ABSTRACT

Title of Document:	Socially Responsible Leadership: The Role of Participation in Short-term Service Immersion Programs
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The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between short-term service immersion programs (STSI), such as Alternative Spring Break (ASB), and socially responsible leadership as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). Participation in STSI programs have been growing exponentially since 2006 (Bohn, 2009; Break Away, 2009, 2010). Despite the dramatic growth in STSI program participation, there is limited research on outcomes of STSI participation, particularly leadership capacities. This study provides insight into the profile of STSI program participants as well as promising findings as to the relationship between STSI participation and socially responsible leadership.

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) served as the dataset for this study. A sample of 9,553 seniors who indicated participation in leadership education and training programs was analyzed to understand the demographics of STSI participation as well as its relationship with socially responsible leadership. Using an adapted version of Astin's (1991, 1993) Inputs-Environments-Outcomes (IEO) college impact model as the conceptual framework for this study, three hypotheses were tested to assess the relationship between STSI participation and socially responsible leadership. Independent

samples t-tests and one blocked, forced-entry, hierarchical regression were used to analyze data. Although the findings from this study did show that STSI participants scored higher on the socially responsible leadership outcome than those with no STSI, STSI participation did not significantly contribute to socially responsible leadership when controlling for pre-college variables, gender, race/ethnicity, age, and other environmental variables, which included: participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations.

Further analyses supported extant literature affirming a connection between community service participation and socially responsible leadership as well as the connection between participation in socio-cultural conversations and socially responsible leadership. Post hoc analyses exposed a relationship between STSI participation and higher scores on the socio-cultural conversation scale. Socially responsible leadership is influenced by the included environmental variables and more than 9% of the total variance explained in this study was explained by the high-impact practices (Kuh, 2009) included in the study. These findings fill a gap between research and practice and provide support for the development STSI programs on campus.

SOCIALLY REPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP: THE ROLE OF PARTICIPATION IN
SHORT-TERM SERVICE IMMERSION PROGRAMS

BY

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Phyllis L. Mable who taught me the value of

"living, loving, learning, and leaving a legacy."

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As this work was made possible only by the many scholars upon whose work I am humbled to build, so too my journey to doctorate would not have been successful without the care and encouragement of so many.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Term	Abbreviation
Alternative Spring Break	ASB
Community Service-Learning	CSL
Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership	MSL
Short-term Service Immersion	STSI
Social Change Model of Leadership	SCM
Socially Responsible Leadership Scale	SRLS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly complex and changing world, colleges and universities are being called not only to prepare the next generation of Americans for careers in disciplines such as engineering, science, and mathematics (Committee on Equal Opportunities in Science and Engineering, 2004; Perna, Gasman, Gary, Lundy-Wagner, & Drezner, 2010), but also to educate leaders and citizens (Colby, 2002; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Gutmann, 1987/1999; Jones & Abes, 2004; Komives, 2011; McElhaney, 1998; Zlotkowski, Horowitz, & Benson, 2011). At the same time, tuition costs are rising and college affordability is a barrier to achieving these goals (Paulsen & St. John, 2002; Tierney & Venegas, 2009). To overcome this obstacle, President Obama and Education Secretary Duncan proposed a community service tuition credit, which would have enabled eligible college students to receive monetary assistance for participating in community service during college through the American Opportunity Tax Credit (Organizing for America: Education, 2008). In further support of community service in the United States, Senator Edward Kennedy sponsored the Serve America Act as part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, which passed in April 2009 (Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act, 2009). In this act, Congress authorized more funding for the Corporation for National & Community Service with an anticipated effect on higher education through increased Americorps funding and greater tuition awards for Americorps participation (Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act, 2009). Although the worsening economy and changes in political leadership have shifted the national focus on community service, college students are still actively engaged in their communities.

Leadership development has also received increased attention on campus (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Komives, 2011). The increase in leadership majors, minors, and programs in addition to the rise of leadership publications are indicators of this trend (Mainella & Love, 2011; Posner, 2009). Leadership capacity is a desired outcome for college graduates (Astin & Astin, 2000; Colby, 2002; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Dugan et al., 2011; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Gutmann, 1987/1999; Jones & Abes, 2004; Komives, 2011; McElhaney, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Zlotkowski, Horowitz, & Benson, 2011) and an ever-increasing focus for employers (Hansen & Hansen, n.d.). As such, the development of leadership is more important than ever. Ways in which educators can foster leadership range from classroom settings to co-curricular experiences (Armfield, 2004; Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2011; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Morosini, & Beazley, 2011; Kitsantas, 2004; Lee, 2010; Mainella & Love, 2011; Meixner & Rosch, 2011; Smist, 2011; Taylor, 1988; Thompson, 2006). In particular, high-impact practices identified through the National Survey of Student Engagement (2007) have been especially prevalent as platforms for leadership education. These practices include community service-learning, internships, study abroad, and conversations across and about difference (Komives, 2011; Kuh, 2009; National Survey of Student Engagement, 2007).

Similar to leadership education, training, and development programs, motivating students to participate in community service has not been difficult. The Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) data from 2009 and 2010 support trends of increased college student involvement in community service and volunteerism, each year marking a new record high. The 2009 CIRP freshman survey was completed by 219,864

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first-time, full-time, first-year students. Of those, 30.8% indicated a "very good chance" of participating in community service and less than 10% indicated no intention of engaging in community service (Pryor, Hurtado, DeAngelo, Palucki Blake, & Tran, 2010). Of the 201,818 first-time, full-time, first-year students surveyed in the 2010 CIRP freshman survey, 32.1% indicated a "very good chance" of engaging in volunteer work while in college compared to 16.9% in 1990, the first year the question was included on the survey (Pryor et al., 2011).

Intentions are not the only indicator of community service involvement. Franke, Ruiz, Sharkness, DeAngelo, and Pryor (2010) reported findings from the 2009 CIRP College Senior Survey showing that college students participate in community service and other immersion programs at high rates. Of the 24,457 graduating seniors who participated in the CIRP study in 2009, 54.6% indicated that they participated in an internship program and 30.4% participated in a study abroad program (Franke et al., 2010, p. 5). Further, 71.4% reported participating in volunteer work while in college (Franke et al., 2010, p. 16), 18.2% reported a probable post-graduation job related to volunteer work, and 8.8% indicated plans to work in a community service organization (Franke et al., 2010, p. 26). Finally, of the students who indicated that there was a "very good chance" they would participate in community service or volunteer during college as freshmen, 85.5% actually performed community service, and of those who indicated there was "no chance" they would participate in community service, 46.8% actually did perform community service (Franke et al., 2010, p. 30). Franke et al. summarized their analysis of graduating seniors stating, "In terms of extra-curricular experiences during

college, seniors reported spending their time engaged in a number of activities including volunteering, working, exercising, and partying" (p. 34).

Additionally, data from Campus Compact (2011) revealed that more than one-third of students reported participation in campus-organized service-learning activities equating to an estimated $7.96 billion labor value and totaling more than 382 million hours of service. The 2010 Campus Compact survey was sent to its 1,165 member institutions and reported responses from 64% of them (740 institutions). The responding institutions represented a diverse array of institution types, size, and focus (Campus Compact, 2011).

Data from the U.S. Census Bureau reported that 18,632,000 students were enrolled in higher education in 2008 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). If the Campus Compact statistics are accurate and more than one-third of college students are participating in service, that could translate to more than six million American college students who are involved in community service initiatives annually. Despite this high level of involvement in community service and the governmental push for community service participation, research on outcomes associated with community service involvement is relatively limited in terms of specific types of service opportunities. Furthermore, although colleges and universities promote community service as a mechanism to educate leaders and future citizens, there is little research on the connection between community service and leadership development, an espoused goal of higher education.

The growth of participation in community service-learning parallels the growth in Alternative Spring Break (ASB) programs, a particular form of short-term service

immersion (STSI) program, which has grown significantly in the past decade at colleges and universities across the United States. Alternative Spring Break trips are a form of community service-learning that immerses students in a weeklong service project, typically in a location away from their home campus (Break Away, 2009; Cooper, 2002). In an article in *Time Magazine*, Bohn (2009) speculated that ASB participation would rise from an estimated 48,000 students in 2007 to 65,000 students in 2009. These are both up from an estimated 36,000 students in 2006 (Break Away, 2009). Data from Break Away's 2010 Annual National Alternative Break Survey estimated 72,000 individuals would participate in an alternative break in 2010 (Break Away, 2010). Short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB, have been useful tools for educators to maximize opportunities for involvement with limited time resources (Bustam, Moorman, van Riper, Stehn, & McCown, 2009; Cooper, 2002; Kiely, 2004, 2005; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Neururer, 1998).

Problem Statement

Despite the increased focus on leadership and the increased participation in STSI programs, very little research exists on outcomes associated with STSI program participation, specifically as related to student leadership capacities. In contrast, positive results have been found in research regarding the relationship between leadership outcomes and long-term immersion programs, such as internships (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Morosini, & Beazley, 2011; Taylor, 1988; Thompson, 2006) and study abroad (Armfield, 2004; Kitsantas, 2004; Lee, 2010). Additionally, research supports the importance of participation in socio-cultural conversations and community service participation as important predictors of leadership capacities (e.g. Dugan, 2011; Dugan &

Komives, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gasiorski, 2009). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between short-term service immersion involvement and socially responsible leadership outcomes as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). Specifically, the guiding research questions were, (1) was there a significant difference in leadership outcomes between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and those who do not?; (2) was there a significant difference between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and community service compared with those who only participate in one type of program or none at all?; and (3) when controlling for pre-college variables, demographics, and other college environment factors, did participation in short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB, contribute to leadership outcomes as defined by the SRLS?

