were divided into three categories—those who had high-school grades at A and above, B to A-, and B- and below. The reference group was students who attained B to A- high school grades.

Missing data existed for both high school grades and ACT scores. This author handled missing data similarly to the handling of missing data for parents' education. There were 148 students (.10%) with missing high school grades. Based on previous findings that women overall have higher grade point averages in high school than do males (Buchmann & DiPrete, 2006; Chee, Pino, & Smith, 2005), this author replaced

missing responses by the mean of the corresponding gender group's grade point average for students.

There were 1,580 respondents (12.1%) who had no ACT or SAT score. For this variable, this author examined if there were an interaction effect between gender and ethnic group. A simple linear regression was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the ACT scores and ethnicity and gender of respondents. An interaction effect existed by ethnicity and gender for ACT scores. Approximately 6% of ACT scores were explained by ethnicity and gender. Therefore, the mean was imputed for respondents' corresponding gender and ethnic group. For example, a respondent who indicated that she was African American and female, but who did not report an SAT or ACT score, had her missing ACT score replaced by the mean ACT score of African American women.

Pre-college learning measures were also identified. In order to measure the growth or change in learning from students' first year in college to four years later, this author identified a base line to serve in measuring change along the four identified learning domains: cognitive complexity, knowledge acquisition, humanitarianism, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. The measures identified asked students to rate themselves on a number of traits as compared to an average person their age in their first semester in college. Based on the literature and this author's dependent variables, a confirmatory factor analysis was run with the items this author expected would comprise these four learning domains or constructs. Factor analysis is a "data-reduction technique, since it reduces a large number of overlapping measured variables to a much smaller set of factors" (Green & Salkind, 2005, p. 312). For the confirmatory factor analysis, this author used principal axis analysis with a varimax rotation and forced four factors.

The factor analysis demonstrated that two out of the four factors did not load highly with one another. Therefore, a reliability analysis was conducted using the learning outcome clusters previously developed and the factors that emerged from the factor analysis. Two factors emerged with an acceptable reliability coefficient (pre-college cognitive, α=.670 and pre-college interpersonal and intrapersonal competence, α=.789). The other two factors, pre-college knowledge acquisition and application, and pre-college humanitarianism, did not have an acceptable reliability coefficient. Therefore, each individual item question was entered in the model separately and not as part of a factor. Table 1 lists the items used for pre-college learning outcome measures and the alpha reliability for the two constructs used.

Table 1

Pre-College Learning Variables with Constituent Items

Pre-College Cognitive Complexity	α = .670
1. Academic ability	
2. Mathematic ability	
Pre-College Knowledge Acquisition and Application	
1. Writing ability	
Pre-College Humanitarianism	
1. Cooperativeness	
2. Understanding others	
Pre-College Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Competence	α = .789
1. Leadership ability	
2. Popularity	
3. Self-confidence (social)	
4. Self-confidence (intellectual)	
5. Public-speaking ability	

These measures from the 1999 SIF served as proxies, because the learning outcomes identified from the 2003 CSS were not asked in the 1999 SIF. While these proxies are not true pre-test measures of the outcomes, proxies were chosen for the learning outcomes because they approximated the selected learning outcome constructs.

Institutional Variables

The second set of control variables consisted of institutional environmental variables such as type (public versus private) and geographic location (East, Midwest, South, West). For the geographic location variable, a block of dummy variables was added. Institutions from the east coast served as the reference group for this variable. These controls were selected to assure that the observed effects of activism are not mistaken by the effect of attending a certain type of institution.

Academic Experiences

Several items were used to measure the academic experiences construct, including college grades, hours per week spent studying, academic courses/experiences taken, as well as faculty interactions and support. There were 128 respondents (.98%) who did not report their college grades. The missing values were handled in the same fashion as were the missing high school grades. The mean of a respondent's gender group was used to replace missing college grades. Similar to high-school grades, college grades were added into the model as a set of dummy variables. Students self-reported their college grades as being A and higher, B to A-, and B or below. The reference group here was B to A-.

The two academic courses included in this block are women's studies and ethnic studies courses. Both of these courses were chosen because previous research has reported the positive influence of these types of courses on change in social attitudes and

activism. Specifically, research on students enrolled in women studies courses has shown an impact on student attitudes as well as an increase in social activism (Stake, 2007; Stake & Hoffmann, 2001; Stake, Roades, Rose, Ellis, & West, 1994; Stake & Rose, 1994). In addition, students enrolled in ethnic studies courses have demonstrated an increase in civic engagement and a greater likelihood to work within their communities than have students not enrolled in an ethnic studies course in college (Laird, Engberg, & Hurtado, 2005; Misa, Anderson, & Yamamura, 2005).

Within the college academic experiences block, items related to faculty interaction and support were scaled to create an overall measure of faculty support. A reliability analysis was conducted that found the construct was reliable with a Cronbach Alpha of α=.82. Table 2 details the constituent items in the faculty support scale.

Table 2

Constituent Items of Faculty Support Scale

Faculty Support Scale (alpha = .82)
1. Advice and guidance about your educational program
2. Respect (treated you like a colleague/peer)
3. Emotional support and encouragement
4. An opportunity to discuss coursework outside of class
5. Help in achieving professional goals
6. Intellectual challenge and stimulation

There were 283 respondents (2.2%) who had missing data on the faculty support scale construct. Based on a study by Goodman, Jorgensen, Laskowski, Seifert, & Blaich (2007) that examined if students of color experience good practices in undergraduate

education, White students reported having greater exposure to faculty interest in teaching and in student development than did their non-White peers. Therefore, this author replaced the mean of the faculty support scale score of a respondent's corresponding ethnic group. Respondents needed to respond to four out of the six items in order to have a score.

Non-Academic Experiences

The last set of control variables was students' non-academic experiences while in college. These experiences included hours worked per week, hours volunteered per week, on-campus residence, intercollegiate athletic participation, social fraternity/sorority affiliation, participation in leadership training and student government, and involvement in a ethnic/racial student organization.

Dummy variables were created for the measures of hours worked per week and volunteered per week. For hours worked per week, this variable was collapsed into a series of five dummy variables: no work, 5 hours or less, 6 to 10 hours, 11 to 15 hours, and 16 hours plus with 6-10 hours as the reference category. Similarly variable hours volunteered per week were collapsed into a series of four dummy variables: no volunteering, less than 2 hours, 3 to 5 hours, and more than 6 hours per week with less than 2 hours as the reference category.

The rest of the variables in this block were dichotomous variables: on-campus residence, intercollegiate athletic participation, social/fraternity affiliation, participation in leadership training and student government, and involvement in a ethnic/racial student organization (coded 0=no participation and 1=participation).

There were only three variables having missing information in this block: place of residence, hours worked, and hours volunteered. There were 38 respondents (0.3%) who did not report their place of residence. Since 90% of students reported living on-campus, these students' responses were coded to live on-campus as well. There were 114 students (0.9%) who did not respond to the amount of hours they worked per week and 143 students (1.1%) did not respond to amount of hours volunteered. Thus, the missing values were replaced with the mean of the item for the entire sample. A typical strategy in handling missing data is to replace the missing data with group means (Heppner & Heppner, 2004).

Dependent Variables

This study sought to examine the learning outcomes associated with involvement in activism. The learning outcomes associated with involvement were grouped into the learning outcome clusters developed by Kuh (1993). The four dependent variables were: a) cognitive complexity, b) knowledge acquisition, c) humanitarianism, d) and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Based on the literature, the author ran a confirmatory factor analysis with the items expected to comprise these four factors or constructs.

For the confirmatory factor analysis, principal axis analysis was used with a varimax rotation and forced four factors. Different from the literature, the four factors emerging from the factor analysis loaded on difference scales. A reliability analysis was therefore conducted using the learning outcome clusters previously developed and the factors emerging from the factor analysis. The author found that the scales she had

constructed had a higher reliability. The alpha reliabilities for each dependent variable construct and their constituent items are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Dependent Variables with Constituent Items

Cognitive Complexity	α = .759
1. Ability to think critically	
2. Analytical and problem-solving skills	
Knowledge Acquisition and Application	α = .706
1. General knowledge	
2. Knowledge of a particular field or discipline	
3. Computer skills	
4. Mathematical skills	
5. Knowledge of people from different races/cultures	
6. Writing skills	
7. Public Speaking ability	
8. Ability to get along with different races/cultures	
9. Foreign Language ability	
Humanitarianism	α = .855
1. Understanding of social problems facing our nation.	
2. Understanding of global issues.	
3. Understanding of the problems facing your community	
Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Competence	α = .722
1. Leadership abilities	
2. Interpersonal skills	

After testing the reliability of these four factors, it was concluded that the constructs were reliable, theoretically based, and conceptually strong. Important to note

is that these constructs were developed from students' self-reports of college impact on their learning. The use of "self-report data is widely used in research on college effects, and the validity and credibility of these data have been studied extensively" (Pike & Kuh, 2005, p. 191). While self-report data cannot replace objective tests such as cognitive ability measures, Pike (1996) states that "using self-reports as general indicators of achievement can be justified, but substituting specific self-reports for test scores cannot be justified" (p. 110). This study did not attempt to substitute students' self-reported learning for objective test scores. This study did attempt to examine the learning reported by students involved in activism.

Factor scores were then created for each dependent variable construct: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. A factor score is "simply a combination of variables that loaded on a factor" (Williams & Monge, 2001, p.180). Factors are standardized with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. The next step was to identify and handle any missing data within each of the dependent variable constructs. In order to handle missing data, it was necessary to identify how many respondents had missing data within each construct. For example, for the knowledge acquisition and application construct, 294 respondents (2.2%) did not respond to one or more of the items found in this construct. Respondents were retained if they answered more than three-fifths of the items within the factor. The mean of the construct was used to replace the missing values within the construct. For knowledge acquisition and application, respondents who answered at least six out of the nine items within this construct were retained. After applying the mean replacement of the construct, there were still 188 respondents (1.4%) with missing information. These

individuals were then excluded from the final analysis. The same multi-step process for handling missing data was conducted on the rest of the dependent constructs. Appendix B provides the operational definition for all of the dependent variables.

Data Analyses

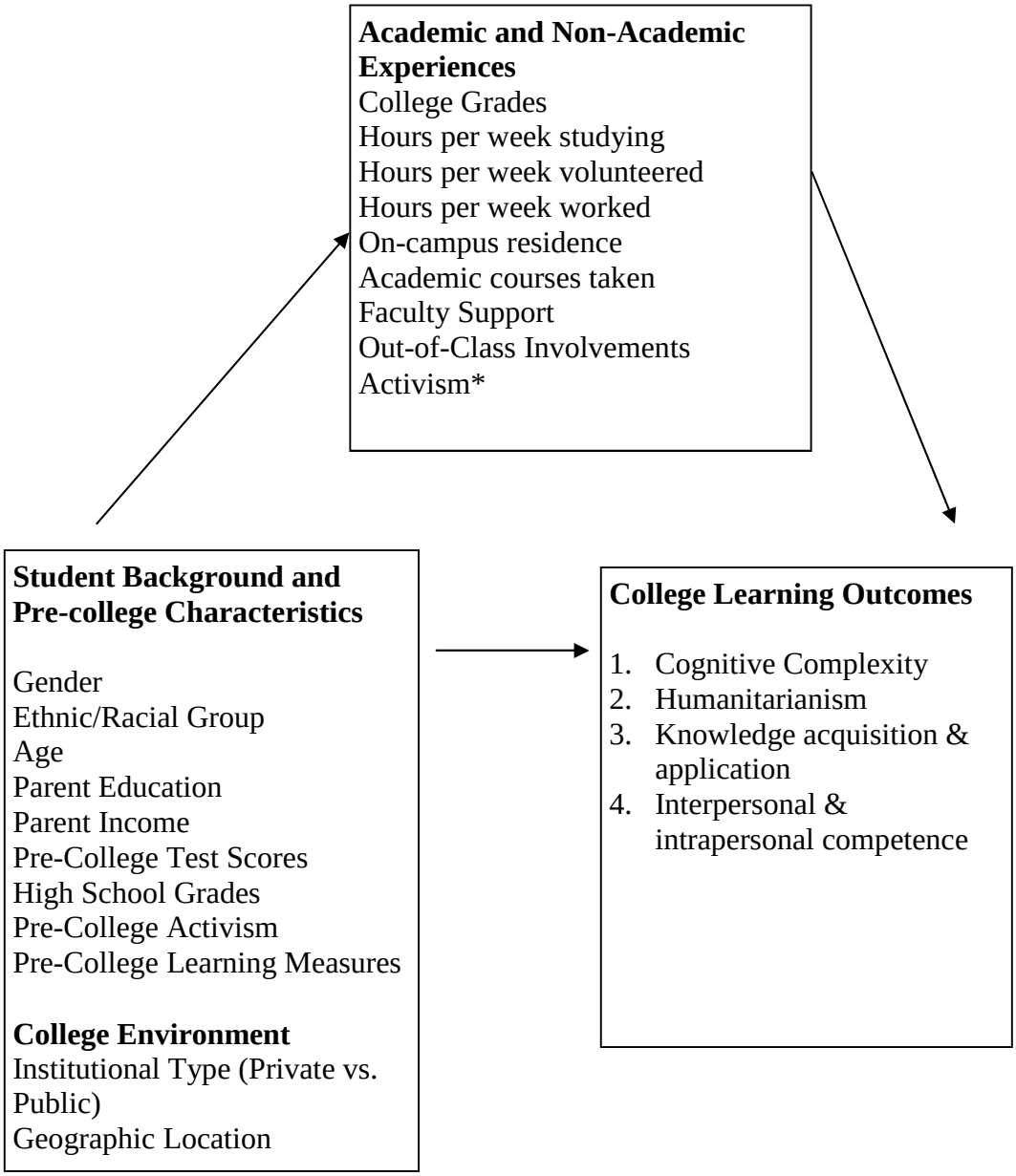
Research is lacking on the learning outcomes associated with student activism as a particular experience of civic engagement. The purpose of this study was to identify the learning outcomes associated with student participation in activism. Specifically:

1. Who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college?
2. What characteristics (of students, of high school activities, of institutions) predict involvement in activism?
3. What are the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence controlling for background characteristics, precollege characteristics, institutional characteristics, and college academic and nonacademic experiences?
4. Are the effects of involvement in activism on learning outcomes the same for all students or do they differ for student with different background characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity)?

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model to be used for this study to answer these questions. In this model, student background characteristics and pre-college characteristics influence college experiences (academic and non-academic). These two clusters of variables, in turn, influence college learning outcomes. The data were analyzed in four stages. The first stage of analysis provided the background

characteristics of students involved in activism. Descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency, mean, and standard deviation) were run on the independent variable, student activism.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework model



*Denotes the main independent variable of interest

The second stage of analysis determined which student demographic and pre-college characteristics predicted student activism. The ordinary least-squares regression was used to regress socio-political influence on student background, demographic, and pre-college variables. Logistic regression was then used, instead of multiple regression, to predict student involvement in demonstration activism. Logistic regression was the best model for predicting the probability of demonstration by students due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable, demonstrations (0=No demonstrations, 1=Demonstration).

The third stage of analysis estimated the unique effects of involvement in activism on specific learning outcomes. Controlling for student demographic and background characteristics, institutional characteristics, and academic and non-academic experiences of college, the author regressed the learning outcomes (cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, interpersonal and intrapersonal, and knowledge acquisition and application) on student activism.

The fourth stage of analysis determined if any conditional effects of involvement in activism on cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, interpersonal and intrapersonal, and knowledge acquisition and application learning outcomes exist. In other words does the effect of learning experiences differ for students (e.g., men and women, White, Black, and Latino students)? Table 4 provides an easy reference of the research questions and analyses to be used.

Table 4

Research Questions and Analysis

Question	**Analysis**
Background characteristics of students involved in activism (Q1)	Descriptive Statistics
Student demographic and institutional characteristics predict student activism (Q2)	Multiple Regression and Logistic Regression
Estimate effects of involvement in activism on learning outcomes controlling for the previous block (Q3)	Multiple Regression
Conditional effects of involvement in activism on learning outcomes (e.g. men and women; White, Black, and Latino students) (Q4)	Multiple Regression

Limitations

Several limitations are linked to this study. The author conducted secondary data analysis of pre-collected data; therefore there are a number of limitations associated with secondary data analysis. First, there are errors of representation (coverage, sampling, and non-response error) inherent in using survey data. Dillman (2000) states, a "remarkable power of the sample survey is its ability to estimate closely the distribution of a characteristic in a population by obtaining information from relatively few elements of that population" (p. 204). While surveys provide a solid estimate of information about a target population, error still exists. One such error is coverage error, a result of not all college student activists having the opportunity to be sampled (Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer, & Tourangeau, 2004). There may be a gap between the target population of all college student activists and the sample of student activists attending a

CIRP participating institution. There are a number of institutions that do not participate in the CIRP studies or attend an institution that administers the Student Information Form but that may not administer the College Student Survey. In addition, this study is overrepresented by private institutions. Of the 13,047 respondents in this study, 12,350 students (94.7%) attended private institutions. Hence, coverage error likely exists before the sample is even taken (Groves et al., 2004).