Definition of Terms

Leadership development, community service-learning, short-term service immersion, and Alternative Spring Break are all terms with multiple meanings. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, these key terms were defined in the following way:

- **Socially responsible leadership** is defined by the social change model of leadership development, which "approaches leadership as a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Cilente, 2009, p. 50).
- **Community service-learning** is an intentionally designed experiential learning experience that includes a purposeful reflection component; community service-

learning can be either curricular or co-curricular characterized by a reciprocal community partnership (Butin, 2005; Jacoby, 1996).

- **Short-term Service Immersion** programs commonly are brief in duration, purposefully designed, and often include community service (Jones, Rowan-Kenyon, Ireland, Niehaus, & Skendall, 2012). STSI programs typically occur over a campus break, such as January term or spring break.

- **Alternative Spring Break** is a type of **short-term service immersion** opportunity for teams of typically 10-12 college students that focuses on a particular social issue with an intentional reflection and meaning-making component (Break Away, 2009; Cooper, 2002; Jones et al., 2012).

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Significance of the Study

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This study was one of the first multi-institutional studies of STSI, which contributes to literature and practice and provides new information regarding demographics of participation. This study painted a better profile of who is participating in STSI programs such as ASB and who is not participating. By having a broader understanding of participation and its potential influence, practitioners can intentionally engage populations that traditionally have not participated in such STSIs as ASB. Furthermore, a better understanding of the connection between STSI programs and leadership outcomes better informs institutions as they seek to meet their goals of educating leaders and citizens.

This study used ASB as the primary example of an STSI program and connected literature related to ASB to guide the inquiry. Break Away (2009) is a national clearinghouse and resource for ASB programs. According to their eight components of

quality programs and their definition of ASB, intentionality and reflection are key characteristics of a successful program. Given those standards, this study and its findings can enhance the intentionality of program design. A better understanding of the relationship of STSI participation to leadership draws a clearer connection for practitioners and informs program design.

Summary of Methods

The 2009 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) served as the data source for this research study. The 2009 MSL studied 101 institutions with 115,632 responders (34%) of which 9,553 seniors were used in this study. The sample in this study consisted of all respondents who were seniors that completed at least 90% of the instrument and indicated participation in leadership education and training, such as short-term service immersion programs. Because the MSL surveyed college students and asked questions regarding socially responsible leadership and short-term service immersion program involvement, it served as an excellent tool to answer the research questions outlined above. The methods used to answer the research questions were ANOVA, independent samples t-tests, and hierarchical multiple regression, consistent with a quasi-I-E-O design (Astin, 1991, 1993).

Conclusion

There is a dearth of research on connections between STSI experiences such as ASB and socially responsible leadership. This study sought to fill the gap between what is documented with regard to the relationships between community service-learning, internships, study abroad, socio-cultural conversations, and socially responsible leadership. Using a large, national, multi-institutional dataset as the source for the

research can help advance this understudied body of knowledge. The next chapter will

support these research questions with a review of theory and related literature.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As stated in the previous chapter, college student participation in programs like Alternative Spring Break (ASB) has grown rapidly, yet research on the outcomes associated with participation remains limited. This chapter will overview relevant theory and research, including: leadership development theory, pedagogies for learning leadership, and high-impact learning experiences. High-impact learning experiences include community service-learning, ASB programs, study abroad, and other types of immersion programs. The rationale for this literature review is grounded in Astin's (1999) theory of involvement. Astin posited that involvement on campus positively contributes to a student's collegiate experience and this theory informed the design of this study.

An Overview of Leadership Development Theory

Leadership development is often espoused as a goal of higher education. Leadership research, education, development, and training have shifted greatly over the past thirty years (Komives, 2011). Early leadership literature defined and studied leadership development as a static, hierarchical, trait-based phenomenon rooted in an industrial, management paradigm (Bass, 1990; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2007; Rost, 1991). In 1978, James MacGregor Burns' work on transforming leadership was one of the first pieces to look at leadership as a dynamic, non-hierarchical process. Recent literature examined leadership from this postindustrial paradigm and was often characterized by research and scholarship that focused on relationships, process-orientation, fluidity, and ethics associated with college student leadership development (Allen & Cherry, 2000; Astin, 1996; Astin & Astin, 2000; Astin & Leland, 1991; Avolio

& Gardner, 2005; Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Couto, 1995a, 1995b; Dugan, 2006a, 2006b; Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996; Komives & Dugan, 2010; Komives, et al., 2007; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Northouse, 2007; Romano, 1997; Rost, 1991; Wheatley, 1999). These more recent philosophies of leadership development seemed to connect better with higher education goals and community service initiatives because of their tendency towards inclusion, stewardship, common purpose, and social change (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006).

Historical Perspectives on Leadership

Early conceptualizations of leadership were leader-centric, trait-based, and primarily focused upon men. The Great Man theory of leadership espoused the belief that being a leader was something genetic and inherent to men in power and was passed down like the crown in royal families (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2007; Roberts, 2007). A shift from the Great Man approach to a more equitable trait-based approach occurred with the rise in influence of the United States and democratic ideals. Both philosophies of leadership, however, assumed that being a leader was an in-born property that was passed down and was a characteristic most often ascribed to men (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2007; Roberts, 2007). The major traits associated with being a leader were intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Chemers, 1995; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2007; Roberts, 2007; Rost, 1991).

The twentieth century gave rise to a shift in how leadership was conceptualized toward a focus on research and how to be a leader. Out of this research movement, several studies at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan examined

behaviors of a leader and the situations in which leaders needed to act. These two-factor theories emphasized both the leadership task and relationships. As a result, behavioral, situational, and contingency theories emerged and are still present today in managerial literature (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1995; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2007; Roberts, 2007; Rost, 1991).

Burns' (1978) pioneering work on transforming leadership was a turning point in leadership history. He not only readily incorporated followers into his approach to leadership, but he acknowledged their capacity to lead. Burns depicted two approaches to leadership; the first was transactional leadership that was a quid pro quo approach to leadership, in which there was an exchange between leader and follower. The second was the focus of Burns' work, transforming leadership. At the heart of transforming leadership was integrity and morality. This approach was grounded on the idea that the purpose of leadership was for leaders to turn followers into leaders and leaders into moral agents (Burns, 1978).

Current views of leadership grew out of Burns' (1978) notion of transforming leadership and are distinct from the earlier, managerial approaches to leadership. Rost (1991) chronicled the history of leadership in the industrial era, with a focus on resource allocation and management and proposed a new paradigm of leadership grounded in the postindustrial era. His theory was heavily informed by Burns and changed how leadership development was conceived. Rost challenged past approaches to leadership and called for a shift in leadership to be viewed as a more relational, process-oriented, ethical, and change-oriented approach as opposed to traditional, static, hierarchical conceptualizations.

Rost (1991) is often cited as a catalyst in a movement that shifted views of leadership to a more relational approach and created opportunities for women and individuals from collectivist cultures to be called leaders. A counter-argument to this perspective is to consider that perhaps a paradigm shift occurred for one segment of the population—those in power. Komives and Dugan (2010) provide insight to this critique of Rost and acknowledged that relational leadership has been present in marginalized populations for a long time; however, the leaderly behavior was only named such after Rost observed this perceived paradigm shift.

Regardless of whether a paradigm shift occurred or not, while the term leadership was once reserved for those in power or the elite, the postindustrial shift expanded its scope to a notion where all people have the capacity for leadership. The 1990s gave rise to a greater focus on this postindustrial approach to leadership. At this time, the relational leadership model, shared leadership, and collaborative leadership emerged (Astin & Astin, 2000; Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003; Helgesen, 1995; Komives et al., 2007; Rost, 1991).

At the same time that these shared approaches to leadership were being developed and utilized in the 1990s, there was a national commitment to community service that (re)emerged during Bill Clinton's presidency with the introduction of AmeriCorps (McCarron, 2000; Simon & Wang, 2002) and the America Reads programs (Roberts, 1999). Concurrently, Astin and Leland (1991) published their groundbreaking research on women and their involvement in social movements. In an effort to expand the research of Astin and Leland and to explore community service on campus, Astin and Astin applied for an Eisenhower grant to study leadership. Out of that effort, the social

change model of leadership development (SCM) emerged (HERI, 1996; Komives,

Wagner, & Associates, 2009).

The Social Change Model of Leadership

An Eisenhower grant funded the social change model's development, which

emerged during the postindustrial era of leadership education, with the intent of

enhancing student learning and development through leadership and self-knowledge and

producing positive social change. Building upon the work of Astin and Leland (1991),

the ensemble of leadership educators who created the model, sought to achieve their

goals through a model of non-hierarchical leadership grounded in a postindustrial

framework. The social change model is grounded in the following assumptions:

    a. Leadership is socially responsible, it impacts change on behalf of others;

    b. Leadership is collaborative;

    c. Leadership is a process, not a position;

    d. Leadership is inclusive and accessible to all people;

    e. Leadership is values-based; and

    f. Community involvement/service is a powerful vehicle for leadership

       (Astin 1996; Bonous-Hammarth, 2001; Cilente, 2009; HERI, 1996).

These assumptions are operationalized in a philosophy of leadership that occurs on three

levels of values with the ultimate goal of promoting positive social change through

socially responsible leadership and community service involvement. Consciousness of

self, commitment, and congruence are the values promoted at the individual level;

common purpose, controversy with civility, and collaboration at the group level; and

citizenship at the community/society level (HERI, 1996). Table 2.1 provides definitions

for the eight values of the model. Of particular note, the social change model assumes

community service is a vehicle for leadership, both as a tool for developing social change

and as an opportunity for students to apply socially responsible leadership as espoused by

the model.

Table 2.1

Definitions of Leadership Variables

Outcome	Definition
Change	This scale focuses primarily on an individual's comfort with change and transition. Some items include: *I am open to new ideas* and *I work well in changing environments.*
Citizenship	This scale measures the level of civic responsibility, civic engagement, and societal contributions of the respondent. Examples of items are: *I give my time to making a difference for someone* and *I work with others to make my communities better places.*
Common Purpose	The focus of this scale is on the way in which a respondent views the intent of a group to which he or she belongs. Items include: *Common values drive an organization* and *I contribute to the goals of the group.*
Collaboration	This outcome measures the ways in which respondents perceive the importance of cooperation and teamwork in a group. Examples are: *I actively listen to what others have to say* and *I can make a difference when I work with others on a task.*
Controversy with Civility	This scale measures the level of comfort a respondent has with conflict and disagreement. Some items include: *Creativity can come from conflict* and *Hearing differences in opinions enriches my thinking.*
Consciousness of Self	The focus of this scale is on the extent to which a respondent is self-aware. Examples of items are: *I could describe my personality* and *I am able to articulate my priorities.*

Congruence	The scale focuses primarily on a respondent's perception of internal consistency and integrity. Items include: *It is important to me to act on my beliefs* and *Being seen as a person of integrity if important to me.*
Commitment	This outcome focuses on the follow-through of a respondent and his or her level of dedication to a cause or group. Some items include: *I am focused on my responsibilities* and *I can be counted on to do my part.*

Note. Sources for this table include Appel-Silbaugh, 2005; Astin, 1996; Cilente, 2009; Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2006; HERI, 1996; Tyree, 1998; Wagner, 2007

According to Burns (1978), the preeminent scholar on leadership, "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth," (p. 2). The multitude of approaches to and definitions of leadership make it a challenging area to study. The social change model, however, is one of the only postindustrial approaches to leadership with a statistically valid and reliable instrument to measure the outcomes with which it is associated. The SCM serves as the theoretical foundation for the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), which is the core of the instrument utilized in this study. It is necessary to explain the foundations of the model to understand the philosophy of leadership measured in this study, particularly the assertion that community service is integral to socially responsible leadership.

Research on College Students and the Social Change Model

The social change model has begun to influence curricula and programs related to leadership. Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) stated, "The social change model of leadership development and the seven C's of social change have played a prominent role in shaping the curricula and formats of undergraduate leadership

education initiatives in colleges and universities throughout the country" (p. 142).

Practical application of the social change model on college campuses coincides with

growing use of the framework in scholarly research (Bonous-Hammarth, 2001; Dugan,

2006a, 2006b, 2011; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Morosini, & Beazley, 2011;

Dugan & Yurman, 2011; Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-

McGavin, 2006; Komives, 2011; Komives & Dugan, 2011; Komives, Lucas, &

McMahon, 2007; Lee, 2010; Ricketts, Bruce, & Ewing, 2008).

The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) is an instrument developed to

measure the outcomes associated with the social change model (Tyree, 1998). Early

research using the SRLS utilized a single-institutional sample; however, the results were

promising. Dugan's (2006b) analysis on the relationship between student involvement

and socially responsible leadership revealed favorable results. Involvement in

community service, student organizations, formal leadership programming, and holding

leadership positions on campus contributed significantly to six of eight outcomes (Dugan,

2006b). In another analysis from the same dataset, Dugan (2006a) found that women

scored significantly higher on six of eight outcomes than men in the study. Recent

research from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) supported these findings

with a national sample (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

More recent research that utilized the SRLS not only supported the earlier

research on the role of involvement and leadership outcomes, it also shed light on other

important factors to understanding student leadership development. In a study of 14,252

seniors from more than 50 colleges and universities, Dugan and Komives (2010) used the

I-E-O model (Astin, 1991, 1993) to measure the impact of demographics and college

environments on leadership outcomes. Findings demonstrated the significance of race, gender, and age on explaining leadership outcomes for participants in the study. Further, environmental factors such as community service, participation in socio-cultural conversations, involvement in student organizations, and formal leadership training also contributed significantly to students' leadership capacity (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Ricketts, Bruce, and Ewing (2008) sought to better understand students in the College of Agricultural Sciences at one university. A total of 791 students participated in the survey out of a sample of 2,056 total students in the college. This descriptive study demonstrated that students in this study rated themselves favorably on the outcomes associated with the SRLS (Ricketts, Bruce, & Ewing, 2008). In another descriptive study of a similar sample, Ewing, Bruce, and Ricketts (2009), counted the number of students involved in student organizations and those who held officer positions. Although neither study utilized inferential statistics, nor did they compare results across their samples, it could be inferred that there is a relationship between the SRLS outcomes and involvement on campus due to the overlap between the samples. Research on college students using the social change model supported the notion that leadership can be taught and learned. The next section illuminates ways in which leadership can be taught.

Teaching and Learning Leadership

Teaching and learning leadership can happen in a variety of contexts and ways. "Powerful pedagogies" (Meixner & Rosch, 2011, p. 316), such as experiential education, socio-cultural conversations, and service-learning are documented delivery methods for teaching leadership, both in and out of the classroom. Immersion education is a type of community-based learning used as a delivery method as well. This section will provide

an overview of experiential education, socio-cultural conversations, and immersion education as pedagogies for leadership. The next section will include information on service-learning.

Experiential Education

Dewey (1938), Kolb (1984), and Lewin (1946) are often looked to as the pioneers of experiential education. Meixner and Rosch (2011) cited experiential education to be a powerful pedagogy for teaching leadership. Kolb (1984) described the importance of experiential learning not to be an alternative to cognitive or rationalist theories of learning, but to introduce a more holistic approach to considering education. Kolb's research on experiential learning helped to shift perspectives on learning so that learning could be perceived as a process rather than a focus on outcomes. Experiential learning is operationalized in different ways, through service-learning, internships, study abroad, and other types of immersion experiences. Research on the value of each of these types of practices is detailed in the next section.

According to Kolb (1984), learners required abilities in the following four areas: concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and active experimentation (AE). In Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT), he detailed these abilities across two dimensions, grasping experiences and transforming experiences (Kolb, Boyzatis, & Mainemelis, 1999). Experiential learning was used in leadership education in several ways, often as an opportunity for individuals to connect personal experiences as a way of understanding leadership concepts (Heifetz, 1994).

Internships and field experiences are examples of experiential education. Using data from the 2006 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, Dugan and Komives (2010)

analyzed a sample of 14,252 college seniors to explore influences on socially responsible leadership. The outcomes measured were all eight values of the social change model as measured by the SRLS and separate regressions were conducted using a college impact design (Astin, 1991, 1993). Findings from that study supported many ways in which leadership was influenced; in particular Dugan and Komives found that internships significantly contributed to the collaboration outcome of the socially responsible leadership scale.

Thompson (2006) conducted a study of 459 college students at a liberal arts institution designed to measure leadership outcomes as measured by the leadership attitudes and beliefs scale (LABS-III), specifically hierarchical thinking and systemic thinking. The data were divided into four categories; low-hierarchical thinking/low-systemic thinking; high-hierarchical thinking/low-systemic thinking; low-hierarchical thinking/high-systemic thinking; and high-hierarchical thinking/high-systemic thinking. Variables were created for eight types of campus involvement, which included: arts, entertainment, or music group; coursework experiences; faculty or staff experiences and interactions; intercollegiate or intramural athletics; internship, field experience, off-campus study; political or social organizations; peer experiences and interactions; and volunteer service. Specifically, internships statistically significantly shaped how leadership was perceived. Thompson found that five of the eight involvement areas, including internships, were statistically significant, which means that respondents indicated that internship experiences contributed to their views of leadership as measured by the LABS-III.

Socio-cultural Conversations

Data from the 2006 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership supported the importance of socio-cultural conversations to student leadership outcomes. Socio-cultural conversations include conversations with diverse others on diverse topics or conversations in homogenous groups about topics of difference, such as religion, politics, race, or sexual orientation. Dugan and Komives (2010) reported, "The strongest of these [variables] was the degree to which students reported engaging in socio-cultural conversations with their peers, which was a significant predictor across all eight outcome measures" (p. 538). As a pedagogical tool, socio-cultural conversations take place in formal and informal settings, both inside and outside of the classroom (Meixner & Rosch, 2011). Meixner and Rosch (2011) outlined different ways in which socio-cultural conversations have been used to teach leadership, such as intergroup dialogue, book clubs, and hot topic conversations.

Research from the American Association of Colleges & Universities' (AAC&U) Core Commitments project also supported socio-cultural conversations as an important component of the collegiate curricula. In a study of 24,000 undergraduate students and 9,000 campus professionals across 23 different colleges and universities, Dey and Associates (2010) showed that their participants not only wanted to be involved in conversations with diverse perspectives, those same participants believed their colleges and universities should do more to promote these types of experiences. Further, students in the study shared, "controversial and provocative classroom discussions encouraged them to gain respect for differing perspectives" (Dey & Associates, 2010, p. 17). The mixed methods approach to understanding personal and social responsibility used by Dey

and Associates provided useful descriptive data for understanding student and campus professionals' perceptions of socio-cultural conversations.