As with any study, sampling error also exists within this study. As a result of surveying some college student activists and not all college student activists, a sampling bias occurs. As a result of survey design, "We cannot expect sample characteristics to be precisely the same as population characteristics" (Williams & Monge, 2001, p. 58). As a result, there are some students who are not selected into this study. The sample represents some elements of the survey population, but not all of them. In addition, the institutions who participated in the 1999 SIF and 2003 survey limit the sample.

Non-response error is the last type of error that addresses the representatives of the sample. This error represents the failure to obtain the responses from students who were part of the selected sample. In essence, the college student activists who responded to the survey are different from college student activists who did not respond. A student may not have responded because he voluntarily elected not to or was not in attendance when the survey was disseminated. Each institution's non-response error may be different. Administrators at each institution distribute the survey at different time periods and are not consistent with each other. For example, the 1999 Student Information form was either collected "during registration, freshman orientation, or during the first couple weeks of classes" (Sax et al., 1999, p.117). As for the 2003 College Student Survey, an

institution can elect to disseminate the survey at any time from November to June of an academic year. Non-response error can be a threat to external validity.

This research is also limited by the usage of proxies. The learning outcome measures from the 1999 SIF and the 2003 CSS were not exactly the same. A limitation of secondary data analysis is the availability of appropriate proxies (Perna & Titus, 2004). This author created proxies that she believed to control for post-test outcomes and recognizes that they are imperfect approximations.

There was also no pre-test conducted in this study to examine initial student characteristics of students involved in activism and those not involved in activism before college. In essence, there was no true random assignment of students into activists and non-activists making for statistically non-equivalent groups at onset of study. Consequently, a selection bias exists. A selection bias "includes all situations in which the units that contribute outcome measures to a comparison between those receiving and not receiving the program differ on some inherent characteristics that influence their status on those outcome measures, aside from those directly related to program participation (Rossi, Lipsey, & Freeman, 2004, p. 271). For the purpose of this study, this means that growth on the learning outcomes maybe attributed to other characteristics and not necessarily student involvement in activism. While statistical controls were used to control variables in this study, selection bias cannot be completely removed from identifying the effects of activism on learning outcomes.

These two groups of students in this study may be different from one another in very important ways that cannot be attributed to their involvement in activism while in

college. The learning associated with activism may in fact be due to other factors not captured during a pre-test. With no pre-test a selection effect occurs.

In addition to the limitations over the representativeness of the sample, data acquired by self-reports also has limitations. While self-report data is widely used in research on college effects, there should be some caution as “self-reports of learning and academic development are not precisely the same as more traditional measures of the same outcomes” (Pike, 1996, p.111).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of this study and addresses the research questions. The results are presented in five sections: (a) general descriptive statistics of the final analytic sample, (b) descriptive information on students involved and not involved in student activism, (c) predictors of student involvement in activism, (d) effects of student involvement in activism on cognitive complexity, knowledge acquisition and application, humanitarianism, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence, and (e) conditional effects of student involvement in activism on cognitive complexity, knowledge acquisition and application, humanitarianism, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Each section provides a brief description of the findings. The chapter concludes with key findings from the study.

Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

The initial sample for this study consisted of 15,571 respondents from institutions who completed both the 1999 Student Information Form (SIF) and 2003 College Student Survey (CSS). The final sample is different from the original sample. Not included are students who were not full-time, first-time students in 1999, who had missing data on the dependent variables, and who had missing data on key variables within the study.

The final analytic sample consisted of 13,047 students. Of the 13,047 student respondents, 12,350 (94.7%) attended private institutions, 697 (5.3%) attended public institutions, 8,064 (61.8%) were female, and 4,983 (38.2%) were male students. Private

institutions were overrepresented in this sample. The modal and median age of the students was 22 years of age. Private institutions were overrepresented in this sample.

Students were asked, to mark "Your ethnic background." Students could check as many responses as applied (African, African American/Black, West Indian/Caribbean Black, Hispanic Black, multiracial, and other). For data analysis purposes, the ethnic demographic categories were collapsed into six dummy variables (White, African American, Latino, Asian American/Pacific Islander, Multi-Racial, and Other/Native American). Of the 13,047 student respondents, 10,952 reported ethnic background as White (83.9%); 611 (4.7%) Multi-Racial; 412 (3.2%) Latino; 457 (3.5%) Asian American/Pacific Islander; 372 (2.9%) African American; and 243 (1.9%) other race. Complete descriptive data (mean, standard deviation, and frequencies) is provided at the end of this chapter in Appendix C. For variables categorical in nature such as ethnicity, gender, demonstrations, etc., the mean value represents the percentage respondents indicated yes.

Student Involvement in Activism

The initial research question in this study was, "Who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college?" Three sets of description data needed to be analyzed and compared. Activism in this study consisted of two items: participation in demonstration and the composite score of student responses to two items measuring how important is influencing the political structure and influencing social values (Socio-Political Influence). In order to effectively answer who is involved in activism, I compared descriptive data of students who did and did not participate in demonstrations; descriptive data of students who were one standard deviation above the mean on their

socio-political influence score and one standard deviation below the mean on socio-political influence score; and lastly the descriptive data of students who demonstrated and had a standard deviation above the mean socio-political influence scores compared to those who did not demonstrate and had a standard deviation below the mean socio-political influence scores.

The results of this analysis highlighted that students involved in activism or not involved were no different when comparing demographic descriptive data (gender, modal age, college grades, etc.). Where students differed was in academic course selection and out-of-class involvements. Students involved in activism, defined here as demonstrations and high socio-political influence score, seemingly enrolled in ethnic studies and women's studies courses more frequently than did students who did not participate in activism. Similarly these same students who were involved in activism participated in the out-of class activities of student government, racial/ethnic student organizations, and leadership training more than did students who did not participate in activism while in college.

Demonstrations

There were 2,905 (22.3%) students who reported participation in demonstrations and 10,142 (77.7%) students who did not participate in demonstrations during college. Of those students who did demonstrate, 2,766 (95.2%) attended private colleges or universities with 1,249 (43%) attending a college or university on the east coast. Women made up the majority of the demonstration population at 1,880 (64.7%). The ethnic make-up of student demonstrators was 2,247 (77.3%) White, 163 (5.6%) Multi-Racial, 158 (5.4%) African-American, 140 (4.8%) Latino, 118 (4.1%) Asian-Pacific Islander,

and 79 (2.7%) other race. The modal age of respondents was 22 years of age with 2,208 (76%) of students' college grades ranging from B- through A grades.

Of the 2,905 students who participated in demonstrations in college, 1,559 (53.6%) took an ethnic studies course and 919 (31.6%) took a women's studies course. The out-of-class involvements of demonstrators included 518 (17.8%) participants in student government, 793 (27.3%) in racial/ethnic student organizations, 939 (32.3%) participation in leadership training, 649 (22.3%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 935 (32.2%) who were involved in collegiate sports.

There were 10,142 respondents who did not participate in demonstrations. Of those who did not demonstrate, 9,584 (94.5%) attended private colleges or universities with 3,925 (38.6%) attending a college or university on the east coast. Women made up the majority of non-demonstrators at 6,184 (61%). The ethnic make-up of non-demonstrators was 8,705 (85.8%) White, 448 (4.4%) Multi-Racial, 339 (3.3%) Asian-Pacific Islander, 272 (2.7%) Latino, 214 (2.1%) African-American, and 164 (1.6%) other race. The modal age of respondents was 22 years of age with 7,570 (74.6%) of students' having college grades that ranged from B- through A.

Of the 10,142 students who did not report participating in a demonstration in college, 3,917 (38.6%) took an ethnic studies course and 2,212 (21.8%) took a women's studies course. The out-of-class involvements of non-demonstrators included 1,269 (12.5%) participated in student government, 1,216 (12.5%) in racial/ethnic student organization, 2,248 (22.2%) participated in leadership training, 1,474 (14.5%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 3,103 (30.6%) who were involved in collegiate sports.

Table 5 details student demonstrators alongside the non-demonstrators along select variables of interest.

Table 5

Comparison of Student Demonstrators and Non-Demonstrators

	Demonstrators N=2,905	**Non-Demonstrators N=10,142**
Variables of Interest	Percentage and Frequency	Percentage and Frequency
Female	65% (N=1,880)	61% (N=6,184)
Took an ethnic studies course	54% (N=1,558)	39% (N=3,917)
Took a women studies course	32% (N=919)	22% (N=2,212)
Participated in intercollegiate athletics	32% (N=9355)	31% (N=3,103)
Participated in Social Fraternity/Sorority	22% (N=649)	23% (N=2,331)
Participated in Student Government	18% (N=518)	13% (N=1,269)
Involved in Racial/ethnic Organization	27% (N=793)	12% (N=1,216)
Participated in Leadership Training	32% (N=939)	22% (N=2,248)

Socio-Political Influence

Students were asked how important is influencing the political structure and influencing social values. The composite score of an individual's response to these two items became their score on the variable socio-political influence. Students were then separated into two separate groups. Students who were one standard deviation above the mean on their socio-political influence score (high socio-political influence) and one

standard deviation below the mean on socio-political influence score (low socio-political influence) were compared. Standard deviation provides a "measure from the average distance from the mean" (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2008, p. 111). In looking at students' socio-political influence scores one standard deviation away from the mean includes 34.1% of the student population away from the mean. The students' socio-political influence scores one standard deviation above and below the mean scores includes 68% of the student respondents.

There were 2,873 students with high socio-political influence scores. Conversely, there were 4,248 students low socio-political influence students. Of those students who were high socio-political influence 2,763 (96.2%) attended private colleges or universities, with 1,161 (40.4%) attending a college or university on the east coast. Women slightly made up the majority of this group at 1,639 (57%). The ethnic make-up of these students was 2,268 (78.9%) White, 158 (5.5%) Multi-Racial, 138 (4.8%) African-American, 130 (4.5%) Latino, 102 (3.6%) Asian-Pacific Islander, and 77 (2.7%) other race. The modal age of respondents was 22 years of age with 2,176 (75.7%) of students' having college grades that ranged from B- through A.

Of the 2,873 students with high socio-political influence scores, 1,489 (51.8%) took an ethnic studies course and 871 (30.3%) took a women studies course. The out-of-class involvements of activists included 572 (19.9%) participation in student government, 671 (23.4%) in racial/ethnic student organization, 886 (30.8%) participation in leadership training, 649 (22.6%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 888 (30.9%) who were involved in collegiate sports. Table 6 details the high socio-political influence alongside the low-socio-political influence students.

Table 6

Comparison of Students in High and Low Socio-Political Influence

	High Socio Political N=2,873	Low Socio Political N=4,248
Variables of Interest	Percentage and Frequency	Percentage and Frequency
Female	57% (N=1.639)	64% (N=2,729)
Institutional type (private)	96% (N=2,763)	94% (N=3,981)
Took an ethnic studies course	52% (N=1,489)	34% (N=1,451)
Took a women studies course	30% (N=871)	20% (N=862)
Participated in intercollegiate athletics	31% (N=888)	31% (N=1,336)
Participated in social fraternity/sorority	23% (N=649)	23% (N=975)
Participated in student government	20% (N=573)	10% (N=431)
Involved in racial/ethnic organization	23% (N=671)	10% (N=424)
Participated in leadership training	31% (N=886)	19% (N=793)

There were 4,248 students in the low socio-political influence group. Of these students, most were women (64%) and attended private colleges or universities (93.7%). The ethnic make-up was 3,704 (87.2%) White, 173 (4.1%) Multi-Racial, 133 (3.1%) Asian-Pacific Islander, 99 (2.3%) Latino, 69 (1.6%) African-American, and 70 (1.6%) other race. The modal age of respondents was 22 years of age with 3,188 (75%) of students having college grades that ranged from B- through A.

Of the 4,248 students who responded one standard deviation below the mean in their belief of influencing the political structure and influencing social values, 1,451

(34.2%) took an ethnic studies course and 862 (20.3%) took a women's studies course. The out-of-class involvements of non-demonstrators included 431 (10.1%) who participated in student government, 424 (10%) in racial/ethnic student organization, 793 (18.7%) who participated in leadership training, 975 (23%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 1,336 (31.5%) who were involved in collegiate sports.

Demonstration and Social-Political Influence

Finally, the descriptive data of students who demonstrated and had one standard deviation above the mean socio-political influence scores (high socio-political influence) as compared to those who did not demonstrate and had one standard deviation below the mean socio-political influence scores (low socio-political influence) were examined. There were 1,100 students (8.4%) who responded that they demonstrated while in college fell into the "high socio-political influence" group. Conversely, there were 3,751 students (28.7%) who did not demonstrate while in college and were in the low socio-political influence group.

Of those students who demonstrated and were in the high socio-political influence group, 463 (42.1%) attended a college or university on the east coast. Women made up the majority of this population at 651 (59.2%). The ethnic make-up of these student was 812 (73.8%) White, 70 (6.4%) Multi-Racial, 72 (6.5%) African-American, 68 (6.4%) Latino, 38 (3.5%) were Asian-Pacific Islander, and 40 (3.6%) other race. The modal age of respondents was 22 years of age with 823 (74.8%) of students' college grades ranging from B- through A.

Of these 1,100 demonstrating, high socio-political students, 675 (61.4%) took an ethnic studies course and 398 (36.2%) took a women's studies course. The out-of-class

involvements of demonstrators included 238 (21.6%) participation in student government, 355 (32.3%) in racial/ethnic student organization, 395 (35.9%) participation in leadership training, 325 (29.5%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 888 (30.9%) who were involved in collegiate sports. Table 7 provides a description of students in the high socio-political influence group who also participated in demonstrations and the low-socio-political influence groups who did not participate in demonstrations.

Table 7

Comparison of Demonstrators and High Socio-Political Influence and Non-Demonstrators and Low Socio-Political Influence

	Demonstrators & High Socio Political N=1,100	**Non-Demonstrators & Low Socio-Political N=3,751**
Variables of Interest	Percentage and Frequency	Percentage and Frequency
Female	59% (N=654)	64% (N=2,391)
Took an ethnic studies course	61% (N=675)	33% (N=1,232)
Took a women studies course	36% (N=398)	20% (N=732)
Participated in intercollegiate athletics	30% (N=325)	31% (N=1,159)
Participated in Social Fraternity/Sorority	21% (N=233)	23% (N=851)
Participated in Student Government	22% (N=238)	10% (N=370)
Involved in Racial/ethnic Organization	32% (N=355)	9% (N=322)
Participated in Leadership Training	36% (N=395)	18% (N=669)

On the other side, 3,751 students did not demonstrate while in college and were also in the “low socio-political influence” group. Of those, most were female (64%), White (88%), and attended an East coast college or university (40%). The mean and modal age of respondents was 22 years of age, with 2,805 (74.8%) of students’ college grades ranging from B- through A.

Of the 3,751 students who responded one standard deviation above the mean in their strong belief in influencing the political structure and influencing social values, identified throughout this chapter as the high socio-political group, 1,232 (32.8%) took an ethnic studies course and 732 (19.5%) took a women’s studies course. The out-of-class involvements of non-demonstrators included 370 (9.9%) participation in student government, 322 (8.6%) in racial/ethnic student organization, 669 (17.8%) participation in leadership training, 851 (22.7%) who joined a social fraternity or sorority, and 1,159 (30.9%) who were involved in collegiate sports.

Predicting Involvement in Activism

The second research question in this study was “what characteristics (of students, of high school activities, of institutions) predict involvement in activism?” After it was known who reported activist experiences, the data were examined to determine which variables influenced that involvement. Students’ involvement in activism (demonstrations and social-political influence) in their senior year was regressed on student background and pre-college characteristics, as well as on institutional characteristics and college experiences. In other words, student background, institutional characteristics, and college experiences were used to predict student involvement in activism. The results for the dependent variable socio-political influence are presented in

Table 8, reported as unstandardized regression coefficients significant at $p < .05$, $p < .01$, and $p < .001$. For the dependent variable, demonstration activism, logistic regression was used and results are presented in Table 9.

There were several variables positively predicting students' high socio-political influence scores during college. These included students' ethnicity, mother's education, high school activism, certain types of collegiate involvements, and curricular coursework. Students who reported having high socio-political influence scores were more likely to be female, African American, or Latino, to identify as having high faculty support, and to have taken ethnic or women's studies courses. Likewise, several variables such as higher ACT scores and self-reported high school grades above an A negatively predicted high socio-political influence scores. High socio-political influence scores was associated with students' self-reported higher faculty support, involvement in out-of class activities (volunteerism, student government, racial/ethnic organization, leadership training), and enrollment in ethnic or women's studies courses.

Logistic regression, instead of multiple regression, was used to predict student involvement in demonstration activism. Logistic regression was the best model for predicting the probability of demonstration by students, due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable, demonstrations (0=No demonstrations, 1=Demonstration). Logistic regression provides the expected probability of demonstration "that varies as a function of the values the independent variable(s) can take for each subject" (Cabrera, 1994, p.227).