In a study that supported the University of Michigan's use of diversity in admissions policy, Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002) compared data from two longitudinal studies of college students. One was a national study from the Cooperative Institutional Research Study (CIRP), based at UCLA, which surveyed 11,383 students at 184 institutions. These data represented 10,465 White students, 216 African American students, 496 Asian American students, and 206 Latino/a students. This study surveyed entering first-year students in 1985 and then followed up with the same students in 1989 and again in 2004. For this study, however, the researchers limited their comparison to the entrance survey and the first follow-up to best parallel the Michigan Student Survey (MSS), the source of the comparison data. The second dataset used was the MSS, which surveyed entering students in 1990 and then followed up with those same students in 1994. The total number of participants used in this study represented 1,582 students. Of those, 1,129 participants identified as White, 187 identified as African American, and 266 identified as Asian American.

Using multiple regressions, the researchers reported significant findings for each group of students within both studies when measuring learning outcomes and diversity outcomes. The analysis consisted of measuring the effect of diversity activities as sole predictors, such as informal interaction and classroom diversity for the CIRP study and interactional diversity, classroom diversity, and participation in events/dialogues for the MSS (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Dey, 2002). Following the sole predictor model, the researchers also tested the interaction of each predictor in a second model. Although

findings varied in terms of variance explained, there was consistency in the role of diversity in advancing learning outcomes and democracy outcomes for both studies. This research affirmed the importance of both formal and informal interaction with diverse others. The authors concluded, "education is enhanced by extensive and meaningful informal interracial interaction, which depends on the presence of significantly diverse student bodies" (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002, p. 359).

Immersion Education

Immersion experiences began as pedagogy for language education. According to Day and Shapson (1996), most research on the effects of this type of pedagogy was done across Canada as it began as a pilot project in Quebec in the 1960s. Further, they stated, "immersion involves an intensive language approach" (Day & Shapson, 1996, p. 1). In addition to language immersion programs, other industries utilized immersion as pedagogy, including virtual reality (VR) training, multicultural counseling, and pre-service teacher education. Better understanding immersion education as a pedagogy can inform the design and approach of short-term service immersion programs.

A hallmark of language immersion pedagogy teaches through subject matter instead of formal language training. For example, the content of the course could be reading, math, or science; however, the use of language becomes the important component of language immersion. Genesee and Jared (2008) cited these French language immersion programs that began in Quebec in 1965 as transformative for language education. The literature reviewed by Genesee and Jared supported the value of immersion programs as an effective tool for developing outcomes, such as language acquisition. Dicks (1995) conducted a thorough literature review on acquisition of

French as a second language through immersion education. His review found a range of arguments for the age of best language acquisition. Further, Dicks' review showed that while the rate of fluency may increase for those who participated in French immersion, their use of language and syntax was more likely inaccurate (p. 33). A less researched area of language immersion are the two-way immersion programs that began in the United States in the early 1960s focused primarily on bilingual Spanish/English education (Tedick, Christian, & Fortune, 2011).

Another way in which immersion education has been documented is through immersive virtual reality (VR) such as using computer technology and video games to simulate military tactics or medical procedures. Bowman and McMahan (2007) gave an overview of different ways in which VR was used and the benefits of immersive technology in various industries such as in the entertainment industry and for military training. Gutierrez et al. (2007) studied virtual reality (VR) education and compared full immersion experience learning to partial immersion experiences. This was differentiated by the level to which the participant was immersed in the VR experience. Those who were fully immersed wore headsets and had no distraction from the real world. In contrast, the partial immersion participants used a joystick to navigate a VR experience, but were not engaged in VR with all five senses. The researchers found a significant positive difference in learning between those who participated in the full immersion compared to those who participated in the partial immersion. Of particular interest to this study was the role of VR in medical education, where it has been used to simulate experiences for students that would otherwise be impossible to experience, such as life-threatening procedures. Although VR training was benefical for both groups, those who

experienced the full immersion simulation showed significantly greater learning

(Gutierrez et al., 2007).

Pieterse, Evans, Risner-Butner, Collins, and Mason (2009) studied 200 American

Psychological Association (APA) and Council for Accreditation of Counseling and

Related Educational Programs (CACREP)-certified academic programs and assessed how

multicultural counseling was taught in these programs. Immersion experiences were

cited as a form of grade assessment by 56% of the institutions and were defined as

"participating in an event/experience that requires exposure and/or involvement with

another culture or race that is different from one's own" (p. 106). Pieterse et al.'s study

of pedagogical tools added to the understanding of how immersion can be used in a

classroom, however, the lack of outcome data warrants caution in generalizing the results

of their study.

The success of immersion education for language education, VR, and

multicultural counseling parallelled the postive ways in which immersion is used for

leadership education. Diverse research on the length and types of immersion programs

supported this type of pedagogy (Armfield, 2004; Bowman & McMahan, 2007; Day &

Shapson, 1996; Dicks, 1995; Genesee & Jared, 2008; Gutierrez et al., 2007; Jones et al,

2012; Kiely, 2004, 2005; Kitsantas, 2002; Lee, 2010; Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005;

Maher, 2003; Psotka, 1995; Tedick, Christian, & Fortune, 2011). Lewis and Niesenbaum

(2005) noted the benefit of diversity in the duration of experiences. They stated, "Short-

term study abroad is a good alternative to longer term study abroad for some students,

especially those that feel constrained by the requirements of their majors, such as science

students" (p. 258). Additionally, immersion experiences benefited pre-service teachers

and social workers by engaging those students in communities different from their own, particularly as a tool for teaching cross-cultural competence (Cordero & Rodriguez, 2009; Williams, 2011). Each pedagogical practice discussed above can be used independently or in combination with other delivery methods. The most effective combinations are highlighted below.

High-Impact Learning Experience

Research from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), another large, multi-institutional dataset that annually surveys first-year college students and seniors on various aspects of college engagement, highlighted "high impact activities" (National Survey for Student Engagement, 2007) that have great influence on student learning and success. High impact experiences include service-learning involvement, learning community participation, research with faculty, studying abroad, holding an internship, participating in a capstone senior experience, and understanding others' perspectives (National Survey for Student Engagement, 2007). Komives (2011) identified the role of high impact programs in advancing leadership education.

Community Service-Learning

As the assumptions of the social change model indicate, community service-learning is often seen as pedagogy for leadership education (Dey & Associates, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; HERI, 1996; Jones & Abes, 2003, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001; Kezar, 2002; Meixner & Rosch, 2011; Pritchard, 2001; Sax & Astin, 1998; Zlotkowski, Horowitz, & Benson, 2011). Existing research on the impact of community service-learning often examines service-learning experiences wholesale, providing an aggregate overview of the impact of service. Very few studies directly connect to leadership

development (Astin, 1993; Butin, 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Foos, 1998; Gasiorski, 2009; Green, 2001; Jones & Abes, 2003, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001; Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Kezar, 2002; McGovern, 1998; Morton, 1995; O'Grady, 2000; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pompa, 2005; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Neururer, 1998; Rosenberger, 2000; Sax & Astin, 1998; Wade, 2000). Eyler and Giles (1999) described six learning outcomes associated with service-learning: personal and interpersonal development (including leadership development); understanding and applying knowledge; engagement, curiosity, and reflective practice; critical thinking; perspective transformation; and citizenship. Although leadership was only a focus of one of the six outcomes in this study explicitly, many of the other six outcomes are indirectly related to leadership through the framework of the social change model (i.e. citizenship).

Outcomes of community service-learning participation. Einfield and Collins (2008) researched the connection between service-learning and social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. In a constructivist qualitative study of Americorps participants, the authors examined the ways in which service-learning participation influences social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. Einfield and Collins observed that the length of service participation had an influence on the multicultural competence outcome. Specifically, those engaged in the Americorps program studied shared a commitment to social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. Further, the study yielded promising findings related to the value of long-term service participation to citizenship development (Einfield & Collins, 2008).

In a study examining the development of civic responsibility, academic development and life skills in college, Astin and Sax (1998) used the Cooperative

Institutional Research Program (CIRP) data to analyze ways in which college students are affected by volunteerism. CIRP is a well-respected annual, multi-institutional research project that has been collecting data since 1966. Using data from the freshman survey for five years from 1990-1994 and the College Student Survey follow-up survey conducted in 1995, Astin and Sax examined the effect of community service participation at universities with a federally funded community service program. The matched sample represented 2,309 students involved in community service and 1,141 nonparticipants. The results of this study show that service participation significantly and positively affected students' sense of civic responsibility (such as a commitment to racial understanding and to participate in a community action program), higher academic development, and increased life skills. Interestingly, leadership skills were reported as part of the life skills outcomes; however, the CIRP measures of leadership are only loosely theoretically grounded, meaning that little is defined or described about the types of leadership skills developed. The Astin and Sax study was one of the only quantitative studies of the impact of service on leadership or a related measure, such as civic responsibility

This CIRP study (Astin & Sax, 1998) was one of the first to study outcomes associated with service-learning participation for college students. The authors found that "those entering freshmen who were most likely to become service participants during college tended to be less materialistic (i.e., materialistic values predicted nonparticipation)" (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 253). Further, the results of the study point to a clear connection between service participation and higher rates of civic responsibility. Additionally, Astin and Sax (1998) asserted, "clearly, undergraduate service participation

serves to enhance academic development" (p. 257). Other findings from this study

included the positive effect of service participation on the ways in which undergraduates

found satisfaction in leadership opportunities, thought critically, and felt prepared for

future career.