The first step of the equation included demographic and pre-college characteristics, and the second step included these variables along with college

environment and college involvements. According to the chi-square statistic, the overall model is significant at the .000 level. The overall model predicts 78.9% of demonstration participation accurately. Table 9 at the end of this chapter provides the independent variables which were significant predictors of student participation in demonstration activism.

An odds ratio provides the effect of a change of one unit of an independent variable on the change in the odds of the dependent variable. In other words, the odds ratio in logistic regression is the probability that an event (demonstrator vs. non-demonstrator) will occur divided by the probability the event will not occur (Crichton, 2001). If an odds ratio is less than one, this indicates the event (demonstration) is less likely to occur, while an odds ratio more than one, indicates the event (demonstration) is more likely to occur in relation to the predictor variables or independent variables (Pampel, 2000). In this study, the odds ratio represents the likelihood that a student is expected or not expected to demonstrate in relation to the predictor variables/independent variables in the model. The odds ratio are reported in Table 9.

Students with decreased odds of demonstrating included females. Females were .904 times the odds of males to not demonstrate. Other students who had decreased odds of participating in demonstrations were students who attended colleges in the Midwest, West, or South Region of the United States (.846, .715, and .853 times, respectively as compared to students on the East Coast). Students who worked no hours and who worked over 16 hours a week (.863 and .876 times, respectively as compared to students who worked 6-10 hours a week), and also those who did not volunteer during the week (.605 times as compared to students who volunteered 2 or less hours per week) also had

decreased odds of demonstrating. Interestingly, students who had higher ACT scores (.985 times) and high-school grades of A+ (.735 times as compared to students receiving A- to B grades) had decreased odds of participating in demonstrations.

On the other hand, students who had increased odds of participating in demonstrations were students who were involved outside of the classroom in leadership training and ethnic organizations (1.26 and 1.99 times respectively as compared to students who were not involved in these activities) and who participated in volunteerism for 3 to 5 hours and for more than 6 hours a week (1.428 and 1.710 respectively as compared to students who volunteered less than 2 hours a week). Students who were African-American, Latino, and listed other ethnicity (1.35, 1.45, and 1.31 times, respectively, as compared to Whites), had high-school grades of B and below (1.41 times as compared to students who received A- to B grades), participated in demonstrations in high school (2.13 times), and experienced high faculty support (1.522 times) also had increased odds of participating in demonstrations while in college. In addition, students who took ethnic studies courses and women's studies courses had increased odds of demonstrating (1.363 in both cases) as compared to students who had not taken these courses.

In summary, both student characteristics in the socio-political influence and demonstration models predicted students' involvement in activism. Compared with students with low socio-political influence scores and no involvement in demonstrations, those students who reported high socio-political influence scores and involvement in demonstrations tended to be male, African-American or Latino, involved in leadership training and racial/ethnic student organizations, who experienced high faculty support,

and who enrolled in ethnic and women's studies' courses. In addition, students who had higher ACT scores and self-reported average grades above an A were less likely to be involved in activism, either demonstration or high socio-political influence scores.

Effects of Activism on Learning Outcomes

The third stage of analysis in this study examined the effect of involvement in activism on four separate learning outcomes (cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence) controlling for background characteristics, precollege characteristics, institutional characteristics, and college academic and nonacademic experiences. Multiple regression was used "to identify (a) how much total variance a set of predictors can account for in criterion variable and (b) which predictors can explain more variance in the criterion" (Heppner & Heppner, 2004, p.263). For each learning outcome (cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence) a regression model was used with two predictor blocks (pre-college characteristics and college characteristics, college involvements, and activism).

The regression model for each learning outcome used the two activism items: (1) participation in demonstration and (2) the composite score of student responses to how important are influencing the political structure and influencing social values (Socio-Political Influence). This model estimates the unique effects of demonstrations, net of socio-political influence, on each learning outcome as well as the unique effects of socio-political influence, net of demonstrations, on each learning outcome.

Cognitive Complexity

The learning outcome cognitive complexity has been defined as "cognitive skills including reflective thought, critical thinking, quantitative reasoning, and intellectual flexibility" (Kuh, 1993, p. 24). The operational definition of cognitive complexity in this study was an individual's score from the CSS on a 2-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessing change in critical thinking and reasoning four years after entering college. The items are: "Ability to think critically" and "Analytical and problem-solving skills."

The first block of variables entered into the model was socio-demographic characteristics. These characteristics accounted for 1% of the total variance in cognitive complexity (R^2= .015, F(26, 13020) = 8.724, p<.000). "The R^2 refers to the percentage of the variance in the criterion explained by predictors in total, which would be equivalent to the estimate of the effect sizes" (Heppner & Heppner, 2004, p. 261). Table 10 at the end of this chapter summarizes the results of this stage of analysis. Results are based from the sample of 13,047 respondents and are reported as unstandardized (b) regression coefficients. In the second block, college characteristic and involvements along with activism accounted for a significant amount of additional variance of cognitive complexity after controlling the variance explained by socio-demographic characteristics (R^2= .117, R^2 change= .103 (F= 54,12992)=32.868, p <.000).

The full model examined the socio-demographic characteristics and college involvements and environment that influenced the learning outcome cognitive complexity by the end of students' senior year. Characteristics that positively predicted increases in cognitive complexity were: gender (male), ethnicity (Latino or African

American) and parental income ($75,000). Of the experiences that positively predicted increases in cognitive complexity, there were two that were significant: women's studies course and reported high faculty support.

Students who reported high socio-political influence had a small but significant, positive effect on the learning outcome cognitive complexity (β=.034) at the end of their senior year. Factors negatively predicting cognitive complexity growth are students who studied five hours or less per week and those with college grades of B- and below.

Humanitarianism

The learning outcome humanitarianism was defined as "an understanding and appreciation of human differences including an increased sensitivity to the needs of others" (Kuh, 1993, p. 24). The operational definition of humanitarianism in this study was an individual's score from the CSS on a 3-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) that looked at items focused on a students' sensitivity to the needs of others. Items are: "Understanding of social problems facing our nation," "Understanding of global issues," and "Understanding of the problems facing your community."

The first block of variables entered into the model was socio-demographic characteristics. These characteristics accounted for approximately 4% of the total variance in humanitarianism (R^2= .037, F(26, 13020) = 19.204, p<.000). Table 11 at the end of this chapter summarizes the results of this stage of analysis. In the second block, college characteristic and involvements along with activism accounted for a significant amount of additional variance of humanitarianism after controlling the variance explained by socio-demographic characteristics (R^2= .183, R^2 change= .179 (F= 54,12992)=53.784, p <.000).

The full model examined the socio-demographic characteristics and college involvements and environment influencing the learning outcome humanitarianism by the end of students' senior year. Characteristics that positively predicted increases in humanitarianism were: gender (male), parental income ($75,000-$149,999), and geographic location of higher education institutions (Midwest or South). Of the experiences that positively predicted increases in humanitarianism there were several that were significant: enrolled in ethnic studies or a women's studies course, reported high faculty support, involved in a racial/ethnic student organization, participated in leadership training and volunteered six or more hours a week.

Students who reported high socio-political influence scores (β= .112) and demonstration activism (β=.079) had a small, but significant positive effect on the learning outcome humanitarianism at the end of their senior year. Students' increase in the humanitarianism learning outcome was impacted by their involvement in demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores. Factors negatively predicting humanitarianism growth are students who were multi-racial, joined a fraternity or sorority, did not study or volunteer during the week, and who worked less than five hours per week.

Knowledge Acquisition and Application

Knowledge acquisition and application is defined as "understanding knowledge from a range of disciplines and physical, geographic, economic, political, religious, and cultural realities, and the ability to relate knowledge to daily life, including using information presented in one class in other classes or other areas of life" (Kuh, 1993, p. 24). An individual's score from the CSS on a 9-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger

to 1= much weaker) assessed change in understanding of a wide range of disciplines and application of this knowledge to daily life four years after entering college. Items are: "General knowledge," "Knowledge of a particular field or discipline," Knowledge of people from different races/cultures," "Foreign language ability," "Computer skills," "Mathematical skills," "Public speaking ability," "Writing skills," and "Ability to get along with different races/cultures."

The first block of variables entered into the model was socio-demographic characteristics. These characteristics accounted for approximately 3% of the total variance in knowledge acquisition and application (R^2= .028, F (25, 13021) = 14.761, p<.000). Table 12 at the end of this chapter summarizes the results of this stage of analysis. In the second block, college characteristic and involvements along with activism accounted for a significant amount of additional variance of knowledge acquisition and application after controlling the variance explained by socio-demographic characteristics (R^2= .149, R^2 change= .121 (F= 53, 12993)= 42.850, p <.000).

The full model examined the socio-demographic characteristics and college involvements and environment influencing the learning outcome knowledge acquisition and application by the end of students' senior year. Characteristics that positively predicted increases in knowledge acquisition and application were: gender (male), ethnicity (Latino, or Asian/Pacific Islander American), high school grades (A or higher), parental income (over $75,000), and geographic location of higher education institutions (South or West). Of the experiences that positively predicted increases in knowledge acquisition and application there were several that were significant: enrolled in ethnic studies course, studied more than 16 hours per week, reported high faculty support,

involved in a racial/ethnic student organization, and participated in leadership training and collegiate athletics.

Students reporting high socio-political scores (β= .028) and demonstration activism (β=.020) had a small, but significant, positive effect on the learning outcome knowledge acquisition and application at the end of their senior year. Factors negatively predicting humanitarianism growth are students who were female, with higher ACT scores, and who studied less than five hours per week.

Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Competence

Interpersonal and intrapersonal competence is defined as "a coherent integrated constellation of personal attributes (e.g., identity, self-esteem, confidence, integrity, appreciation for the aesthetic and spiritual qualities of life and the natural world, sense of civic responsibility) and skills (e.g., how to work with people different from oneself" (Kuh, 1993, p. 25). An individual's score on a 2-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessed change in personal attributes and skills. Items are: "Leadership abilities" and "Interpersonal skills."

The first block of variables entered into the model was socio-demographic characteristics. These characteristics accounted for approximately 3% of the total variance in interpersonal and intrapersonal competence (R^2= .033, F (25, 13,021) = 17.541, p<.000). Table 13 at the end of this chapter summarizes the results of this stage of analysis. In the second block, college characteristic and involvements along with activism accounted for a significant amount of additional variance of interpersonal and intrapersonal competence after controlling the variance explained by socio-demographic characteristics (R^2= .135, R^2 change= .103 (F= 53, 12993)= 38.411, p <.000).

The full model examined the socio-demographic characteristics and college involvements and environment influencing the learning outcome interpersonal and intrapersonal competence by the end of students' senior year. Characteristics that positively predicted increases in interpersonal and intrapersonal competence were: gender (male), ethnicity (Asian/Pacific Islander American), parental income (between $75,000 and $149,999), and mother's education (high school or less). Of the experiences that positively predicted increases in interpersonal and intrapersonal competence there were several that were significant: reported high faculty support, involved in a racial/ethnic student organization, collegiate athletics, or joined a fraternity/sorority.

For students reporting high socio-political influence scores (β= .040), there was a small, but significant, positive effect on the learning outcome interpersonal and intrapersonal competence at the end of their senior year. Factors negatively predicting interpersonal and intrapersonal competence growth are students who were female, student self-identified as multi-racial and other race, had higher ACT scores, attended a private college or university, did not volunteer, and studied less than five hours a week.

In summary, the results on the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes varied depending on the type of student activism. Student with high socio-political influence scores were associated with positive growth in all four of the learning outcomes: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Student involvement in demonstration activism was associated with positive growth in only two of the learning outcomes: humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application.

Conditional Effects of Student Activism

The final stage of analysis examined the extent to which the effect of involvement in activism on learning outcomes was conditional. In other words, the analysis explored if different students (e.g., women and men, and White students and Latino, African American, etc.) experience the effects of involvement in activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence differently. To analyze the conditional effects, cross-products of the variables of interest were created (Hardy, 1993). The variables of interest were the cross-products of gender and race/ethnicity with activism (demonstrations and socio-political influence). For example, in gender and activism, the coefficient for the interaction term estimates the extent to which the effect of being female differs for those participating and not participating in activism on the learning outcomes of interest. The set of cross-products was added to the direct effects model for the learning outcomes: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence.

The addition of the cross-product term of race/ethnicity and demonstrations and race/ethnicity and socio-political influence was not associated with a statistically significant increase in the R^2 explained for cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence learning outcomes. In addition, the cross-product term of gender and demonstrations and gender and socio-political influence was not associated with a statistically significant increase in the R^2 explained for cognitive complexity, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence learning outcomes. The

addition of the cross-product term of gender and socio-political influence and gender and demonstrations was only associated with a statistically significant increase in the R^2 explained for the humanitarianism learning outcome. This analysis revealed that involvement demonstrations and having high socio-political influence scores had different effect sizes on humanitarianism outcomes for females and for males. The results of this stage of the analysis are provided in Table 14 for demonstrations and Table 15 for socio-political influence at the end of this chapter.

In a second step of the analysis, a regression analysis was run separately based on the statistically significant cross-products (e.g., females only, males only) in order to determine the effect size. Women with high socio-political influence scores have a .013 stronger effect size than do men with high socio-political influence scores. The results of this stage of the analysis are reported in Table 16 on socio-political influence at the end of this chapter. Women involved in demonstrations have a .055 stronger effect size than do men involved in demonstrations. The results of this stage of the analysis are reported in Table 17 at the end of the chapter.

In summary, this analysis explored if different students (e.g., women and men, and White and Latino, African American, etc.) experience differently the effects of involvement in activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Conditional effects did not exist for students of different races/ethnicities with regard to the various learning outcomes: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Conditional effects only existed for male and female students

involved in demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores for the learning outcome humanitarianism. Males and females were both positively affected by their involvement.

Summary of Key Results

The analyses conducted suggest a number of important findings. The results address predictions of student involvement in student activism, the effect of involvement in student activism on learning outcomes, and whether these effects differ for different students. These findings are summarized below:

1. Students who demonstrated and had high socio-political influence score enrolled in ethnic studies and women's studies courses and were involved in student government, racial/ethnic organizations, and leadership training more than were students who did not participate in activism.
2. The characteristics best predicting involvement in having high socio-political influence scores and demonstrations were: being male, African-American or Latino, involved in leadership training and racial/ethnic student organizations, experiencing high faculty support, and enrolling in ethnic and women studies' courses.
3. High socio-political influence scores was associated with positive growth in all four learning outcomes under study: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence.
4. Student involvement in demonstration activism predicted positive growth in two outcomes: humanitarianism and knowledge application and acquisition.

5. Conditional effects were found for male and female students with high socio-political influence scores and demonstrations for the learning outcome humanitarianism. Both groups had gains that were predicted by their involvement.
6. There were no conditional effects for students of various racial/ethnic groups involved in activism with regard to learning outcomes.

This chapter presented an overview of the sample, provided the results from the research question, and highlighted key results. Chapter V will discuss key results, implications of the results, and recommendations for student affairs practice and future research.