In a related study, Astin, Sax, and Avalos (1999) examined the effects of service

participation during college on students after they graduated. Using a quantitative multi-

campus, longitudinal dataset, the authors conducted an analysis of the long-term effects

of service participation. They sought to understand the "*lasting* effects" of community

service participation beyond college (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1998, p. 188). Data were

collected through the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP), once in 1985

during initial entry to college, four years later in 1989, and finally in 1994-1995. The

1985 *Student Information Form* included information on demographics, pre-college

experiences, and collegiate expectations. Over one-quarter million students (n=279,985)

completed the 1985 entry survey. Four years later, the *1989 Follow-up Survey*, was

distributed to the respondents of the initial survey. Of the original group of respondents,

93,463 were sent the follow-up survey, which measured students' collegiate experiences.

This second sample was determined in three ways: a random sample that sought to be

representative of the original sample; an Exxon Education Foundation grant selected

34,323 students to study general education outcomes; and a National Science Foundation

grant sampled an additional 42,482 students with an interest in science education. The

1989 study had a response rate of 29%, with a total of 27,064 respondents. Finally, in

1994-1995, the *Nine-Year Follow-up Survey* solicited information on graduate school and

post-college experiences. The final survey was sent to 24,057 people who completed the

1985 and 1989 surveys. A 51.4% response rate to the final survey provided 12,376

respondents who completed each of the three surveys. A longitudinal analysis allowed

the researchers to conclude, "this study makes it clear that the short-term effects of

volunteer service participation during the undergraduate years persist beyond college and

are not simply short-term artifacts" (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999, p. 199).

At about the same time as the CIRP studies were conducted, the Corporation for

National and Community Service commissioned RAND to conduct an evaluation of the

Learn and Serve America Higher Education (LSAHE) programs (Gray et al., 1999). The

evaluation sought to understand five major areas of inquiry: descriptive information

about the numbers of participants and who was served under LSAHE; how did LSAHE

affect students; how did LSAHE affect the community; how did LSAHE affect the

institution; and how did the LSAHE investment pay off (or not). Through an Annual

Accomplishments survey completed by grantees as well as the Student Surveys, the

Community Impact surveys, and site visits, RAND concluded that the LSAHE programs

benefited the students, communities, and institutions; however, the analysis of the return

on the investment occurred over time. The long-term effect of the LSAHE programs on

colleges and universities can be seen now in the numbers of colleges and universities

with service-learning programs (Campus Compact, 2011), yet the long-term direct effect

on student participants was unclear.

Levesque-Bristol, Knapp, and Fishers (2010) studied service-learning as a

pedagogy, with a particular interest on elements of service-learning that contributed to

outcomes. A total of 220 participants on a single campus completed a pre-test and post-

test survey comparing students in integrated service-learning courses (where service-

learning was incorporated into the course) and in community service-learning courses (where an additional credit of service-learning was optional). The survey consisted of the Learning Climate Questionnaire, the Basic Needs Scale, the Civic Skills Survey, and the State Academic Motivation Scale, used to test self-determination theory. Aggregate results showed no significant differences in civic skills or motivation for service involvement, which led the authors to conclude that, "Overall, aggregate results for the entire sample did not support the global hypothesis of the positive impact of service-learning" (p. 215). Levesque-Bristol et al.'s findings provided insight into the significance of disaggregating data and support recent research that questions the positive narrative of service-learning participation (Jones, 2002; Jones, Gilbride-Brown, & Gasiorski, 2005).

Despite the above study, positive outcomes tend to be assumed when studying service participation. Jones and Hill (2001) sought to examine students' understanding of diversity through community service-learning in a qualitative case study in which participants were enrolled in a service-learning leadership course. Through interviews, participant observation, and document analysis, the researchers' findings indicated that students experienced enhanced cultural learning as a result of sustained and developed community partnerships. In a related study, Jones and Abes (2003, 2004) examined students' understanding of HIV/AIDS as a social issue through community service-learning and the impact of service-learning on their identity development with a second population of students enrolled in a service-learning leadership course. Both studies supported earlier research on the positive impact of community service-learning. Despite all of the apparent positive implications of service-learning, Jones (2002) and Jones,

Gilbride-Brown, and Gasiorski (2005) examined the "underside" of service-learning. Through this body of work, Jones and her colleagues took a critical look at the potential negative effects of service, such as when a student perpetuates stereotypes as a result of service participation.

Predictors of community service-learning participation. Although not all outcomes of service-learning participation are positive, the well-documented evidence of the benefits of service participation in college have led researchers to better understand factors that influence a student's involvement with service. Building upon the work of Astin and Sax (1998), Cruce and Moore (2007) utilized data from NSSE and sought to investigate predictors of community service involvement for first-year college students using binary logistic regression. In a study of 129,597 students from the 2004 and 2005 datasets, they found that women were 107% more likely than their male counterparts to plan to volunteer. Further, living on campus, learning community participation, full-time enrollment, fraternity membership, and moderate levels of campus employment all contributed positively to community service participation.

Marks and Jones (2004) used data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88) to conduct a logistic regression designed to predict involvement in community service in college. The total sample of 6,491 respondents analyzed represented individuals who were college students during the 1994 follow-up study and responded to all four components of the NELS:88 survey. These criteria ensured that participants could be tracked from high school through college into their early careers (Marks & Jones, 2004). Further, in an analysis of other involvement on campus, the authors found,

Living alone was more common among those who sustained service and those

who began service in college. Membership in fraternities and sororities was

highest among students who continued to volunteer compared to all other

groups. Participation in sports groups, as well as participation in arts,

communications, and student government activities was highest among the

continuing volunteers. (Marks & Jones, 2004, p. 325)

In addition to involvement, the study revealed a negative relationship between

employment and service participation, where those who worked more hours per week

were more likely to never volunteer. Another inverse relationship with service

participation was time spent watching television. Because the study used longitudinal

data, the authors were able to track high school involvement with college involvement

yielding findings that involvement with service in the tenth grade increased the likelihood

of sustained service. The authors summarized the role of community service

participation, stating, "since the early 1990s, a national movement has promoted service

as preparation for citizenship, directed toward countering self-centered individualism and

connecting students with their communities" (Marks & Jones, 2004, p. 331).

With an interest in understanding students' motivation to participate in service,

Jones and Hill (2001) conducted a qualitative study to better understand students'

patterns of service participation. They discovered that students reported influences in

high school and in college that provided supports and barriers to service participation. In

particular, "Alternative Spring Break programs were … mentioned as 'life changing'

learning opportunities" (Jones & Hill, 2001, p. 529). The role of high school and college

influences on service participation shaped how students viewed themselves as

participants in service. Jones and Hill's findings were consistent with those of Eyler and

Giles (1999) and Einfield and Collins (2008) with regard to the relationship between

depth and length of service and the influence on positive outcomes.

Gasiorski's (2009) unpublished dissertation explored the relationship between

individual characteristics, campus environments, and college service participation with a

specific interest in predicting service involvement in college. The findings made a

compelling case for the role of high school involvement and student background

characteristics in predicting college service participation. In addition to fixed

characteristics, Gasiorski also found that college involvement and environments

influenced service participation. Table 2.2 summarizes the variables identified by

researchers that influence community service participation in college.

Table 2.2

Predictors of Community Service-Learning Participation

Author (Year)	Data Source	Factors that Influenced Involvement
Cruce & Moore (2007)	NSSE	• Gender • Living on campus • Learning community involvement • Full-time enrollment • Fraternity involvement • Campus employment
Marks & Jones (2004)	NELS: 88	Positive effect on service participation • Living alone • Fraternity and sorority involvement • Student organization involvement • Pre-college involvement in service Negative effect on service participation • Campus employment • Time watching television

Jones & Hill (2003)	Qualitative Data	• High school participation in community service • Family role models • Religious foundations • Peers • Institutional norms
Gasiorski (2009)	MSL: 2006	• Gender • Race • High school grades • High school participation in community service • Class standing • College grades • Involvement in college organizations and off-campus organizations • Living on campus

Alternative Spring Break Programs

The increased interest in the outcomes of service-learning over the past twenty

years led researchers to study Alternative Spring Break (ASB) participation as a type of

service-learning. This approach to researching ASB was rooted in an interest to

understand community service-learning participation, rather than an interest in ASB as a

particular type of community service (McElhaney, 1998; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads &

Neururer, 1998; Porter & Manard, 2001). Recent interest in ASB as a particular form of

experience has led to a shift in understanding ASB and other short-term service

immersion programs. Jones et al. (2012) articulated the lack of definition to these types

of programs and offered the following attempt at defining short-term immersion

experiences:

Clear definitions of short-term immersion programs are difficult to locate and the

research on these types of experiences is limited. However, common

characteristics of those programs categorized as short-term immersion include:

brevity in duration (typically less than one month); intentionally designed learning

experiences; and a possible service-learning component. Both alternative break

programs and short-term study abroad fall under this definitional umbrella. (p.

201)

Despite a lack of clear consensus on definitions of short-term immersions or ASB,

extensive research on ASB as a type of service-learning and ASB as a specific pedagogy

are summarized below.

Rhoads (1997) used stories from his experience with Alternative Spring Break to

illustrate examples in his book, *Community Service and Higher Learning*. He treats

community service participation and ASB involvement as interchangeable entities, with

an interest in ASB only as far as it can explain outcomes associated with service-learning.