Table 8
Predictors of Student Activism Using Socio-Political Influence (Unstandardized Coefficients)

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics		**Model 2** College Characteristics & Involvement	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	1.474	0.114***	0.591	0.153***
Female	-0.056	0.027**	-0.231	0.028***
African American	0.586	0.079***	0.301	0.081***
Other Race	0.224	0.094*	0.100	0.092
Latino	0.342	0.074***	0.195	0.074**
Asian/Pacific Islander American	0.102	0.070	-0.048	0.070
Multi-Racial	0.226	0.060***	0.078	0.060
Under 21 Years of age	0.020	0.837	0.000	0.812
21 Years of age	0.087	0.111	0.088	0.108
23 Years of age	0.094	0.029***	0.090	0.029**
24 Years of age	0.366	0.176*	0.375	0.171*
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.100	0.040**	0.103	0.039**
Mother's educ (some college)	0.073	0.037*	0.070	0.036*
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.128	0.035***	0.101	0.034**
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.062	0.043	-0.063	0.041
Father's educ (some college)	0.011	0.041	-0.003	0.040
Father's educ (graduate school)	0.061	0.033	0.047	0.032
income less than $49,999	0.015	0.036	-0.001	0.035
income $75,000-149,999	0.004	0.033	0.004	0.032
income $150,000 or more	0.033	0.041	0.030	0.040
ACT scores	-0.006	0.004	-0.008	0.004*
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.064	0.029*	-0.088	0.029**
high school grades (B- and below)	0.091	0.064	0.144	0.063*
Sif Socio-Political Influence	0.406	0.009***	0.358	0.009***
Private College or University			0.048	0.058
Midwest Region			-0.009	0.030
South Region			0.019	0.041
West Region			0.000	0.041
Faculty Support Scale			0.445	0.030***
Hours study-none per week			0.522	0.181**
Hours study-5 hrs or less per week			-0.040	0.034
Hours study- 11-15 hrs per week			0.028	0.036
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			-0.035	0.034
College grades (A to A plus)			0.007	0.035
College grades (B- and below)			-0.088	0.049
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.201	0.027***
Taken a Women's Studies Course			0.176	0.031***
Residence			-0.078	0.055
Hours work-none per week			0.002	0.038
Hours work-5 hours or less per week			0.071	0.038
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.020	0.041
Hours work-16 hrs per week			0.002	0.038
Collegiate athletic participation			-0.014	0.027
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			-0.076	0.031**
Hours volunteer per week-none			-0.147	0.029***
Hours volunteer per week-3-5 hrs			0.253	0.041***
Hours volunteer per week-6 or more hours			0.277	0.052***
Participated in Student Government			0.173	0.037***
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.291	0.038***
Participated in Leadership Training			0.133	.030***
Model Statistics				
R^2		0.155		0.207
Adjusted R^2		0.153		0.204
Change in R^2		0.155***		0.052***
Number of Cases = 13,046				

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9
Predictors of Student Activism Using Demonstrations: Logistic Regression

	B	Std. Error	Sig.	Exp (B)/Odds Ratio
Female	-0.101	0.051	0.050	0.904*
African American	0.296	0.129	0.022	1.344*
Other Race	0.368	0.153	0.016	1.445*
Latino	0.266	0.121	0.028	1.305*
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.004	0.122	0.971	0.996
Multi-Racial	0.044	0.105	0.674	1.045
Under 21 years of age	-20.631	20611.627	0.999	0.000
21 Years of age	-0.116	0.196	0.552	0.890
23 Years of age	0.052	0.052	0.315	1.053
24 Years of age	0.391	0.290	0.177	1.479
Mother's educ (high school or less)	-0.036	0.071	0.616	0.965
Mother's educ (some college)	-0.026	0.066	0.697	0.975
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.064	0.062	0.296	1.067
Father's educ (high school or less)	0.103	0.075	0.168	1.108
Father's educ (some college)	0.101	0.072	0.162	1.106
Father's educ (graduate school)	0.060	0.060	0.317	1.062
Income less than $49,999	0.010	0.062	0.871	1.010
Income $75,000-149,999	-0.007	0.060	0.901	0.993
Income $150,000 or more	-0.069	0.075	0.359	0.934
ACT scores	-0.015	0.007	0.037	0.985*
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.308	0.054	0.000	0.735***
high school grades (B- and below)	0.342	0.103	0.001	1.408***
SIF-Demonstrations	0.756	0.046	0.000	2.131***
Private College or University	-0.184	0.109	0.090	0.832
Midwest Region	-0.167	0.055	0.002	0.846**
South Region	-0.336	0.077	0.000	0.715***
West Region	-0.159	0.073	0.029	0.853*
Faculty Support Scale	0.420	0.054	0.000	1.522***
Hours study-none per week	0.842	0.295	0.004	2.320**
Hours study-5 hrs or less per week	0.041	0.062	0.513	1.041
Hours study- 11-15 hrs per week	0.069	0.066	0.296	1.071
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week	0.009	0.063	0.888	1.009
College grades (A to A plus)	-0.048	0.066	0.461	0.953
College grades (B- and below)	-0.031	0.088	0.720	0.969
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course	0.310	0.047	0.000	1.363***
Taken a Women's Studies Course	0.310	0.053	0.000	1.363***
Residence	0.149	0.100	0.139	1.160
Hours work-none per week	-0.147	0.071	0.038	0.863*
Hours work-5 hours or less per week	0.148	0.068	0.029	1.160*
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week	-0.039	0.073	0.597	0.962
Hours work-16 hrs per week	-0.132	0.068	0.053	0.876*
Collegiate athletic participation	0.046	0.049	0.352	1.047
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority	-0.079	0.056	0.159	0.924
Hours volunteer per week-none	-0.503	0.056	0.000	0.605***
Hours volunteer per week-3-5 hrs	0.356	0.067	0.000	1.428***
Hours volunteer per week-6 or more hours	0.536	0.083	0.000	1.710***
Participated in Student Government	0.147	0.064	0.021	1.158*
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization	0.691	0.062	0.000	1.995***
Participated in Leadership Training	0.232	0.052	0.000	1.261***
Constant	-2.33	0.284	0.000	0.097***

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 10
Effect of Involvement of Demonstration and Socio-Political Influence on Cognitive Complexity (Unstandardized Coefficients)

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics		Model 2 College Characteristics & Involvement	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
(Constant)	4.013	0.048***	3.387	0.060***
Female	-0.001	0.010	-0.070	0.010***
African American	0.062	.030*	0.045	0.030
Other Race	-0.038	0.035	-0.050	0.034
Latino	0.082	0.028***	0.077	0.027**
Asian/Pacific Islander American	0.050	0.026	0.055	0.026*
Multi-Racial	-0.033	0.023	-0.042	0.022
Under 21 years of age	-0.186	0.314	-0.249	0.297
21 Years of age	-0.005	0.042	-0.021	0.039
23 Years of age	-0.017	0.011	-0.024	0.010*
24 Years of age	-0.026	0.066	-0.060	0.063
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.035	0.015*	0.031	0.014*
Mother's educ (some college)	0.011	0.014	0.007	0.013
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.009	0.013	-0.001	0.012
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.023	0.016	-0.019	0.015
Father's educ (some college)	0.013	0.015	0.012	0.015
Father's educ (graduate school)	0.022	0.012	0.012	0.012
income less than $49,999	0.008	0.013	0.006	0.013
income $75,000-149,999	0.043	0.013***	0.042	0.012***
income $150,000 or more	0.083	0.015***	0.071	0.015***
ACT scores	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	0.015	0.011	-0.002	0.011
high school grades (B- and below)	0.011	0.024	0.033	0.023
Academic Ability	0.047	0.009***	0.020	0.009*
Mathematical Ability	-0.010	0.006	0.003	0.006
Sif Socio-Political Influence	0.029	0.003***	0.003	0.003
Sif Demonstrations	0.005	0.010	0.003	0.010
Private College or University			0.013	0.021
Midwest Region			-0.013	0.011
South Region			0.002	0.015
West Region			0.009	0.015
Faculty Support Scale			0.301	0.011***
Hours study-none per week			-0.303	0.066***
Hours study- 5hrs or less per week			-0.088	0.012***
Hours study-11-15 hrs per week			0.050	0.013***
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			0.118	0.013***
college grades (A to A plus)			-0.021	0.013
college grades (B- and below)			-0.051	0.018**
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.011	0.010
Taken a Women's Studies Course			0.026	0.011*
Residence			0.008	0.020
Hours work-none per week			0.010	0.014
Hours work-5hrs or less per week			-0.003	0.014
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.003	0.015
Hours work-16 hrs or more per week			-0.001	0.014
Collegiate athletic participation			0.011	0.010
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			0.003	0.011
Hours volunteer per week- none			0.022	0.011*
Hours volunteer per week- 3-5 hrs			-0.026	0.015
Hours volunteer per week- 6 or more hrs			-0.028	0.019
Participated in Student Government			-0.008	0.014
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.000	0.014
Participated in Leadership Training			0.019	0.011
Socio-Political Influence			0.034	0.003***
CSS Demonstrations			0.005	0.012
Model Statistics				
R^2		0.017		0.120
Adjusted R^2		0.015		0.117
Change in R^2		0.017***		0.103***
Number of Cases = 13,046				

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 11
Effect of Involvement of Socio-Political Influence and Demonstrations on Humanitarianism (Unstandardized Coefficients)

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics		Model 2 College Characteristics & Involvement	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
(Constant)	3.505	0.063***	2.973	0.072***
Female	0.035	0.012**	-0.028	0.011*
African American	0.123	0.034***	-0.014	0.033
Other Race	0.054	0.041	0.003	0.038
Latino	0.079	0.032**	0.013	0.030
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.029	0.030	-0.049	0.029
Multi-Racial	-0.019	0.026	-0.078	0.024***
Under 21 years of age	-0.348	0.360	-0.373	0.332
21 Years of age	-0.049	0.048	-0.066	0.044
23 Years of age	0.011	0.013	-0.003	0.012
24 Years of age	0.048	0.076	0.001	0.070
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.027	0.017	0.020	0.016
Mother's educ (some college)	0.030	0.016	0.023	0.015
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.016	0.015	-0.007	0.014
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.023	0.018	-0.021	0.017
Father's educ (some college)	-0.005	0.018	-0.015	0.016
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.007	0.014	-0.020	0.013
income less than $49,999	-0.007	0.015	-0.018	0.014
income $75,000-149,999	0.042	0.014*	0.043	0.013***
income $150,000 or more	0.026	0.018	0.025	0.016
ACT scores	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.005	0.012	-0.012	0.012
high school grades (B- and below)	0.015	0.028	0.016	0.026
Understanding of Others	0.056	0.008***	0.027	0.007***
Cooperativeness	0.037	0.008***	0.023	0.008**
Sif Socio-Political Influence	0.061	0.004***	0.002	0.004
Sif Demonstrations	0.012	0.012	-0.015	0.011
Private College or University			-0.002	0.024
Midwest Region			0.030	0.012*
South Region			0.058	0.017***
West Region			0.030	0.017
Faculty Support Scale			0.250	0.012***
Hours study-none per week			-0.234	0.074**
Hours study- 5hrs or less per week			-0.018	0.014
Hours study-11-15 hrs per week			0.008	0.015
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			0.002	0.014
college grades (A to A plus)			0.009	0.014
college grades (B- and below)			-0.026	0.020
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.074	0.011***
Taken a Women's Studies Course			0.050	0.013***
residence			0.026	0.022
Hours work-none per week			-0.002	0.015
Hours work-5hrs or less per week			-0.037	0.016*
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.007	0.017
Hours work-16 hrs or more per week			-0.006	0.016
Collegiate athletic participation			-0.009	0.011
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			-0.037	0.013**
Hours volunteer per week- none			-0.040	0.012***
Hours volunteer per week- 3-5 hrs			0.011	0.017
Hours volunteer per week- 6 or more hrs			0.049	0.021*
Participated in Student Government			-0.013	0.015
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.044	0.016**
Participated in Leadership Training			0.046	0.012***
CSS Socio-Political Influence			0.112	0.004***
CSS Demonstrations			0.079	0.013***

Model Statistics		
R^2	0.037	0.183
Adjusted R^2	0.035	0.179
Change in R^2	0.037***	0.146***
Number of Cases = 13,046		

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 12
Effect of Involvement of Socio-Political Influence and Demonstrations on Knowledge Acquisition (Unstandardized Coefficients)

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics		Model 2 College Characteristics & Involvement	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
(Constant)	4.079	0.034***	3.513	0.042***
Female	0.003	0.007	-0.043	0.008***
African American	0.059	0.022**	0.006	0.022
Other Race	0.019	0.026	-0.003	0.025
Latino	0.105	0.021***	0.080	0.020***
Asian/Pacific Islander American	0.057	0.019**	0.039	0.019*
Multi-Racial	0.000	0.017	-0.025	0.016
Under 21 years of age	-0.098	0.232	-0.126	0.217
21 Years of age	-0.001	0.031	-0.015	0.029
23 Years of age	-0.004	0.008	-0.009	0.008
24 Years of age	0.097	0.049*	0.069	0.046
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.025	0.011*	0.022	0.010*
Mother's educ (some college)	0.014	0.010	0.011	0.010
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.001	0.010	-0.007	0.009
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.007	0.012	-0.006	0.011
Father's educ (some college)	0.023	0.011*	0.020	0.011
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.002	0.009	-0.007	0.009
income less than $49,999	0.010	0.010	0.005	0.009
income $75,000-149,999	0.031	0.009***	0.031	0.009***
income $150,000 or more	0.031	0.011**	0.029	0.011**
ACT scores	-0.011	0.001***	-0.010	0.001****
high school grades (A to A plus)	0.032	0.008***	0.018	0.008*
high school grades (B- and below)	-0.013	0.018	0.002	0.017
Writing Ability	0.027	0.004***	0.009	0.004*
Sif Socio-Political Influence	0.024	0.003***	0.002	0.003
Sif Demonstrations	0.015	0.008*	0.005	0.007
Private College or University			0.008	0.016
Midwest Region			0.005	0.008
South Region			0.029	0.011**
West Region			0.022	0.011*
Faculty Support Scale			0.263	0.008***
Hours study-none per week			-0.211	0.049***
Hours study- 5hrs or less per week			-0.034	0.009***
Hours study-11-15 hrs per week			0.010	0.010
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			0.034	0.009***
college grades (A to A plus)			-0.004	0.009
college grades (B- and below)			-0.023	0.013
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.019	0.007**
Taken a Women's Studies Course			-0.003	0.008
residence			-0.028	0.015
Hours work-none per week			-0.008	0.010
Hours work-5hrs or less per week			-0.011	0.010
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.004	0.011
Hours work-16 hrs or more per week			0.004	0.010
Collegiate athletic participation			0.038	0.007***
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			-0.001	0.008
Hours volunteer per week- none			-0.008	0.008
Hours volunteer per week- 3-5 hrs			0.002	0.011
Hours volunteer per week- 6 or more hrs			-0.010	0.014
Participated in Student Government			-0.010	0.010
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.058	0.010***
Participated in Leadership Training			0.024	0.008**
CSS Socio-Political Influence			0.028	0.002***
CSS Demonstrations			0.020	0.008*
Model Statistics				
R^2		0.028		0.149
Adjusted R^2		0.026		0.145
Change in R^2		0.028***		0.121***
Number of Cases = 13,046				

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 13
Effect of Involvement of Socio-Political Influence and Demonstrations on Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Competence (Unstandardized Coefficients)

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics		Model 2 College Characteristics & Involvement	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
(Constant)	3.888	0.059***	3.493	0.070***
Female	-0.008	0.012	-0.062	0.012***
African American	0.059	0.034	-0.020	0.034
Other Race	-0.113	0.041**	-0.114	0.039**
Latino	-0.012	0.032	-0.007	0.031
Asian/Pacific Islander American	0.082	0.030**	0.079	0.030**
Multi-Racial	-0.051	0.026*	-0.070	0.025**
Under 21 years of age	0.023	0.360	-0.053	0.341
21 Years of age	-0.051	0.048	-0.052	0.045
23 Years of age	-0.030	0.013*	-0.038	0.012**
24 Years of age	0.003	0.076	-0.013	0.072
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.040	0.017*	0.043	0.016**
Mother's educ (some college)	0.011	0.016	0.010	0.015
Mother's educ (graduate school)	-0.001	0.015	-0.011	0.014
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.029	0.018	-0.029	0.017
Father's educ (some college)	0.008	0.018	0.007	0.017
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.014	0.014	-0.018	0.014
income less than $49,999	-0.002	0.015	-0.004	0.015
income $75,000-149,999	0.026	0.014	0.027	0.014*
income $150,000 or more	0.006	0.018	0.001	0.017
ACT scores	-0.011	0.002***	-0.010	0.002***
high school grades (A to A plus)	0.011	0.012	-0.004	0.012
high school grades (B- and below)	0.008	0.028	0.028	0.026
Pre-College Inter & Intrapersonal Comp.	0.131	0.009***	0.070	0.009***
Sif Socio-Political Influence	0.028	0.004***	-0.002	0.004
Sif Demonstrations	0.014	0.012	0.000	0.011
Private College or University			-0.114	0.024***
Midwest Region			-0.009	0.013
South Region			0.006	0.017
West Region			0.001	0.017
Faculty Support Scale			0.259	0.013***
Hours study-none per week			-0.186	0.076*
Hours study- 5hrs or less per week			-0.051	0.014***
Hours study-11-15 hrs per week			0.002	0.015
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			-0.005	0.014
college grades (A to A plus)			-0.010	0.015
college grades (B- and below)			-0.018	0.021
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			-0.002	0.011
Taken a Women's Studies Course			-0.017	0.013
residence			0.050	0.023*
Hours work-none per week			0.023	0.016
Hours work-5hrs or less per week			-0.010	0.016
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			-0.016	0.017
Hours work-16 hrs or more per week			0.027	0.016
Collegiate athletic participation			0.056	0.012***
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			0.077	0.013***
Hours volunteer per week- none			-0.057	0.012***
Hours volunteer per week- 3-5 hrs			0.011	0.017
Hours volunteer per week- 6 or more hrs			0.011	0.022
Participated in Student Government			0.080	0.016***
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.043	0.016**
Participated in Leadership Training			0.251	0.013***
CSS Socio-Political Influence			0.040	0.004***
CSS Demonstrations			-0.007	0.013
Model Statistics				
R^2		0.033		0.135
Adjusted R^2		0.031		0.132
Change in R^2		0.033***		0.103***
Number of Cases = 13,046				

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 14
Main and Interaction Effects Model of Humanitarianism Learning Outcome and Gender * Demonstrations