This approach to studying ASB involvement is evident in Rhoads and Neururer's (1998)

summary of their qualitative case study of ASB participants. Their study was interested

in outcomes associated with ASB involvement primarily as a tool for better

understanding community service. The findings were presented at the individual, group,

and community level and were related back to community service in general, rather than

ASB in particular.

McElhaney's (1998) unpublished dissertation research approached ASB in a

similar way in that she compared curriculum-based and non-curriculum-based ASB

programs, with a particular interest in the outcomes associated with community service

learning participation. The author's description of her study reads, "This study focuses

on the service learning outcomes for the individual student, not on the effects on the

institution or community" (McElhaney, 1998, p. 4). Although her population of students

all participated in ASB, McElhaney was only interested in the outcomes of service-learning in general, not ASB specifically. Through a case study/grounded theory hybrid methodology, McElhaney (1998) studied ASB participants on one campus. Not only does this study connect general ASB participation with general service-learning outcomes, it also supported the importance of a variety of types of program delivery, both curricular and co-curricular. McElhaney's findings illustrated that ASB participants learned how to use collaboration in program solving, created new friendships, developed social perspective-taking, expanded career aspirations, gained new knowledge, thought more complexly, and pushed their personal boundaries in regard to attitudes, values, and beliefs.

Although McElhaney (1998) was less interested in ASB as a phenomenon, a perhaps unintended outcome of her research showed the importance of reflection in helping the participants in their meaning-making process. Participants in the curriculum-based ASB engaged in reflection more than those in non-curriculum-based ASB programs (McElhaney, 1998). Further, the importance of the experience, or sometimes observation, enhanced students' learning. The author wrote,

> Students reported that they did indeed learn from their readings, class
> discussions lectures, and class speakers. But they admitted with some surprise
> that they learned also from observing, from the power of conversation with
> others quite different from themselves, from reflection, and even from not
> doing. (McElhaney, 1998, p. 116)

McElhaney's study contributed to the ways in which ASB and community service-learning overlap, and, while perhaps unintended, sheds light on the ways in which students experience ASB programs.

Kiely (2004, 2005) advanced the understanding of ASB programs in his qualitative, longitudinal study of students that spanned from 1994-2001 and included five cohorts who participated in an international ASB experience. With an interest in transformational learning, Kiely's (2004) early findings supported McElhaney's (1998) research in that participants demonstrated changes in their worldview and experienced social perspective-taking. In a follow-up analysis, Kiely (2005) examined the dimensions of learning participants experienced. He thematized his findings based on how participants experienced learning. The findings included: contextual border crossing; dissonance; personalizing; and processing and connecting. The research of Jones et al. (2012) supported Kiely's findings.

The recent research that supported Kiely's (2004, 2005) sought to understand the meaning students made as participants on short-term immersion programs. Jones et al. (2012) conducted a multi-site case study which consisted of four diverse sites and 37 participants. The researchers used participant observation, journal entries, and follow-up interviews as their data sources to answer the research questions related to understanding better the specific experience of participating in short-term immersion programs. The major findings included the ways in which students learned during their experience, the knowledge acquired on their trip, and the ways in which they applied their learning upon return to campus. This study further supported the possibility of transformative learning

experienced through short-term service immersion programs (Kiely, 2004, 2005; Jones et al., 2012).

Another outcome associated with service-learning that was of interest to researchers was an orientation towards social justice. Boyle-Baise and Langford (2004) conducted a study of participants in one university's ASB program with an explicit focus on social justice education. Boyle-Baise and Langford conducted a case study of eight ASB participants who participated in a six-week course that included pre-trip preparation, one week of immersion, and re-entry programming. The authors found that participants learned from their personal experiences during ASB, especially from the community, and had motivations to serve.

Cooper (2002) compared experiences of students involved in various types of community service with an interest in understanding social responsibility. He compared students who participated in curricular service-learning with students involved with Alpha Phi Omega (APO), the national service fraternity, with ASB participants through a multi-campus research design on three campuses. Approximately 30 people from each group were sampled per institution for a total of 270 students. Of the 270 students sampled, 198 were included in the final analysis, which represented 72 curricular service-learning participants, 90 APO members, and 36 ASB participants. Cooper's outcome of interest was the social responsibility inventory. His findings showed that students involved with APO and ASB scored higher on the social responsibility inventory than those who were enrolled in a service-learning course (Cooper, 2002). Cooper's positive findings should be interpreted cautiously since he did not employ a pre-test or control for motivation for involvement. This flaw in the research design could have contributed to

the higher social responsibility scores for those involved in APO and ASB as they may have been more inclined to engage in socially responsible behaviors regardless of their participation in formal programs.

The increased attention to ASB as a form of service-learning led the National Parks Service (NPS) to partner with agencies and educational institutions. In an effort to both address the concern of higher numbers of retiring NPS staff and to heighten interest in the national parks system, the NPS created "Park Break" programs. These programs provided ASB experiences in national park settings with pedagogy grounded in experiential education (Bustam et al., 2009).

ASB programs were also used as a tool for participatory research and awareness. Calderon (2004) integrated an ASB trip with the United Farm Workers into a course for participatory research. The author was used critical pedagogy as a "viable alternative to the traditional 'banking' concept of knowledge that connects abstract theoretical concepts to lived experience and community engagement" (Calderon, 2004, p. 90). Chen (2009) used stories she heard during an ASB trip to Juarez to inspire art for her thesis. Chen utilized her experience to expose border struggles she learned about during her ASB trip.

Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, and Miene (1998) based their research on an interest in the psychological functions of volunteering. Through multiple research projects, the authors confirmed and tested the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) to examine why individuals are motivated to serve. Hynes and Nykiel (2004) based their study of ASB participants on Clary et al.'s VFI framework, which identified values, understanding, social, career, ego protection, and ego enhancement as motives for participating in service. The hypothesis for Hynes and Nykiel's study was that those

individuals whose ASB experiences are congruent with their motives for participation in ASB would be more satisfied with their program. In a quantitative survey of 23 participants using the VFI, Hynes and Nykiel examined the relationship between motivations, actual experiences, and overall satisfaction and found a relationship between motivation and satisfaction. The link between motivation and satisfaction showed that those participants whose motives aligned with perceived benefits expressed greater satisfaction. Specifically, the participants who identified "understanding" as their primary motivation for participation also rated their experience with the greatest satisfaction. Given the very small, single campus, non-random sample, the findings from Hynes and Nykiel's study should be interpreted with caution; however, the study does provide support for the importance of motivations in decision-making for ASB participants.

Although most research conducted on ASB espoused the positive outcomes associated with participation, Luft (2008) explored the negative effect of outsiders entering a community. Using intersectionality and an interdisciplinary lens, Luft conducted a case study of Common Ground Collective, a relief organization that hosted ASB volunteers in the wake of Hurricane Katrina in New Orleans. Common Ground hosted thousands of volunteers "who came to New Orleans to gut houses, distribute supplies, conduct bioremediation, and offer other services" (Luft, 2008, p. 6). In March 2006, the organization hosted hundreds of ASB volunteers in the Upper Ninth Ward of New Orleans during which time White women volunteers reported several incidents of sexual assault. Luft (2008) examined the response to the alleged assaults with an intersectional lens, identifying possible dangers to both a community and the volunteers.

In an interpretive case study of a week-long cultural immersion trip to Tijuana, King (2004) provided another counter-story to the benefits of service-learning and ASB. King asserted that service-learning could reinforce systems of privilege. His critical analysis of the findings illuminated a continuum of understanding of the experience of program participation ranging from charity to defamiliarization. In the charity stage, students do not recognize or acknowledge privilege, whereas students who experienced transformation demonstrated advanced critical thinking by calling society into question. In contrast, Pleasants, Stephens, Selph, and Pfeiffer (2004) connected leadership, service-learning, and ASB for a high school audience. The authors told the story of a high school student who attended a summer program at Duke University and returned home to create a high school ASB trip as a result of his leadership experience at Duke. Juxtaposing the two perspectives on ASB programs created a debate about the role ASB programs might play in perpetuating privilege.

Urraca, Ledouz, and Harris (2009) studied the biases that American students expressed as participants in an international service-learning program. Through a qualitative study of student participants on one such trip to Bolivia, the authors found that intercultural communication training, language education, and reflection were critical trip preparation tools, even more so than local community service participation and team building.

Plante, Lackey, and Hwang (2009) conducted two separate experiments with a combined total of 123 college students who completed pre-/post-surveys around a university-sponsored immersion trip. In the first experiment (Experiment I), the researchers compared 19 students who participated in the immersion experience with 20

students who did not participate in the immersion program. Experiment II compared 45 students who participated in the immersion program with 39 students who did not participate in the immersion program. The authors defined immersion experiences as "trips [that] are usually provided during summer or various semester breaks during which students can spend concentrated time in an appropriate community based-learning environment" (Plante, Lackey, & Hwang, 2009, p. 29). In support of previous research connecting pro-social behavior and empathy, both experiments showed that relative to the comparison group, immersion participants had higher post-trip scores than pre-trip scores on measures of compassion.