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic		Model 2 College Characteristics & Involvement		Model 3 Gender* Demonstrations	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	3.540	0.064***	2.984	0.075***	2.989	0.075***
Female	0.026	0.012*	-0.063	0.012***	-0.074	0.013***
African American	0.140	0.034***	0.018	0.035	0.016	0.035
Other Race	0.072	0.041	0.018	0.039	0.019	0.039
Latino	0.096	0.032**	0.039	0.031	0.038	0.031
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.020	0.030	-0.053	0.030	-0.053	0.030
Multi-Racial	-0.010	0.026	-0.068	0.025**	-0.068	0.025**
Under 21 Years of age	-0.368	0.363	-0.361	0.345	-0.355	0.345
21 Years of age	-0.043	0.048	-0.049	0.046	-0.049	0.046
23 Years of age	0.013	0.013	0.007	0.012	0.008	0.012
24 Years of age	0.043	0.076	0.036	0.073	0.036	0.073
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.028	0.017	0.033	0.017*	0.032	0.017*
Mother's educ (some college)	0.032	0.016*	0.031	0.015*	0.032	0.015*
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.020	0.015	0.006	0.014	0.006	0.014
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.023	0.019	-0.028	0.018	-0.029	0.018
Father's educ (some college)	-0.006	0.018	-0.017	0.017	-0.016	0.017
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.003	0.014	-0.013	0.014***	-0.013	0.014
income less than $49,999	-0.004	0.016	-0.017	0.015	-0.017	0.015
income $75,000-149,999	0.043	0.014**	0.045	0.014	0.045	0.014***
income $150,000 or more	0.030	0.018	0.031	0.017	0.031	0.017
ACT scores	-0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.002	-0.002	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.005	0.012	-0.02	0.012	-0.02	0.012
high school grades (B- and below)	0.013	0.028	0.029	0.027	0.029	0.027
Understanding of others	0.072	0.008***	0.044	0.008***	0.045	0.008***
Cooperativeness	0.044	0.008***	0.028	0.008***	0.028	0.008***
Sif Demonstration	0.031	0.012**	0.001	0.011	0.001	0.011
Private College or University			0.006	0.025	0.006	0.025
Midwest Region			0.031	0.013*	0.031	0.013*
South Region			0	0.017***	0.064	0.017***
West Region			0.034	0.018*	0.034	0.018*
Faculty Support Scale			0.307	0.013***	0.307	0.013***
Hours study-none per week			-0.159	0.077*	-0.156	0.077*
Hours study-5 hrs or less per week			-0.023	0.014	-0.023	0.014
Hours study- 11-15 hrs per week			0.009	0.015	0.009	0.015
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			0	0.015	0.00	0.015
College grades (A to A plus)			0.011	0.015	0.011	0.015
College grades (B- and below)			-0.036	0.021	-0.035	0.021
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.096	0.011***	0.096	0.011***
Taken a Women's Studies Course			0.07	0.013***	0.07	0.013***
Residence			0.016	0.023	0.016	0.023
Hours work-none per week			0.002	0.016	0.002	0.016
Hours work-5 hours or less per week			-0.031	0.016	-0.031	0.016
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.011	0.017	0.01	0.017
Hours work-16 hrs per week			-0.004	0.016	-0.005	0.016
Collegiate athletic participation			-0.014	0.012	-0.014	0.012
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			-0.047	0.013***	-0.047	0.013**
Hours volunteer per week-none			-0.054	0.012***	-0.055	0.012**
Hours volunteer per week-3-5 hrs			0.037	0.017*	0.037	0.017*
Hours volunteer per week-6 or more hours			0.076	0.022***	0.076	0.022***
Participated in Student Government			0.019	0.016	0.02	0.016
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.074	0.016***	0.073	0.016***
Participated in Leadership Training			0.062	0.013***	0.062	0.013***
CSS Demonstrations			0.15	0.013***	0.117	0.021***
Gender*Demonstrations					0.051	0.026*
Model Statistics						
R^2		0.019		0.115		0.116
Adjusted R^2		0.017		0.112		0.112
Change in R^2		0.019*		0.097*		0.000*
Number of Cases = 13,046						

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 15
Main and Interaction Effects of Model Humanitarianism Learning Outcome and Gender*Socio-Political Influence

	Model 1 Socio-Demographic		Model 2 Institution Characteristics & Involvement		Model 3 Gender* Socio-Political Influence	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	3.517	0.062***	2.969	0.071***	2.99	0.072***
Female	0.035	0.012**	-0.028	0.012**	-0.058	0.019**
African American	0.123	0.034***	-0.01	0.033	-0.013	0.033
Other Race	0.053	0.04	0.008	0.038	0.009	0.038
Latino	0.079	0.032**	0.017	0.03	0.017	0.03
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.029	0.03	-0.05	0.029	-0.049	0.029
Multi-Racial	-0.02	0.026	-0.078	0.024**	-0.078	0.024**
Under 21 Years of age	-0.348	0.36	-0.394	0.332	-0.393	0.332
21 Years of age	-0.049	0.048	-0.068	0.044	-0.069	0.044
23 Years of age	0.011	0.013	-0.003	0.012	-0.003	0.012
24 Years of age	0.046	0.076	0.005	0.07	0.007	0.07
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.027	0.017	0.019	0.016	0.019	0.016
Mother's educ (some college)	0.03	0.016	0.022	0.015	0.022	0.015
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.016	0.015	-0.006	0.014	-0.006	0.014
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.023	0.018	-0.019	0.017	-0.019	0.017
Father's educ (some college)	-0.005	0.018	-0.014	0.016	-0.014	0.016
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.007	0.014	-0.02	0.013	-0.02	0.013
income less than $49,999	-0.007	0.015	-0.018	0.014	-0.018	0.014
income $75,000-149,999	0.041	0.014**	0.043	0.013***	0.043	0.013***
income $150,000 or more	0.026	0.018	0.024	0.017	0.024	0.017
ACT scores	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.004	0.012	-0.015	0.012	-0.016	0.012
high school grades (B- and below)	0.014	0.028	0.02	0.026	0.02	0.026
Understanding of others	0.056	0.008***	0.027	0.007***	0.027	0.007**
Cooperativeness	0.037	0.008***	0.022	0.008**	0.022	0.008**
SIF Socio-Political Influence	0.062	0.004***	0.002	0.004	0.002	0.004
Private College or University			-0.004	0.024	-0.005	0.024
Midwest Region			0.028	0.012*	0.028	0.012*
South Region			0.054	0.017***	0.055	0.017***
West Region			0.028	0.017	0.027	0.017
Faculty Support Scale			0.253	0.012***	0.253	0.012***
Hours study-none per week			-0.227	0.074**	-0.226	0.074**
Hours study-5 hrs or less per week			-0.018	0.014	-0.018	0.014
Hours study- 11-15 hrs per week			0.009	0.015	0.009	0.015
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week			0.002	0.014	0.002	0.014
College grades (A to A plus)			0.009	0.014	0.008	0.014
College grades (B- and below)			-0.026	0.020	-0.026	0.02
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course			0.077	0.011***	0.076	0.011***
Taken a Women's Studies Course			0.054	0.013***	0.053	0.013***
Residence			0.028	0.022	0.027	0.022
Hours work-none per week			-0.003	0.015	-0.003	0.015
Hours work-5 hours or less per week			-0.036	0.016*	-0.035	0.016*
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week			0.007	0.017	0.007	0.017
Hours work-16 hrs per week			-0.007	0.016	-0.008	0.016
Collegiate athletic participation			-0.008	0.011	-0.008	0.011
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority			-0.038	0.013**	-0.038	0.013**
Hours volunteer per week-none			-0.044	0.012***	-0.044	0.012***
Hours volunteer per week-3-5 hrs			0.015	0.017	0.015	0.017
Hours volunteer per week-6 or more hours			0.056	0.021**	0.055	0.021**
Participated in Student Government			-0.012	0.015	-0.012	0.015
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization			0.053	0.016***	0.053	0.016***
Participated in Leadership Training			0.049	0.012***	0.049	0.012***
Socio-Political Influence			0.116	0.004***	0.108	0.005***
Gender*Socio-Political Influence					0.013	0.006*
Model Statistics						
R^2		0.037		0.180		0.181
Adjusted R^2		0.035		0.177		0.177
Change in R^2		0.037***		0.144***		0..000*
Number of Cases = 13,046						

***p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001**

Table 16
Linear Regression Model Predicting Humanitarianism Conditional Effects of Socio-Political Influence for Males and Females

	Male		Female	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std Error**
(Constant)	2.897	0.119***	2.989	0.087***
African American	0.006	0.065	-0.013	0.039
Other Race	0.051	0.060	-0.015	0.049
Latino	0.015	0.052	0.014	0.037
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.082	0.048	-0.030	0.036
Multi-Racial	-0.115	0.042**	-0.056	0.030
Under 21 years of age			-0.395	0.324
21 Years of age	-0.044	0.076	-0.082	0.054
23 Years of age	-0.034	0.018	0.026	0.015
24 Years of age	-0.022	0.097	0.038	0.103
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.000	0.027	0.028	0.020
Mother's educ (some college)	0.041	0.025	0.008	0.018
Mother's educ (graduate school)	-0.015	0.023	-0.002	0.017
Father's educ (high school or less)	0.011	0.029	-0.040	0.021*
Father's educ (some college)	-0.012	0.028	-0.015	0.020
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.015	0.022	-0.022	0.017
income less than $49,999	-0.029	0.025	-0.011	0.017
income $75,000-149,999	0.066	0.022**	0.025	0.017
income $150,000 or more	0.015	0.027	0.029	0.021
ACT scores	-0.004	0.003	0.001	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.016	0.020	-0.017	0.015
high school grades (B- and below)	0.034	0.040	0.008	0.034
Understanding of Others	0.036	0.012**	0.020	0.010*
Cooperativeness	0.025	0.012*	0.020	0.010*
Sif Socio-Political Influence	-0.004	0.006	0.006	0.005
Private College or University	-0.002	0.041	-0.003	0.029
Midwest Region	0.043	0.020*	0.018	0.015
South Region	0.065	0.028*	0.051	0.021**
West Region	0.022	0.029	0.029	0.021
Faculty Support Scale	0.320	0.021***	0.211	0.015***
Hours study-none per week	-0.382	0.103***	-0.034	0.109
Hours study- 5hrs or less per week	-0.032	0.022	-0.007	0.018
Hours study-11-15 hrs per week	-0.017	0.026	0.023	0.018
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week	0.015	0.025	-0.002	0.017
College grades (A to A plus)	-0.002	0.026	0.014	0.017
College grades (B- and below)	-0.050	0.029	-0.009	0.029
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course	0.066	0.019***	0.078	0.013***
Taken a Women's Studies Course	0.076	0.028**	0.045	0.014***
Residence	0.029	0.040	0.032	0.027
Hours work-none per week	0.012	0.025	-0.017	0.020
Hours work-5hrs or less per week	-0.053	0.026*	-0.029	0.020
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week	-0.035	0.030	0.028	0.020
Hours work-16 hrs or more per week	-0.020	0.028	0.002	0.019
Collegiate athletic participation	0.002	0.018	-0.019	0.014
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority	-0.018	0.021	-0.053	0.016***
Hours volunteer per week- none	-0.037	0.019*	-0.048	0.015***
Hours volunteer per week- 3-5 hrs	0.012	0.032	0.019	0.020
Hours volunteer per week- 6 or more hrs	-0.024	0.041	0.087	0.025***
Participated in Student Government	-0.026	0.026	-0.003	0.019
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization	0.057	0.028*	0.049	0.019**
Participated in Leadership Training	0.039	0.021	0.056	0.015***
Socio-Political Influence	0.108	0.006***	0.121	0.005***
Model Statistics				
R^2	0.191		0.181	
Adjusted R^2	0.183***		0.176***	
Number of Cases	4,983		8,064	

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 17
Linear Regression Model Predicting Humanitarianism Conditional Effects of Demonstration for Males and Females

	Male		Female	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	2.972	0.125***	2.927	0.091***
African American	-0.008	0.068	0.037	0.040
Other Race	0.059	0.062	-0.002	0.051
Latino	0.045	0.054	0.033	0.039
Asian/Pacific Islander American	-0.072	0.050	-0.042	0.038
Multi-Racial	-0.103	0.044*	-0.046	0.031
Under 21 Years of age			-0.358	0.337
21 Years of age	-0.058	0.079	-0.041	0.056
23 Years of age	-0.017	0.019	0.031	0.016*
24 Years of age	0.022	0.101	0.04	0.107
Mother's educ (high school or less)	0.014	0.028	0.042	0.021*
Mother's educ (some college)	0.049	0.026	0.02	0.019
Mother's educ (graduate school)	0.001	0.023	0.008	0.018
Father's educ (high school or less)	-0.002	0.031	-0.045	0.022*
Father's educ (some college)	-0.014	0.029	-0.018	0.021
Father's educ (graduate school)	-0.014	0.023	-0.01	0.017
income less than $49,999	-0.029	0.026**	-0.011	0.018
income $75,000-149,999	0.066	0.023	0.027	0.017
income $150,000 or more	0.016	0.028	0.039	0.022
ACT scores	-0.007	0.003*	0.002	0.002
high school grades (A to A plus)	-0.026	0.021	-0.018	0.015
high school grades (B- and below)	0.046	0.042	0.011	0.035
Understanding of others	0.051	0.012***	0.039	0.010***
Cooperativeness	0.028	0.013*	0.029	0.010**
Sif Demonstration	-0.002	0.019	0.004	0.014
Private College or University	0.002	0.042	0.014	0.030
Midwest Region	0.048	0.021*	0.018	0.016
South Region	0.087	0.030**	0.051	0.022*
West Region	0.02	0.030	0.04	0.022
Faculty Support Scale	0.374	0.021***	0.264	0.016***
Hours study-none per week	-0.333	0.107**	0.061	0.114
Hours study-5 hrs or less per week	-0.035	0.023	-0.015	0.019
Hours study- 11-15 hrs per week	-0.017	0.027	0.022	0.019
Hours study-16 hrs or more per week	0.012	0.026	-0.004	0.018
College grades (A to A plus)	-0.004	0.027	0.018	0.018
College grades (B- and below)	-0.06	0.030*	-0.019	0.030
Taken an Ethnic Studies Course	0.075	0.019***	0.104	0.014***
Taken a Women's Studies Course	0.092	0.029***	0.061	0.015***
Residence	0.011	0.042	0.025	0.028
Hours work-none per week	0.021	0.026	-0.013	0.020
Hours work-5 hours or less per week	-0.048	0.027	-0.024	0.021
Hours work-11-15 hrs per week	-0.028	0.031	0.03	0.021
Hours work-16 hrs per week	-0.018	0.029	0.006	0.019
Collegiate athletic participation	0.002	0.019	-0.029	0.015*
Joined a Social Fraternity or Sorority	-0.03	0.021	-0.059	0.017***
Hours volunteer per week-none	-0.048	0.020*	-0.059	0.016***
Hours volunteer per week-3-5 hrs	0.037	0.033	0.04	0.020*
Hours volunteer per week-6 or more hours	-0.007	0.043	0.11	0.026***
Participated in Student Government	0.006	0.027	0.029	0.020
In Racial/Ethnic Student Organization	0.081	0.030**	0.069	0.020***
Participated in Leadership Training	0.059	0.022**	0.063	0.016***
CSS Demonstrations	0.113	0.023***	0.168	0.016***
Model Statistics				
R^2	0.130		0.113	
Adjusted R^2	0.122***		0.108***	
Number of Cases	4,983		8,064	

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The public, government, and educators are asking institutions of higher education to produce active and engaged citizens (AACU, 2002; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Kellogg Commission, 1999). In *Greater Expectations* (AACU, 2002), a publication by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (2002) aimed at rethinking higher education for the 21st century, the author states:

> The contribution of college education to a civic society is another public good. A democracy's success flows directly from the thoughtful participation of an informed citizenry. When people are well educated, they tend to participate more in their communities and to vote. They acquire the tools and background to stay abreast of complex social issues. Knowledgeable, empathetic members of society help ensure enlightened policy decisions. The tragic events of September 11, 2001, renewed interest in education's responsibility to produce ethical and compassionate graduates, courageous enough to act on their convictions and reflective in shaping society's larger values (p. 5) .

College students are poised to be informed and actively engaged citizens. Students while in college have a multitude of opportunities to make meaning of their actions and their motivations while connecting to local/national/global community issues. In order to foster civic engagement in our college students, research needs to examine the variety of civic engagement involvements of students and what is gained from participation. This study provides an examination of specific learning outcomes associated with activism, therefore contributing to the body of knowledge on the role of college/university involvements in developing an action-oriented citizen. This research provides a better understanding of what college students are gaining from their activism around social justice issues.

The goal of this study was to identify the learning outcomes associated with student participation in activism. The research questions were:

1. Who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college?
2. What characteristics (of students, of high-school activities, of institutions) predict involvement in activism?
3. What are the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence after controlling for background characteristics, pre-college characteristics, institutional characteristics, and academic and nonacademic experiences?
4. Are the learning outcomes associated with activism the same for all students, or do they differ for students with different background characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity)?

1999-2003 Context

A brief synopsis of the headlines during the 1999-2003 period is provided to lend context to the discussion and implications emerging from this study. The events listed are select events that students experienced while they were in college and grabbed national attention. In 1999, students entering college were emerging from President Clinton's impeachment trial and subsequent Senate acquittal of President Clinton on both counts of impeachment. The headlines in 2000 included an international custody case involving a six-year Cuban child by the name of Elian Gonzalez. Vocal, anti-Castro, Cuban American supporters fought to make U.S. his home, while his Cuban father sought his return. This case polarized the nation and led to criticism against the U.S.

government for the handling of the situation ("The Year in the Nation", 2000). Also in 2000, U.S. presidential elections between George W. Bush and Al Gore were the closest in decades. Bush's slim lead in Florida led to automatic recount of the votes leading to weeks of unresolved results. Ultimately, the involvement of the U.S. Supreme Court halted the recounts and the victory went to George W. Bush ("The Year in the Nation," 2000).

The following year began a time when terrorism and war dominated the headlines. On September 11, 2001, hijackers flew jetliners into the New York City's Twin Towers and the Pentagon killing thousands of people. Islamic militants led by Osama bin Laden claim responsibility for the attacks. The United States and an international coalition begin airstrikes almost immediately in Afghanistan to punish the terrorists. Shortly after September 11, 2001, the nation is paralyzed once again in fear and shock from an anthrax scare. Letters laced with anthrax were sent to media and government officials (Lemonick, Cray, Dorfman, Park, Goldstein, & Shannon, 2001). The following year, 2002, terrorism continues to hit globally. The United States continues its war on terrorism and claims key arrests of al-Qaida leadership (Crean, 2002). Around the Arab world, anti-American sentiment shows up in demonstrations (Crean, 2002). In 2003, the country found political divisions across the country growing more polarized (Bernbaum, 2003). Politicians were polarized on how to handle suspected terrorists and the war in Iraq (Bernbaum, 2003). Ultimately, the United States invaded Iraq early in 2003 in order to disarm Iraq from their weapons of mass destruction and free the Iraqi people from Saddam Hussein. By the end of the year, there was dwindling support by Americans for the war in Iraq, especially since no weapons of mass

destruction were ever found (Bernbaum, 2003). The Supreme Court during this year also made an important decision to uphold affirmative action in higher education (Loughlin, 2003).

War, terrorism, and a polarizing president dominated this four-year period in which these students attended college and university. During this time, students continued to be actively engaged in activism. For example, one week after the 9/11 attacks Wesleyan University students coordinated a National Day of Action to send the message that they did not want the U.S. response to terrorism be war. Thousands of students in over 30 states and 105 universities joined Wesleyan students (Toumani, Kay, Ferrell, & Huang, 2002). In addition to anti-war campaigns by college students, activism during this time focused around affirmative action, fair labor practices, and anti-racism (Baxter, Hahn, Heinritz, O'Brien, Salfiti, Sing, & Zelmanov, 2003; Toumani, Kay, Ferrell, & Huang, 2002). The context provided offers an important lens in which to view the responses of students in this study, as well as, the discussion and implications of the results that follow.

Discussion of the Results

Six key results were summarized at the end of Chapter IV. These findings were identified because they helped answer the research questions of this study. This section addresses the key results and findings of each of the research questions: (a) student involvement in activism, (b) predicting involvement in activism, (c) effects of activism on learning outcomes, and (d) conditional effects of student activism involvement on learning outcomes.

Student Involvement in Activism

The first question the study asked was who are the students reporting involvement in activism during college. Students involved in activism or not involved in activism were no different from each other when comparing demographic descriptive data (gender, modal age, college grades, etc.). Where students differed was in academic course selection and out-of-class involvements. Students involved in activism, both demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores, seemingly enrolled in ethnic studies and women's studies courses at a higher rate than students who did not participate in activism. Similarly, these same students involved in activism participated in the out-of class activities of student government, racial/ethnic student organizations, and leadership training more than students who did not participate in activism while in college.

In general, students involved in activism seemed no different from students who were not involved in activism, based on their demographic characteristics. This is not surprising. In a study of civil right activists, McAdam (1986) found no-shows (those who applied to participate in Freedom Summer, but who withdrew) and activists involved in Freedom Summer did not differ in their attitudes and demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, ethnicity, social class, region, or type of college attending). The significant difference between these two groups was their participation as civil rights activists in Freedom Summer. While attitudes and demographic characteristics matter and are important, this alone does not determine involvement in activism. McAdam found the difference between the no-shows and the activists were the number and types of organizations in which they were involved, the number of peers involved in activism, and previous involvement in activism. The findings in this research study support McAdam's

conclusion. Where students differed in this study was in out-of-class involvements and academic course selection.

The findings to the first question are in keeping with past research. Students involved in activism were more involved in student government and racial/ethnic organizations and leadership training activities than those students who were not involved in activism. In addition, the two academic courses explored were women studies and ethnic studies courses. Both of these courses were chosen because previous research has demonstrated the positive influence of these courses on change in social attitudes and involvement in activism (Broido & Reason, 2005; Laird, Engberg, & Hurtado, 2005; Misa, Anderson, & Yamamura, 2005, Peet & Reed, 1999; Stake, 2007; Stake & Hoffmann, 2001; Stake, Roades, Rose, Ellis, & West, 1994; Stake & Rose, 1994). Students involved in activism, both in demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores, enrolled in ethnic studies and women's studies courses at a higher rate than students who did not participate in activism. This is not surprising. Courses focused on creating awareness of historically underrepresented groups in history, politics, and education raise a level of consciousness and participation in social justice issues (Broido & Reason, 2005; Laird, Engberg, & Hurtado, 2005; Misa, Anderson, & Yamamura, 2005, Peet & Reed, 1999; Stake, 2007; Stake & Hoffmann, 2001; Stake, Roades, Rose, Ellis, & West, 1994; Stake & Rose, 1994).

Predicting Involvement in Activism

The second research question asked what student background characteristics (of students, of high-school activities, of institutions) predicted involvement in activism. Two key results emerged. First, a number of student characteristics predicted

involvement in student activism including gender (male in demonstrations and female in high socio-political influence), ethnicity (being African American and Latino), and pre-college achievement scores (lower ACT scores), and college grades (B- and below). Second, collegiate involvements and curricular coursework also positively predicted involvement in activism (demonstration activism and high socio-political influence scores). These student characteristics and collegiate involvements and curricular coursework are discussed below.

Student characteristics

Being male was a positive predictor of being involved in activism: demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores. Males were more likely to be involved in demonstrations and have high socio-political influence scores than were their female counterparts. There is little research on gender differences when exploring activism and even less on participation in gender differences in demonstration participation and high socio-political influence scores. Worth exploring in the future are the differences in types of activism methods in which each gender group engages. In a study exploring the civic engagement of youths from 15 to 25 years of age, Marcelo, Lopez, & Kirby (2007b) found that men were the most engaged in a wider range of political activities such as donating to campaigns, engaging in boycotting and boycotting, contacting public officials, etc., while women were more engaged in volunteering and voting. The results of the current study suggest that males and females are likely to engage in different types of activism.

African-Americans and Latinos were also more likely than other ethnic groups to be engaged in activism, socio-political and demonstrations. The ethnicity of students

more likely to protest is not different from the students who protested in the 1960s. In the 1960s, college-going Blacks were more likely to protest than were White students (Sherkat & Blocker, 1994). Today, African-American and Latinos as compared to other ethnic groups are still highly engaged in activism (Heffernan, 1992: Levine & Cureton, 1998a; Lopez, Levine, Both, Kiesa, Kirby, & Marcelo, 2006). Past studies conducted by The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) have suggested that there are differences in the nature and degree of civic engagement among youth by race and ethnicity. CIRCLE studies have found African-American youth to be the most engaged politically, Asian-American youth the most engaged in volunteering, while Latinos lagging in voting and volunteering are highly engaged in protesting (Lopez, Levine, Both, Kiesa, Kirby, & Marcelo, 2006; Marcelo, Lopez, & Kirby, 2007a).

Finally, activists seem to be average students when it comes to grades and ACT scores. Students who have high ACT scores and grades above A do not participate in activism. One can surmise that students with high ACT scores and grades above an A may be focusing their energies on their curricular studies more than co-curricular experience. To have grades above an A requires dedication to coursework that limits involvement in co-curricular activities such as activism, volunteering, and having a job outside of school. Research supports the idea that a positive relationship between student effort and college grades exists (Kuh & Hu, 1999; Rau & Durand, 2000). Students, on the other hand, who received average grades of A- to B, may be focusing on a more holistic approach to their education by becoming involved in activities outside of the classroom. Students who are involved in activism are dividing their time between their

studies and their interests. Their grades are reflective of their time spent on multiple interests beyond studies. These findings differ from previous findings, conducted in the 1970s on college student activists, which found that there was no statistical difference when looking at their high-school academic ability (Baird, 1970; Kerpelman, 1972). The findings from this research are more recent and lend an important contribution to the literature about who are student activists today.

Collegiate involvements and curricular coursework

Certain collegiate involvements and curricular coursework engaged by students also positively predicted involvement in activism (high socio-political influence scores and demonstration activism). Reporting high faculty support, taking courses in women's and ethnic studies, and being involved in leadership training and ethnic/racial student organizations were good predictors of involvement in activism. Also, students who did not work, worked over 16 hours per week, and did not volunteer had decreased odds of demonstrating. There are several potential explanations for these curricular connections and activism.

First, the influence of positive faculty interactions outside the classroom has long been documented (Astin, 1993a, 1993b; Eimers, 2001; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Kuh, 1995; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella, & Nora, 1995; Terenzini, Theophilides, & Lorang, 1984). Faculty support not only leads students to grow developmentally, but also empowers students to engage in activities complementing their academics, such as activism. For example, a faculty member discussing the history of discrimination, power and influence, and underrepresentation of woman and ethnic minorities in any class may raise students' consciousness about social

justice issues. Faculty teaching courses that include these topics and other faculty members with whom students have connected may provide students a forum to discuss their activism and also allows for students to debrief with faculty.

In addition to faculty support, classes in women's studies and ethnic studies also positively predicted involvement in activism. These results are consistent with previous research that found the positive influence of these courses on change in social attitudes and activism (Laird, Engberg, & Hurtado, 2005; Misa, Anderson, & Yamamura, 2005; Stake, 2007; Stake & Hoffmann, 2001; Stake, Roades, Rose, Ellis, & West, 1994; Stake & Rose, 1994). Students who have taken these courses may be more apt to become involved in supporting and initiating causes around issues of injustice. An opportunity exists in these classes for students to connect their involvement and place it within a larger community and global perspective. Keeping this in mind, involvement in leadership training and ethnic/racial student organization as a good predictor of activism is then not surprising. Here, as well, students are engaging with their peers around differences and similarities that are reinforcing their values around leadership, social justice, and involvement in causes.

Finally, another finding was that students who did not work, worked over 16 hours per week, and did not volunteer had decreased odds of demonstrating. The finding that students who did not work had decreased odds of demonstrating is contrary to findings in the sociology research. Literature in sociology found that young people were more likely to be activists than were older people because young people were biographically available—i.e., free from the obligations of work and family (Schussman

& Soule, 2005). Therefore students who do not work, free from this obligation, are more likely to be available to demonstrate. This was not the case in this study.

On the other hand, students who work over 16 hours per week may not be able to have the time to balance work, study, and involvements. They are not biographically available. With the increase of students working while attending college, studies have explored the connection between work and their college experiences and have found that working does impact involvement (Astin, 1984; Furr & Elling, 2000; Hood, Craig, & Ferguson, 1992; Lundberg, 2004). These studies found that students dedicating a significant amount of time to work (20 hours plus) experienced a negative effect on participation in involvements. The students in this study working over 16 hours per week may be more selective of their involvements because their time is shared among the responsibilities of employment and academics. Students working 16 hours or more per week are less likely to be involved in activities that consume a lot of time and effort. There may not be a lot of time afforded to activism.

Not surprising is the connection between students not volunteering and activism. For many students, volunteering and other civic engagement involvements connects them with other students interested in civic engagement. If a student does not connect with a peer group that is involved in civic engagement, there is a decreased likelihood that he/she would become involved in civic engagement such as activism. Students who do volunteer are connecting and involved with other students involved in civic engagement activities.

Differential recruitment, a term used by sociologists exploring the factors influencing individual participation in social movement activity (Jenkins, 1983;

McAdam, 1986; Zurcher & Snow, 1981), can apply here. The research in sociology suggests that individuals who are more likely to become part of a movement are involved within organizations and have strong social networks involved in activism (McAdam, 1986; McAdam & Paulsen, 1993; Paulsen, 1991). Students involved in volunteerism have a presence of interpersonal networks that can facilitate the involvement into activism, another civic engagement activity. Not only does volunteering provide a peer network, but it also provides students with a sense of empowerment that they can influence and change society and can facilitate citizenship development. Students not involved in volunteerism do not have an entry point to engage in other civic engagement activities such as demonstrations.

In summary, there were a number of student characteristics identified that predicted involvement in student activism. Males were more likely to be have high socio-political influence scores and be involved in demonstrations. Being African American and Latinos were good predictors of involvement in demonstrations and high socio-political influence scores over other ethnicities. In addition, activists' grades painted a picture of students taking a holistic approach to their education. Second, collegiate involvements and curricular coursework also positively predicted involvement in activism (demonstration activism and high socio-political influence scores). Involvements continue to matter in education.

Students who had positive faculty support, were enrolled in diversity classes (women's studies and ethnic studies), and who were involved (leadership training and ethnic/racial student organizations) predicted involvement in activism. While those who were not involved, whether it was because they did not work or worked over 16 hours a

week or did not volunteer, had decreased odds of being involved in activism. Involvements made a difference and were good predictors of participation in activism.

Effects of Activism on Learning Outcomes

The third research question asked what were the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes of cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence after controlling for background characteristics, precollege characteristics, institutional characteristics, and academic and nonacademic experiences. There were two primary results on the effects of involvement in student activism on the learning outcomes. The results varied depending on the type of activism, high socio-political influence and demonstration. Socio-political influence was associated with positive growth in all of the learning outcomes, cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence, while, student involvement in demonstrations led to positive growth in the humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application learning outcome.

Once more the definitions used in this study are socio-political influence was defined in this study as the composite score of how important are influencing the political structure and influencing social values. Cognitive complexity in this study was defined as “cognitive skills including reflective thought, critical thinking, quantitative reasoning and intellectual flexibility” (Kuh, 1993, p. 24). In this study, the cognitive complexity construct was measured by student self-reports of the college impact on the “ability to think critically” and “analytical and problem-solving skills.” Knowledge acquisition and application in this study was defined as “understanding knowledge from a range of

disciplines and physical, geographic, economic, political, religious, and cultural realities, and the ability to relate knowledge to daily life including using information presented in one class in other classes or other areas of life" (p. 24). Knowledge acquisition and application was measured by student self-reports of the college impact on "general knowledge," "knowledge of a particular field or discipline," "knowledge of people from different races/cultures," "foreign language ability," "computer skills," "mathematical skills," "public speaking ability," "writing skills," and "ability to get along with different races/cultures."

Humanitarianism was defined as "an understanding and appreciation of human differences, including an increased sensitivity to the needs of others" (p.24). Humanitarianism was measured by student self-reports of the college impact on "understanding of social problems facing our nation," "understanding of global issues," and "understanding of the problems facing your community." Finally, interpersonal and intrapersonal competence was defined as "a coherent integrated constellation of personal attributes (e.g., identity, self-esteem, confidence, integrity, appreciation for the aesthetic and spiritual qualities of life and the natural world, sense of civic responsibility) and skills (e.g., how to work with people different from oneself)" (Kuh, 1993, p. 25). Interpersonal and intrapersonal competence was measured in this study by student self-reports of the college impact on "leadership abilities" and "interpersonal skills."

The primary finding that the growth in all four of the learning outcomes for students having high socio-political influence scores is of critical importance. Socio-political activism provides students the opportunities to encounter new situations and people that may motivate, necessitate, and encourage learning about self, working with

others different from themselves, civic responsibility, and require solutions to problems in their community and in society. Students participating in socio-political activism may encounter new social situations and people who motivate them to learn about their values, attitudes, and philosophies of life.

Belief in socio-political influence may also provide an arena where the development of certain skills is necessary and fostered. Students with high socio-political influence are involved in a variety of activities from writing letters to newspapers and elected officials, public speaking, and boycotting to buycotting. The ability to influence political and social structures requires student to develop cognitive complexity, acquire new knowledge and learn to apply this knowledge, foster humanitarianism, and develop strong interpersonal and intrapersonal skills.

Second, student involvement in demonstrations led to positive growth in the humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application learning outcomes. The results from this study did not point to growth along the cognitive complexity and interpersonal and intrapersonal learning outcomes. A possible explanation for this result is that students involved in demonstrations may be acquiring a set of skills through their involvement in demonstrations, leading to learning along these two particular domains (humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application) and not to the other two, (cognitive complexity and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence). For example, students participating in demonstrations need to understand the issues that they are demonstrating against as well as to empathize with the affected populations. The learning outcome humanitarianism—the ability to understand and appreciate differences and needs of others—is developed in students as they demonstrate for variety of social

justice issues. As for cognitive complexity, students involved in demonstration activism are learning about organizational models, whom to petition for money, whom to contact for demonstration permits, and also how to relate to people of different races and ethnicities. Participation in demonstrations may require students not only to connect what is learned in the classroom, but also to make the decision to apply what is learned to their demonstration causes.