Maher (2003) studied 20 students who participated in one of five immersion experiences between 1999 and 2000. These experiences included spring break in Pilsen (Chicago), semester break at the Texas/Mexico border, and summer break in Cuba. Each program location had varied levels of direct service and unique curricula. Demographically, the study consisted of 60% White students, 30% Latino/a students, 10% African-American or Asian/Pacific Islander students, and 70% women. Interviews with participants after their return to campus sought to determine if the reflection methods used on the trips was effective. The reflection method utilized involved time for individual writing in response to specific questions as outlined by a worksheet followed by group discussion. The findings revealed that participants found the reflection method to be an effective tool for making meaning of their experiences. Interestingly, the participants also expressed that group sharing was the "key element in the process" (Maher, 2003, p. 91). In addition to the value of the reflection method, the findings also revealed outcomes associated with the immersion program participation. Those were:

depth of experience; depth of beliefs; Latina perspectives; and spirituality. As a result of these outcomes, Maher introduced participants to the Cognitive-Experiential Tri-Circle, a Venn diagram related to depth of experience, depth of belief, and understanding of self. Participants responded favorably to the model and felt it was a useful way to explain their experience as participants on immersion trips (Maher, 2003).

Study Abroad

In a study that examined the intersection of international service-learning and study abroad, Parker and Dautoff (2007) compared the outcomes and approaches of each concept. Further, they conducted a positivist, qualitative, longitudinal study of 13 participants in an international service-learning program. Through their study over a four-year period, the authors identified ways in which students learned during their participation in an international service-learning program. The follow-up study conducted four years later showed both short- and long-term learning associated with their participation.

Kitsantas (2004) studied outcomes of study abroad programs, with a specific interest in cross-cultural skills and global perspective-taking. There were 232 participants in the study, all of whom studied abroad in Europe for course credit in 2002. Before participation in the study abroad program, students completed a pre-test that included questions about demographics, the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), and the Study Abroad Goals Scale. The post-test questionnaire included the CCAI as well as the Global Perspective Survey. Although the aggregate scores for the CCAI showed no significant differences for the participants between the pre- and post-test administration, the Emotional Resilience, Flexibility/Openness, and Personal

Autonomy sub-scales when analyzed individually did show growth for participants (Kitsantas, 2004). Similar to the Hynes and Nykiel (2004) findings that connected motivation to satisfaction, Kitsantas found a correlation between students' goals for participating in study abroad and the global competence demonstrated in the surveys. Although this study is limited in its scope and sample, it is one of the few study abroad research studies that analyzed outcomes associated with study abroad participation.

Despite the limited research on study abroad, a recent American Council on Education (ACE, 2008) study found that an increased number of students engaged in international experiences prior to college and more students reported increasingly internationally diverse backgrounds than in previous years. Of those students who did not express an interest in study abroad, cost and lack of language proficiency were the greatest barriers. Of those who indicated an interest in an international experience, they reported that a semester was the preferred time period for study abroad and more than one-third were interested in an international internship. Those who were interested in study abroad were interested in being immersed in the language and culture of another country. Given that, a foreign-language requirement had a "neutral to negative effect on student interest in study abroad programs" (ACE, 2008, p. 15).

In terms of mandatory study abroad, half of the participants were interested in a college with a study abroad graduation requirement and half were uninterested. Finally, the ACE (2008) study affirmed that prospective college students find personal and professional value in study abroad and other international experiences.

Other Kinds of Immersion Experiences

Although some forms of high-impact programs fit neatly into categories, there are other examples of immersion programs that do not fit under a distinct umbrella. Examples of other types of immersion experiences include classroom immersion and LeaderShape. LeaderShape is a leadership immersion program with a curriculum designed to facilitate participant learning grounded in a philosophy of a "just, caring, thriving world" (www.leadershape.org, n.d.). Research on these unique programs demonstrated the many ways in which immersion education pedagogy was employed at colleges and universities. Pompa (2002) taught a semester-long service-learning course inside a prison, immersing both the inmates and university students in a contextual learning environment. Through the experience in the prison, the university students learned the importance of reciprocity and mutuality.

In another immersion study, Malewski and Phillion (2009) studied the effect of participation in an international immersion on pre-service teachers. They stated:

> Unfortunately, there has been little examination of the ways students'
> social group affiliations (their race, gender, and social class backgrounds)
> or the value host communities attach to participants' race, gender and
> social class shape the experiences of participants. In addition, little if any
> qualitative research has been conducted that examines the impact of race,
> gender, and social class on the perceptions and experiences of teacher
> education students while abroad. (Malewski & Phillion, 2009, p. 53)

Their research contributed to the understanding of this phenomenon, particularly how

cultural immersion facilitates the multicultural awareness of pre-service teachers. Malewski and Phillion's findings consistently documented the ways in which identity influenced how the host community perceived the pre-service teachers.

An earlier study of pre-service teachers participating in a cross-cultural immersion found similar results (Ferrence & Bell, 2004). Immersion in another culture was used as pedagogy for pre-service teachers. The rationale behind this approach was based on previous research. The authors wrote,

> Recently, there has been an increased interest in short-term cross-cultural experiences for preservice teachers (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999; Willard-Holt, 2001) that are in-country (Wiest, 1998). The reasons for this interest include the need for preservice education students to explore their beliefs about culturally diverse students early in their teacher training (Wiest, 1998) and to make these experiences accessible to all preservice teachers. As a result, some teacher education programs are now looking at shorter, earlier, and more local options for cross-cultural experiences and adding two- or three-week cross-cultural immersions to their curriculum. (Ferrence & Bell, 2004, p. 343)

Ferrence and Bell (2004) conducted a qualitative study of 25 participants who lived with Latino host families during a 13-day immersion and spent 10 days observing classes at a local school. The participants also participated in preparation seminars and read books related to the culture in which they would be immersed. As a result of the immersion, participants reported new immigration knowledge, rejected their previous cultural deficit model of teaching, found new meaning in food and meals to culture, and deconstructed their stereotyped views about Latino people. Further, participants indicated feelings of being an outsider, which for some was the first

time in their lives that they did not feel included in a community. Finally, the pre-service teachers reported that because of their experience they acknowledged that different pedagogies were required for teaching ESOL students at home (Ferrance & Bell, 2004).

LeaderShape is a six-day leadership immersion that challenges students to imagine a world in which everyone lived with integrity. The experience of LeaderShape, while under-researched, parallels that of other immersion experiences. Participants are put together in a community for a week and disconnected from their lives outside of the immersion. Dial (2006) conducted a qualitative study of LeaderShape participants for his thesis research. He found that LeaderShape helped participants better understand their identity as leaders and found a sense of civic responsibility as a result of their participation. Additionally, the students cited the value of experiential learning in their acquisition of skills, knowledge and attitudes. This study is one of the only formal research projects on LeaderShape. Its results should be interpreted with caution as it was a single campus study with a small sample and unclear methodology.

Conclusion

The research summarized in this chapter served as the foundation for this study. Increased interest in student leadership and heightened participation in ASB programs was evident, yet there is a lack of research on the role short-term service immersion programs play in developing leadership for college students. This study was designed to help fill that gap. An overview of the research questions and methods used to explore this gap in research will be provided in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Despite the stated assumption that service and leadership are connected, there is a disconnect in research between short-term service immersion (STSI) programs, such as Alternative Spring Break (ASB), and leadership. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between short-term service immersion involvement, such as ASB, and socially responsible leadership outcomes as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). Specifically, the guiding research questions were, (1) was there a significant difference in leadership outcomes between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and those who do not?; (2) was there a significant difference between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and community service compared with those who only participate in one type of program or none at all?; and (3) when controlling for pre-college variables, demographics, and other college environment factors, specifically community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations, did participation in short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB, contribute to leadership outcomes as defined by the SRLS?

Hypothesis

The guiding hypotheses for this study were:

$H1_0$: those who participate in STSI programs will not demonstrate significantly higher leadership capacity than those who do not participate;

$H2_0$: those who participate in community service and STSI will not demonstrate a significantly higher leadership capacity than those who participate in only STSI, only service, or do not participate in either program; and

H3$_0$: participation in short-term service immersion programs will not significantly contribute to leadership capacity beyond race, gender, age, pre-tests for community service, pre-tests for the dependent variable, and participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations.

Overview of Instrument and Data Collection

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) served as the dataset for this study. The MSL collected data in spring 2009 and employed a cross-sectional design measuring students' leadership capacity utilizing the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale-Revised (SRLS-R3), designed to measure the eight values of the social change model of leadership development (Appel-Silbaugh, 2005; Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2006; Tyree, 1998), as well as institutional level data. The MSL was chosen as the dataset for this study due to the focus on socially responsible leadership, inclusion of the variable of interest (short-term service immersion), and large sample size from diverse institutions.

Design of Study

Data from MSL was used in an ex post facto correlational design, with the omnibus SRLS leadership scale of the MSL serving as the determinant of the outcome of short-term service immersion participation. The MSL employed Astin's (1991, 1993) college impact model (i.e., an adapted Input-Environment-Output [I-E-O] design) as the conceptual framework. Because the MSL was cross-sectional data with a causal comparative design and not a true longitudinal study, a true I-E-O model cannot be used. A quasi-I-E-O model, however, was feasible as the MSL included quasi-pre-tests, which asked respondents to provide information about pre-college measures through reflective

questions using a then-post design (Astin, 1991, 1993; Pascarella, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Rohs, 2002; Rohs & Langone, 1997; Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996).

College Impact Design

The I-E-O design served as a useful tool for studying college impact. The inputs were pre-college student characteristics. Examples of input variables in the MSL are race, gender, and high school involvement. Controlling for such input variables allows a researcher to isolate the impact of college environments, such as community service and study abroad participation (Astin, 1991, 1993). Utilizing input and environment variables in a college impact design allows a researcher to better assess the role of college environments on college outcomes. For the purpose of this study, the desired environmental variable of interest was short-term service immersion program participation and the potential relationship with the outcome of socially responsible leadership outcomes (Astin 1991, 1993).