Another explanation is student demonstration activism, unlike socio-political activism, does not require a student to directly be involved in influencing social and political structures and systems. A demonstration is a person's outward display of his feelings towards a cause or an issue. Demonstration activism does not necessarily require students to engage in policy or political debates with other students. Therefore, growth in the learning outcome of cognitive complexity may not be evident. Students participating in demonstrations also are taking up time, space, and seeking to be noticed by other students, bystanders, and administrators and/or politicians. Demonstrations are events that can be persuasive and can inspire bystanders and administrators to listen and/or join. Participating in demonstrations also provides opportunities for like-minded individuals to come together, but a demonstration does not then require participants to work with others. Students who participate in demonstrations may be different from those who have an ongoing commitment to a cause or movement. Growth in interpersonal and intrapersonal competence may require a demonstration activist to go beyond demonstrating. Growth for this student may require a commitment to a cause and/or movement after the demonstration in order to become part of the group moving the cause forward in the minds of others.

In summary, two primary results emerged from the data analysis of the effects of student activism on the selected learning outcomes. The first finding was that socio-political influence was associated with positive growth in all of the learning outcomes: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Second, student involvement in demonstrations led to positive growth in the humanitarianism and knowledge acquisition and application learning outcome.

No research exists that examines the relationship between student activism and college learning outcomes. Studies in the past have been in the field of sociology and have examined the consequences and lasting effects from participation of 1960s student activists (Fendrich & Lovoy, 1988; Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; McAdam, 1989; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). While higher education research and student affairs, research focused on reflections, responses, and advice from administrators' having experienced student activism on their campus (Blimling, 2002; Brown, Miser, & Emmanuel, 1988; Hathaway, 2003; Laliberte, 2003; Miser, 1988b; Ryan, 2004; Shaffer, 1988; Williams & McGreevey, 2004), providing legal and policy considerations (Chen, 2000; Miser, 1988a; Paterson, 1994), and historical pieces at single institutions (Casanova, 2001; Roseboro, 2005). Still needed was research that explores what students are learning and gaining as a result of their involvement in activism while in college. The results of this study fill an important gap in the literature and provide evidence that students learn from being engaged in activism.

Conditional Effects of Student Activism

The final research question sought to determine whether the effects of student involvement in activism on the learning outcomes (cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence) were conditional. In essence, did the effects of activism differ for different students (e.g., women and men and students of different ethnicities)? The data analysis examined whether the influence of safe activism on learning outcomes differed by gender and ethnicity. Only one conditional effect was identified. Conditional effects existed only for male and female students involved in demonstrations and beliefs in socio-political influence for the learning outcome humanitarianism. No other conditional effects by gender or ethnicity emerged for the other learning outcomes.

The effect of activism, socio-political and demonstrations, on the learning outcome humanitarianism was significant for both male and female students, although the effect size differed. Female students were influenced in their involvement in activism more than were their male counterparts on the humanitarianism outcome. This is not to say that males did not learn from their involvement in activism, but that females learned more. An explanation of this difference may be attributed to women's development. Gilligan (1982) described in women a prevalence of an ethic of care and appreciation for human relationships, whereas an ethic of justice was found prevalent in males. Studies have continually demonstrated a gender difference in empathy that is a key component in humanitarianism (Macaskill, Maltby, & Day, 2002; Toussaint & Webb, 2005). This difference in ethic of care and ethic of justice may cultivate the humanitarianism learning

outcome for the females involved in activism more so than for the males involved in activism.

No other conditional effects, other than humanitarianism for males and females, emerged. No conditional effects emerged for students of different ethnicities for any of the learning outcomes. Few studies explore ethnic differences in activism. Most studies on activism explore ethnic identity politics (e.g., Hernandez, 2008; Navia, 2008; Rhoads, 1997b, Tetzloff, 2008), so they are singular in the exploration of activism by ethnicity. A scarcity of studies exists that isolate the ethnicity effects on activism. This research study did not find any conditional effects for the learning outcomes associated with activism for students of different ethnicities; i.e., there are no differences in the learning outcomes associated with activism for students of different ethnicities.

In conclusion, conditional effects existed only for male and female students involved in demonstrations and beliefs in socio-political influence for the learning outcome humanitarianism. Both were positively affected by their involvement with varying magnitude of effect. Conditional effects did not exist for students of different races/ethnicities with regard to the various learning outcomes: cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, and interpersonal and intrapersonal competence.

Implications of the Research

The results of this study provide some noteworthy findings that improve our understanding of activism and its effect on the learning outcomes of undergraduate students. In addition, this study suggests a number of implications for student affairs practice and future research. Student activism has a long and rich history in our colleges

and universities and will continue to have a place in our institutions of higher learning. This study reveals that activism is an active part of students' learning experiences while they are in college and supports the notion that (a) activism contributes to learning in college, (b) specific involvements make a difference in predicting activism, (c) faculty and peer relationships matter in activism and learning, (d) curricular and co-curricular experiences have an effect on activism, and (d) gender and ethnicity play an important role in activism.

Impact of Activism on Student Learning Outcomes

Astin's (1984) theory of student involvement provided the theoretical framework for this study. Astin's theory focuses on "the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (Astin, 1984, p.297). For students to learn or grow, they need to be actively engaged in collegiate involvements. For this study, activism was the student involvement. Participation in activism represented a students' investment of his psychological and physical energy in the college and university experience. In addition, this theory suggested that student learning and personal development is directly proportional to the student's investment within activism.

In the end, the results led to the conclusion that student involvement in activism does lead to learning and specifically to gains in cognitive complexity, humanitarianism, knowledge acquisition and application, as well as interpersonal and intrapersonal competence. Colleges and universities have good reason to foster and legitimize the role of activism on college campuses because activism not only influences the institution, but it also plays an active role in the development of the students involved. This study recognizes and affirms that involvement in activism plays a role in the development of

engaged and active citizens. In addition, the results of this study fill an important gap in the literature and provide evidence that students learn from being engaged in activism

Involvements Make a Difference

Involvements (leadership training, involvement in ethnic/racial organization, and community service) make a difference in students' development and growth and may predict student involvement in activism. Collegiate involvements provide opportunities for students to connect with one another. Specifically, the involvements explored in this study connect students with each other and provide students with a sense of empowerment that they can influence and change society. This finding supports previous research that student development of civic responsibility during college is enhanced by the degree of student involvements in college (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pascarella, Ethington, & Smart, 1988; Sax, 2004).

Previous research in sociology stated that it is not necessarily who we are, but who we are a part of that determines our involvement (McAdam, 1986; McAdam & Paulsen, 1993; Paulsen, 1991). Activist organizations serve as an entry point for students to engage in other activities, develop skills, and connect with others. In addition the involvements explored expand students' understanding of the world, help them learn about differences, and deepen their commitment to a cause.

Faculty and Peer Relationships Matter

This study further supports previous research that concluded that connections with faculty and peers affect student learning and involvement in activism. In this study, faculty support positively predicted student involvement in activism. Research in higher education has consistently documented that positive faculty interactions make a

difference, and this study affirms that finding (Astin, 1993a, 1993b; Eimers, 2001; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Kuh, 1995; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella, & Nora, 1995; Terenzini, Theophilides, & Lorang, 1984). Faculty members play an integral part in students' development not only academically, but also as social change agents. Opportunities for students to engage with faculty members outside of the classroom continue to be important and need to be a valued part of the college experience. Also important are the connections with faculty and administrators who can connect this involvement to broader issues and concerns that are underlying community problems.

Peers have similar level of influence as faculty; the types of activities and involvements students engage in are influenced by the activities and involvements of their peers (Jones & Hill, 2003). The involvements explored in this study connected students with peers who were not only different, but who were also similar to themselves. They were not only being challenged to explore differences, but they were also in a network where similar political beliefs and values existed. This relationship with peers opens up the opportunity for students to encounter student activists who encourage their involvement in activist activities. This study, along with past research, supports the importance of peer interactions along the lines of difference (Navia, 2008; Sax, 2004).

Curricular and Co-Curricular Experiences

Just as relationships matter in activism, so do involvements—in and out of the classroom. Students enrolled in women's studies and ethnic studies courses positively predicted involvement in activism. Likewise, student involvement in leadership training and ethnic/racial student organizations positively predicted activism. For colleges and

universities that have included diversity courses as part of their general education or core curriculum and that promote a racially diverse student population, this civic engagement outcome adds significant benefits. There are many studies that point to the benefits of diversity courses, as well as to the benefits of friendships across ethnicities (Astin, 1993b; Milem, 1994; Bowen & Bok, 1998; Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzini, 1996; Sax & Astin, 1997). The findings from this study point to the importance and value of diversity courses as well as to opportunities to engage with a diverse student body. College and universities should continue to value and promote diversity. Focused diversity-classes and initiatives should be addressed, in addition to ways and opportunities through which students can connect with each other in and outside of the classroom.

Gender and Ethnicity in Activism

The results of this study have important implications and raise additional questions regarding gender and ethnicity of student activists. Many of the studies that have explored the impact of activism have not examined the conditional effects of gender (Fendrich & Tarleau, 1973; Hoge & Ankeny, 1982; McAdam, 1989; Nassi, 1981; Sherkat & Blocker, 1997). This study pointed out that there may be differences in the types of involvement between males and females. Males in this study were more likely to be involved in demonstrations and have high socio-political influence. The results of the current study support the idea that males and females may engage in different types of activism. These results contribute to the body of knowledge that explores gender differences. Further research is needed to explore what types of activism females are likely to engage in and whether these differences can be attributed to gender inequality

within activism. Gender inequality has long been mentioned in social movements (Robnett, 1997; Tindall, Davies, & Mauboules, 2004), but research on college female activists is lacking.

In addition to gender, ethnicity of students played a role in predicting involvement in activism. As compared to other ethnic groups, African American and Latino students were more likely to be engaged in activism, socio-political influence and demonstrations. Highlighted in this study is the continued role of identity politics on college campuses (Levine & Cureton, 1998a; Rhoads, 1997b). Across college campuses, student multicultural issues (i.e., women, lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered, African, Asian, Latino, Native American, etc.) play an important role in the lives of students and emerge as multicultural organizations (Levine & Cureton, 1998a, Rhoads, 1997a, 1997b). Multicultural organizations serve both social and political purposes for students (Levine & Cureton, 1998a). Socially, these groups are safe havens and spaces in which students can be with other students who may have similar experiences, concerns, and values. Politically, these groups serve to educate and advocate for the issues and concerns of these groups on campus. Levine and Cureton (1998a) found in 1998 that 69% of college campuses had multicultural organizations that served as support and advocacy groups.

As for the conditional effects among the different ethnicities, there were no conditional effects found for students of different ethnicities on any of the learning outcomes. This leads to the conclusion that there are no differences in the learning outcomes associated with activism for different ethnic groups. This result contributes to the literature in important ways, since this study may be the first to examine the conditional effects of involvement in activism on learning outcomes.

Recommendations for Practice and Future Research

This study suggests several recommendations for student affairs practice and future research. Each is discussed below. As student affairs professionals, we need to ensure that our campus programs facilitate intentional learning and growth, as students are involved in activism. Below is a list of recommendations for student affairs practice:

1. Programs aimed at social justice issues, activism, and community service can be best served in using transformative education. In *Learning Reconsidered: A campus-wide focus on the student experiences* (Keeling, 2004), a document arguing for higher education's integrated approach to education and preparing the whole student, student affairs professionals are encouraged to rethink their role in the students' learning process. *Learning Reconsidered* suggests transformative education, placing "the student's reflective processes at the core of the learning experience and asks the student to evaluate both new information and the frames of reference through which the information acquires meaning (p. 9).

   Likewise, Kolb's model of experiential education (1984) provides a way in which transformative education through activism can be supported. In Kolb's model of experiential learning, learning occurs through the sequence of a concrete experience (feeling), observation and reflection (watching), formation of abstract concepts and generalizations (thinking), and testing implications and concepts in new situations (doing) (Kolb, 1984). Student affairs educators can use this framework to guide students' learning about themselves, their values, and their involvements. This learning can be facilitated through journal writing, student

research projects, and forums for discussion, self-reflection, and perspective-taking.

2. Student affairs educators are encouraged to play an active role in creating and/or advocating for curricula that provide students with the tools needed to become effective change agents. Student activists can benefit from a curriculum that provides them with a greater understanding of social change and an understanding of their own abilities and skills as citizens, activists, and change agents.

   Social change is a process. Faculty members and student affairs practitioners need to teach and show college students how this occurs. Students need to recognize that activism is not just big rallies and demonstrations. Students "need to understand the power and necessity of activism in achieving social change" (Bickford & Reynolds, 2002, pp. 238-239). Student affairs practitioners, in partnership with student activists, can also develop an activist handbook detailing how to organize student groups, proper campus procedures for demonstrations, recommendations on debriefing sessions, etc.

3. In addition to an activist curriculum, student affairs professionals should promote courses and workshops that explore diversity and social justice issues. Courses and workshops that provide a safe environment to explore diversity issues and allow healthy conflict among individuals result in social justice outcomes (Broido & Reason, 2005).

4. Student affairs professionals, in partnership with faculty, should work actively to recruit and retain a diverse student body (geographic, religious, ethnic, social class, etc.). Opportunities for student involvement that encourage students to

engage with students different from themselves in ethnicity, views, values, and attitudes make a difference. These opportunities cannot happen without a diverse student body. This and past studies support the importance of peer interactions along lines of difference (Navia, 2008; Sax, 2004).

5. Student affairs professionals, in partnership with faculty, also need to pay attention to students who are not involved. In a study published in 2006 by The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, 58% of young people were unable to cite two forms of civic or political engagement activities that they conducted (Lopez, Levine, Both, Kiesa, Kirby, & Marcelo, 2006). Institutions of higher education are providing unequal opportunities for civic engagement and learning. There is a substantial number of our youth who are not engaged in their communities. The opportunities for discussion and reflection listed above are also important for the students who are less engaged. Efforts to increase service-learning opportunities across a variety of academic disciplines, as well as, an increased variety of community service initiatives can serve to entice more students.
6. Institutional policies and procedures should be reviewed to examine how they influence the emergence of student activism on campus. Policies and procedures should not inhibit the development of student activists. The development of partnerships with students in campus governance and decision-making, a result of student activism in the 1960s, should continue to be cultivated on campus. These partnerships are practical means of fostering student activism. Policies and procedures also should be in place to handle a variety of situations resulting from

student activism as it is occurring, and manage conversations after activism has occurred. Student activism is often seen as disruptive to the community and is treated in a reactive manner. Student affairs professionals and college administrators should not be surprised when students use these citizenship skills to criticize college or their communities.

Student activism is a sign of a healthy campus where students are practicing skills learned in the classroom and in out-of-class involvement. Student affairs professionals should be prepared to handle activism that provides opportunities for faculty, staff, and students to learn and engage as a community. Student affairs professionals should involve administrators, faculty, and students in conversations about activism and learning that occurs due to involvement in activism. They should connect the mission and vision of the institution in their responses to activism. This is not to say that institutions should eliminate student discipline from the activism equation.

7. Student affairs professionals need to embrace and support student usage of technology. Students are no longer bound by issues, location, and time in their support of activism causes (Biddix, Somers, Polman, 2009). Through internet sites, social networking sites, and mass e-mails, students are able to support and participate in activism a world away. Student affairs professionals need to ensure that technology exists on their campus to support these endeavors. In addition, conversations and programs need to exist to discuss civic engagement with the usage of technology on campuses. Colleges and universities need to continue their support of student networks on campus to include networks via the Internet.

8. Colleges and universities should promote and recognize the contributions of student activists on college campuses. Students who are contributors to social change, to the educational environment, and to the mission of the institution need to be celebrated and commended for putting their values and learning into change-oriented action. Already existent student leadership award programs on campus would be an appropriate space for acknowledgement to occur.
9. Student affairs professionals are encouraged to conduct assessments of their institutional climate, programs, and curricula associated with activism. Activism, like other civic engagement activities, cannot end up being solely a feel-good activity for participants. Assessments should be conducted on how activism and other civic engagement activities handle social problems, social change, and student learning.

This study also suggests a number of recommendations for future research on college students and activism.

1. This study focused on students who would graduate from college in 2003. A recommendation for future study would be to focus on a more current student body. For instance, the 2008 Presidential election saw the involvement of young voters in an unprecedented manner. President Barack Obama's campaign focused on change, hope, and civic responsibility. Research on the continued civic education of these young voters would reveal a lot about attracting and retaining involved citizens. Student affairs practitioners should continue to focus on the power of students to create change within society. Higher education programs

should continue to instill in students civic responsibility, activism, and self-empowerment.

2. The inclusion of demographic characteristics, such as students' religion, full-time versus part-time students, and political views, as well as, institutional characteristics such as institutional size and selectivity of an institution, would provide a deeper understanding of activism, of students involved in activism, and of the learning outcomes associated with activism for various types of students.
3. Future research on activism and the learning gained from involvement can benefit from using qualitative research methods. A richer understanding of students' experience in activism based on their own frame of reference, perspectives, and understanding can be helpful in understanding our student activists.
4. While this study focused on the effect of activism on learning outcomes, future research on the effect of activism that focused on psychosocial and cognitive developmental contributions would provide a more holistic picture of the effect of activism. The effect of activism on students is not solely on their learning outcomes. Future research on the contributions of activism on self-identity, values clarification, and lifelong commitment to social issues would provide a richer understanding of the effect on students.
5. Students are involved in a multitude of causes, such as fair trade, fair labor practices, identity politics, immigration reform, and political issues. Students are involved in these causes at various levels of engagement. For example, students have a variety of ways in which they can be involved in activism, such as leading marches, buycotting (bought a product or service because student agreed with

political or social message associated with the product), or participating on social networking sites aimed at social awareness (e.g., Facebook.com, MySpace.com). In order to better understand the effects of student activism, more information is needed about the nature of their activism, such as types of causes and the degree of engagement. Future research that focuses on specific activism causes, degree of commitment, and the learning outcomes associated with each cause and degree of commitment would provide a better understanding of the learning outcomes associated with activism.

6. A habit of involvement in activism may continue after college. A longitudinal assessment of prolonged involvement or engagement in activism after college would be beneficial in assessing impact and influence of college activism. Studies on the long-term effects of college activism, beyond those that focused on students of the 1960s, are virtually non-existent. It would be beneficial to gather information on how college activism informs adult civic responsibility and participation.
7. Future research should continue to look at the various student involvements in college (e.g., community service, service learning, participation in ethnic student organizations) to assess how involvements focused on civic responsibility are influencing learning outcomes and cognitive and psychosocial development.
8. Studies have continually shown the influence of peers on students. Past research has shown the relationship of individuals' social networks and their involvement in activism. The same can be true for current students. "Student groups provide socialization, give students a sense of belonging in what can be a difficult and

sometimes alienating environment, set up networks of support (which are important during the university years and often last throughout life) and provide valuable skills" (Altbach, 2007, p. 243). An in-depth look at peer influences on student activism could assist future scholars and administrators to understand how students are brought into involvement in activism causes. Essentially, what is the role of peers in activism and the learning that takes place while a student and peer are participating in activism and in their social setting?

9. Activism studies in sociology have explored institutional climate, history, and culture (Freeman, 1973; Jasper, 1999; Morris, 2000; Soule, 1997; Van Dyke, 1998) in exploring why a movement emerges in one institution and not in another. Helpful for researchers might be to have current research on the impact of the legacy of protest, institutional history, and structural impacts on the level of activism and the learning that occurs from student involvement in activism.
10. Future research should also provide a more current outlook on new technologies being used by college student activists (social networking sites, prominence of texting via cell phones, etc.). The use of technology has transformed the way activism is being conducted, and the type of learning that is occurring should be explored in the future.
11. Finally, the creation of a student development theory of an activist identity would be helpful in assisting educators to understand how to guide their learning process.

Limitations

This study is limited in several ways. While Chapter III provides these limitations, they are worth reiterating with some additions. Secondary data analysis of pre-collected data was conducted. There are a number of limitations associated with secondary data analysis. One such limitation is that the data had already been collected. Therefore, there was not an opportunity to ask specific questions targeted at activism and to define variables beyond the questions posed to respondents. Thus, the usage of proxies was used for learning measures from 1999 SIF and 2003 CSS. The definition of activism was limited to the questions posed in the Student Information Form and in the College Student Survey. Current students may define activism differently than did the students associated with this study.

Survey data also provides error of representation (coverage, sampling, and nonresponse error). These errors are inherent in using survey data, although Dillman (2000) states that a "remarkable power of the sample survey is its ability to estimate closely the distribution of a characteristic in a population by obtaining information from relatively few elements of that population" (p. 204).

There was also no pre-test conducted in this study to examine initial student characteristics of students involved in activism and those not involved in activism before college. In essence, there was no true random assignment of students into activists and non-activists making for statistically non-equivalent groups at onset of study. Consequently, a selection bias exists.

In addition, private colleges and universities were over-represented in this sample. Approximately 95% of the students in this study attended private institutions. Also, the

data (1999 SIF and 2003) used are almost 10 years old. This data may not accurately describe the current 2010 student population. While many of the same activism issues are occurring today, there are also different issues and technologies.

Conclusion

The results of this study make unique contributions to the research on college student activism. While the literature on student activism focused on the student activists of the 1960s, this study addressed the gaps in the literature related to learning outcomes associated with activism today. The purpose of this study was to identify whether learning outcomes were associated with student participation in activism. Learning does happen. This research is one of the first studies to consider learning as an outcome of activism. In addition, this study extends the knowledge on learning outcomes of civic engagement for students.

As social institutions, colleges and universities have the opportunity to foster activism and engage diverse individuals in conversations to influence social and political institutions to create social change. Historically, college students have been catalysts for change. The charge by society for college and universities to produce more engaged citizenship has long existed. College and universities, then, need to provide the learning and support needed for all types of citizenship to emerge and engage. The recommendations from this study provide helpful suggestions and important implications for college administrators and future research. Hopefully, this study provides momentum for more research in this area by assisting faculty, administrators, and students to link learning with activism.

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APPENDIX A

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF INDEPENDENT AND CONTROL VARIABLES

Table A1. Operational Definitions of Independent and Control Variables

Primary Independent Variable
Activism: The composite score from individual's responses to how important are: "Influencing the political structure" and "Influencing social values". In addition, how frequently in the past year they had "Participated in organized demonstrations." These responses were taken from the 2003 College Student Survey.

Student Background Characteristics
Female: 1 = female, 0 = male
Race/Ethnicity: Six dummy variables (1 or 0) for: African-American, Latino/Hispanic, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, and Multi-racial, and Other/Native American. White Americans were the reference group and will be coded 0.
Age: Five dummy variables calculated by adding four years to response on the SIF with the age of 22 as the reference group.
Parent Education: Mother and father education level was dummy coded with attending college as the reference group
Parent Income: Parental Income was dummy coded into quartiles with a combined salary of $75,000-$149,999 as the reference group.

Student Pre-College Ability
Pre-College Test Scores: A composite score of an individual's SAT Verbal + SAT Math or their ACT Composite score.
Self-reported high school grades: An individual's response to the question: "What are your average grade in high school?" was dummy coded (A, A-; B to A-, and B- and below) with the grades B to A- as the reference group.
Precollege activism: The composite score from individual's responses to how important are: "Influencing the political structure" and "Influencing social values". In addition, how frequently in the past year they had ""Participated in organized demonstrations." These responses were taken from the 1999 Student Information Form.

Pre-College Learning Measures
Precollege composite cognitive complexity: An individual's response to a 1 item, Likert-type scale (5=highest 10% to 1=lowest 10%) of a self-rating of cognitive complexity traits as compared with an average person their age. The item is: "Academic ability"
Precollege knowledge acquisition and application: An individual's response to a 2 item, Likert-type scale (5=highest 10% to 1=lowest 10%) of a self-rating of knowledge acquisition and application traits as compared with an average person their age. The items are: "Mathematical ability" and "Writing ability."
Precollege humanitarianism: An individual's response to a 2 item, Likert-type scale (5=highest 10% to 1=lowest 10%) of a self-rating of humanitarianism traits as compared with an average person their age. The items are: "Cooperativeness" and "Understanding of others."

Table A.1 – continued

Precollege interpersonal and intrapersonal competence: An individual's response to a 5 item, Likert-type scale (5=highest 10% to 1=lowest 10%) of a self-rating of interpersonal and intrapersonal competence traits as compared with an average person their age. The items are: "Leadership ability," "Public speaking ability," "Leadership ability," "Self confidence (intellectual)," and "Self confidence (social)."

Institutional Characteristics
Institutional type: 0=Public; 1= Private
Geographic location: Four dummy variables (1 or 0) for Midwest, South, and West. East geographic location is the reference group and will be coded 0.

Academic Experiences
College grade average: Self-reported grades four years after being administered the CSS, where dummy coded (A, A+; B to A-; and B- and below) with grades B to A- as the reference group.
Hours per week spent studying: Five dummy variable for a students' self-report of average hours spent studying per week (no study; 5 or less hours; 6-10 hours; 11-15 hours; and 16-20 plus hours of studying) with 6-10 hours of studying as the reference group.
Academic courses/experiences taken: Ethnic studies and women studies courses were selected where 0=not taken course and 1= taken course.
Faculty Support: Individual's response on a 6-item scale assesses the support felt by faculty. Items include: "Advice and guidance about your educational program," "Respect (treated you like a colleague/peer); "Emotional support and encouragement," "An opportunity to discuss coursework outside of class," "Help in achieving professional goals" and "Intellectual challenge and stimulation." Response options were: 3 = frequently; 2 = occasionally; and 1 = not at all.

Non-Academic Experiences
Hours worked per week: Five dummy variable for students self-report of average hours spent working for pay (no work, 5 or less hours, 6-10 hours, 11-15 hours, 16 hours plus) with 6-10 hours of work per week as the reference group.
Hours performed volunteer work per week: Four dummy variables for students self-report of average hours spent volunteering per week (no volunteering, less than 2 hours, 3-5 hours, and more than 6 hours) with less than 2 hours of volunteer work per week as the reference group.
On-campus residence: Variable coded: 1 = lived on-campus (college dormitory, fraternity or sorority house, other campus student housing), 0 = lived off-campus and commuted (live with parents or relatives, other private home, apartment, room, or other).
Intercollegiate athletic participation: Variable coded: 1 = participated in an intercollegiate sport, 0 = did not participate in an intercollegiate sport.
Social fraternity/sorority affiliation: A dummy variable coded: 1 = joined a fraternity or sorority, 0 = remained independent.

Table A1. -- continued

Student Government Participation: Variable coded: 1 = participated in student government, 0 = did not participate in student government.
Involvement in Ethnic Organization: Variable coded: 1 = participated in an ethnic organization, 0 = did not participate in an ethnic organization.
Participated in Leadership Training: Variable coded: 1 = participated in leadership training, 0 = did not participate in leadership training.

APPENDIX B

OPERATIONAL DEFFINITIONS OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Table B1. Operational Definitions of Dependent Variables

Cognitive Complexity - An individual's score from the CSS on a 2-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessing change in critical thinking and reasoning four years after entering college. Items are: "Ability to think critically" and "Analytical and problem-solving skills."

Knowledge Acquisition and Application - An individual's score from the CSS on a 9-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessed change in understanding of a wide range of disciplines and application of this knowledge to daily life four years after entering college. Items are: "General knowledge," "Knowledge of a particular field or discipline," Knowledge of people from different races/cultures," "Foreign language ability," "Computer skills," "Mathematical skills," "Public speaking ability," "Writing skills," and "Ability to get along with different races/cultures."

Humanitarianism - An individual's score from the CSS on a 3-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessed change in the sensitivity to the needs of others. Items are: "Understanding of social problems facing our nation," "Understanding of global issues," and "Understanding of the problems facing your community."

Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Competence – An individual's score on a 2-item, Likert-type scale (5= much stronger to 1= much weaker) assessed change in personal attributes and skills. Items are: "Leadership abilities" and "Interpersonal skills."

APPENDIX C

DESCRIPTIVE STATISICS OF ALL VARIABLES IN ANALYSIS

Table C1. Descriptive Statistics of All Variables in Analyses

	Percentage[1]	Minimum	Maximum	Frequency
Student Background Characteristics and Pre-College Ability				
Female	62	0	1	Male=4,983 Female=8,064
African American	2.9	0	1	N[2]=372
White (reference group)[3]	83.9	0	1	N=10,952
Latino	3.2	0	1	N=412
Asian American/Pacific Islander	3.5	0	1	N=457
Other/Native American	1.9	0	1	N=243
Multi-Racial	4.7	0	1	N=611
Age-Under 21 years old	0	0	1	N=3
Age-21 years old	1.3	0	1	N=174
Age-22 years old (reference group)	71.9	0	1	N=9,390
Age-23 years old	26.1	0	1	N=3,411
Age-24 years old	0.5	0	1	N=69
SIF[4]- Father college (reference group)	29.6	0	1	N=3,867
SIF-Father high school or less	17.8	0	1	N=2,316
SIF-Father some college	15.8	0	1	N=2,059
SIF-Father Grad school	36.8	0	1	N=4,805
SIF- Mother college (reference group)	34.5	0	1	N=4,499
SIF-Mother high school or less	20.1	0	1	N=2,626
SIF-Mother some college	19.9	0	1	N=2,607
SIF-Mother Grad school	25.4	0	1	N=3,315
ACT Scores	X[5]=26.603	13	36	N=13,047
SIF-High school grades- A, A plus	37.7	0	1	N=4,912
SIF-High school grades- B to A- (reference group)	57.9	0	1	N=7,560
SIF-High school grades- B- or below	4.4	0	1	N=575
Income 1 ($6,000-$49,999)	24.1	0	1	N=3,139
Income 2 ($50,000-$74,999) (reference group)	30.6	0	1	N=3,987

[1] The percentage provided refers to the students who responded yes to the dichotomous item.
[2] N=the number of students who responded yes to the item.
[3] Reference group is italicized and is the excluded category in multiple regression. The group is excluded "because each of the coefficients is a comparison between the included category and the reference category" (Allison, 1999, p.29). For example, White students are compared to African American, Latino, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, Other/Native American, and Multi-Racial students.
[4] SIF denotes information was gathered from the 1999 Student Information Form students.
[5] X is the mean for this continuous variable.

Table C1. – continued

	Percentage	Minimum	Maximum	Frequency
Income 3 ($75,000-$149,999)	29.5	0	1	N=3,847
Income 4 ($150,000 +)	15.9	0	1	N=2,074
Pre-College Activism				
SIF-Demonstrations	38.6	0	1	N=5,039
SIF-Social & Political Values	X=2.081	0	6	N=13,047
Pre-college Learning Measures				
Pre-college cognitive complexity-academic ability	X=4.10	1	5	N=13,047
Pre-college cognitive complexity-mathematic ability	X=3.53	1	5	N=13,047
Pre-college knowledge acquisition & application- writing ability	X=3.61	1	5	N=13,047
Pre-college humanitarianism-cooperativeness	X=4.01	1	5	N=13,047
Pre-college humanitarianism-understanding of others	X=3.87	1	5	N=13,047
Pre-college interpersonal and intrapersonal competence	X=3.579	1	5	N=13,047
Activism				
Demonstrations	22.3	0	1	N=13,047
Social & Political Values	X=2.279	0	6	N=13,047
Institutional Characteristics				
Institutional Type (public vs. private)	95	0	1	Private=12,350 Public=697
East Region (reference group)	39.7	0	1	N=5,174
West Region	12.5	0	1	N=1,636
Midwest Region	34.4	0	1	N=4,493
South Region	13.4	0	1	N=1,744
College Academic Experiences				=
College grades- A, A plus	17.6	0	1	N=2,297
College grades- B to A- (reference group)	74.9	0	1	N=9,778
College grades- B-and below	7.5	0	1	N=972
Hrs per week spent studying (None)	0	0	1	N=62
Hrs per week spent studying (5 or less)	26	0	1	N=3,406
Hrs per week spent studying (6-10) (reference group)	28	0	1	N=3,610
Hrs per week spent studying (11-15)	20	0	1	N=2,604
Hrs per week spent studying (16-20 or more)	26	0	1	N=3,365
Taken an ethnic studies course	42	0	1	N=5,475
Taken a women's studies course	24	0	1	N=3,131
Faculty Support scale	X=2.34	1	3	N=13,046
Faculty Support (std).	X=.005	-3.059	1.506	N=13,046

Table C1. – continued

	Percentage	Minimum	Maximum	Frequency
College Non-Academic Experiences				
Hrs per week spent working (None)	21	0	1	N=2,775
Hrs per week spent working (5 or less)	18	0	1	N=2,405
Hrs per week spent working (6-10) (reference group)	24	0	1	N=3,086
Hrs per week spent working (11-15)	15	0	1	N=1,926
Hrs per week spent working (16 or more)	22	0	1	N=2,855
On-campus residence	94	0	1	N=12,268
Intercollegiate athletic participation	31	0	1	N=4,038
Social fraternity/sorority affiliation	23	0	1	N=2,980
Participated in student government	14	0	1	N=1,787
Involved in racial/ethnic organization	15	0	1	N=2,009
Participated in leadership training	24	0	1	N=3,187
Hrs per week spent volunteering (None)	33.4	0	1	N=4,359
Hrs per week spent volunteering (2 or less) (reference group)	49.1	0	1	N=6411
Hrs per week spent volunteering (3-5)	11.1	0	1	N=1,455
Hrs per week spent volunteering (6 or more)	6.3	0	1	N=822
Student Learning Outcomes				
Cognitive Complexity	X=4.329	1	5	N=13,047
Cognitive Complexity (standardized)	X=.010	-6.046	1.231	N=13,047
Knowledge Acquisition & Application	X=3.988	1	5	N=13,047
Knowledge Acquisition & Application (standardized)	X=.003	-7.287	2.473	N=13,047
Humanitarianism	X=4.037	1	5	N=13,047
Humanitarianism (standardized)	X=-.0007	-4.792	1.518	N=13,047
Interpersonal & Intrapersonal Competence	X=4.133	1	5	N=13,047
Interpersonal & Intrapersonal Competence (standardized)	X=.004	-4.921	1.367	N=13,047