<div align="center">

Sample

</div>

Institutions were invited to participate in the study: once institutions were enrolled, each institution conducted a simple random sample of students or used the entire undergraduate enrollment if less than 4,000. For details on both sampling processes, see below.

Institutional Sample

In spring and summer 2008, email invitations were extended for participation in MSL via the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP) listserv and other professional association listservs to solicit applications. A total of 104 institutions enrolled in the study and 103 completed the survey, which represented a range of public

and private institutions, a variety of Carnegie Classifications, and all regions of the

Continental United States (31 states and the District of Columbia) as well as one

institution in Canada and one in Mexico (Dugan & Komives, 2009). The international

institutions were not used in this study. This study therefore included data from 101

institutions. See Appendix A: MSL 2009 participating institutions (U.S. only) for a list

of participating institutions.

Student Sample

The sampling procedures used to solicit undergraduate student participation were

based on a desired confidence level of 95% with a +/- 3 confidence interval. Campuses

with a total undergraduate population of fewer than 4,000 students surveyed the entire

campus population and those with more than 4,000 total undergraduate students did a

simple random sample. Intentional over-sampling increased the likelihood of achieving

the desired 30% web-based response rate (Couper, 2000; Crawford, Couper, & Lamais,

2001; Dugan & Komives, 2009; University of Maryland MSL Final Report, 2009). Of

the 337,482 students who received the survey, 115,682 students returned the survey for a

total response rate of 34% at the 101 USA institutions. A total of 94,317 students

completed at least 90% of the SRLS and core survey (Dugan & Komives, 2009).

To maximize the college impact model and retrospective design, only seniors

were included in this analysis. Limiting the sample to only college seniors provided the

most opportunity for involvement in the various environmental variables included in the

study, particularly study abroad and internships, which are typically limited to upper-

class students (Dugan, et., al., 2011, Lee, 2010). Therefore, 9,553 seniors were included

in this analysis.

Further, because the variable of interest followed a skip pattern asking about respondents' participation in leadership training, only those who answered "yes" were included in the final sample to ensure that only those who answered "never" to participation in short-term immersion programs were included in the comparison group. The question used to isolate the sample read, "Since starting college, have you ever participated in a leadership training or leadership education experience of any kind (ex: leadership conference, alternative spring break, leadership course, club president's retreat)?"

Procedures

Human subjects' approval was collected on all participating campuses as well as the two host campuses, Loyola University-Chicago and the University of Maryland, College Park. A pilot test conducted in June 2008 at the University of Maryland, College Park, helped establish the new scales in the MSL-2009 and used the Crowne Marlow test to check for social desirability bias. Data collection for the full study occurred between January and March 2009 to increase first-year and transfer student acclimation to the campus environment. The MSL was a web-based survey instrument emailed out to participants by the Center for Student Studies, a firm contracted to manage MSL. Each participant received a personalized code. Individual codes were separated from identifying information to protect anonymity and confidentiality once a participant entered the survey website. Average completion time did not exceed 25 minutes (Dugan & Komives, 2009).

Variables and Measures

Dependent variable

The primary leadership scale in the MSL was the SRLS-R3 (Appel-Silbaugh, 2005; Dugan & Komives, 2009; Dugan, Komives, & Associates, 2006; Tyree, 1998) that measured the eight values of the social change model. Consciousness of self, commitment, congruence, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change serve as the core for the omnibus leadership scale, which served as the dependent variable for this analysis. For the omnibus scale, validity and reliability was tested both through the initial development of the scales and the data analysis of the initial MSL. Additional validity and reliability tests conducted for the MSL included pilot tests and tests after full data collection. Content and construct validity have been used to validate the scales (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Morosini, & Beazley, 2011).

The dependent variable was the omnibus measure of the socially responsible leadership scale (SRLS). This measure was an average of the 71 items included in the core of the instrument. Tyree (1998) created the original instrument using confirmatory factor analysis. Following the initial iteration, the SRLS underwent several revisions resulting in the final, 71-item SRLS-R3 used in the MSL-2009 (Dugan & Komives, 2009). Each item required the respondent to provide a response to a Likert scale with (1) strongly disagree and (5) strongly agree. Items included:

- I know myself pretty well
- My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs
- I am willing to devote the time and energy to things that are important to me

- Creativity can come from conflict

- I am seen as someone who works well with others

- I contribute to the goals of the group

- I believe I have responsibilities to my community

- Change brings new life to an organization

The omnibus scale was chosen as the dependent variable because the general construct of socially responsible leadership was the outcome of interest for this study. The Cronbach's Alpha for the omnibus scale for the national sample in 2009 was 0.96 (Dugan & Komives, 2009) and the reliability of the scale for this study was also 0.96.

Independent Variables

Inputs. Consistent with an I-E-O design, this study controlled for input variables to assess the relationship of the variable of interest while holding other variables constant. The input variables included in this study included gender, a dummy coded variable with female being the referent group; and indicators of race, several dummy coded variables with White as the referent group. For the input variables, respondents who selected more than one race indicator were coded as multiracial.

Additionally, pre-college variables were included. Those variables included frequency of pre-college service, which asked respondents to reflect on their community service involvement and ranked as (1) never, (2) once, (3) sometimes, or (4) often. These ordinal data were treated as continuous for this study. In addition, the quasi pre-test for the dependent variable, the omnibus SRLS, was also included. Similar to the dependent variable, the pre-test for the omnibus scale was an eight-item measure scored on a Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The pre-test was

comprised of the items with the highest eigenvalue loading on each of the eight SRLS

scales. Sample items included the following:

- Hearing differences in opinions enriched my thinking

- I enjoyed working with others toward common goals

- I worked well when I knew the collective values of a group

- My behaviors reflected my beliefs

The Cronbach Alpha for the pre-test measure was 0.73 (Dugan & Komives, 2009) and

was 0.74 for the sample in this study.

Bridge variable. Astin (1991, 1993) recommends the inclusion of bridge

variables, which are neither inputs nor environments, but variables that measure the

current state, such as age. Age was an open-ended variable in the MSL and was analyzed

as such. For the descriptive analysis, age was presented in the following categories: (1)

under 20, (2) 21-24, and (3) 25 and older. Transforming the item into a categorical

variable simplified the presentation and comparison of descriptive data; however, the

highest level of data was used for inferential analyses.

Environments. The environmental variables that are included in this study were:

college participation in study abroad, participation in internships, participation in

community service, and level of engagement in socio-cultural conversations. Two of the

involvement questions (study abroad and internships) had categorical responses (i.e.,

yes/no).

Because community service is such an important contributor to leadership, and a

component of short-term service immersion programs, five items were used to measure

community service participation. Before inclusion in the regression model, each item

was tested for zero-order correlations with other independent variables and tests for multicollinearity were assessed. See Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 for the correlations for all variables included in this study. The acceptable threshold for multicollinearity, a correlation of 0.90 or higher (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and/or a variance of inflation (VIF) measure of 10 or greater, was not met for any of the variables. Therefore, no items were eliminated from the final model. The VIF scores for the community service variables ranged from 1.058 to 1.141. The MSL posed the question, "In an average month, approximately how many hours do you engage in community service?" The five types of community service that were controlled for were: as part of a class; as part of a work-study experience; with a campus student organization; as part of a community organization unaffiliated with your school; and on your own. For each type of community service, respondents indicated a number to represent the amount of hours spent doing each type of service in an average month. The options provided to respondents were: (1) None; (2) 1-5 hours; (3) 6-10 hours; (4) 11-15 hours; (5) 16-20 hours; (6) 21-25 hours; (7) 26-30 hours; and (8) 31 or more hours. For interpreting these data, a mean score of 2.17 on the community service as part of campus organization represents an average participation of approximately 1-5 hours.

The socio-cultural conversations scale was used with permission of the National Study of Living Learning Programs (NSLLP). When the scale was developed by the NSLLP, content validity was assured through the review of the items by 15 experts before the pilot study as well as by a group of students who provided input on item clarity (Longerbeam, 2005). This scale asked respondents to choose the degree to which they engaged in various types of activities outside of the classroom indicated as (1) never, (2)

once, (3) sometimes, and (4) often. These ordinal-level data were treated as continuous for this study. The 2009 Cronbach alpha reliability for this scale was 0.90 (Dugan & Komives, 2009) and was 0.89 for the sample in this study, which are both higher than the initial 0.86 in the NSLLP study (Hershey, 2007). Items on the socio-cultural conversations scale included:

- Talked about different lifestyles/ customs

- Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own

- Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice

- Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were very different from your own

- Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity

- Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own

Due to the possibility of correlation between these some of the environmental measures, particularly community service participation, multicollinearity was calculated with a VIF test. All independent variables included in the study were tested for multicollinearity and tolerance. Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 outline the correlations and no VIFs exceeded 1.2.

Variable of interest: STSI participation. The variable of interest asked respondents to assess the degree to which they had been involved in a specific type of leadership training or education. For this study, the particular type was labeled "short-term service immersion" with the examples of Alternative Spring Break or a January term service project. Respondents were given the ordinal response choices of (1) never,

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(2) once, (3) sometimes, and (4) often. These responses were treated as continuous data and entered as a second environments block to determine the contribution of this kind of service beyond other forms of student involvement noted above.

Table 3.1

Variables, Measures, and Reliability

Block	Concept	Variable	MSL Responses and Items	Cronbach Alpha
Block 1: Inputs *[*Note that both gender and race were dummy coded for inclusion in the analysis; female and White were the referent groups]*	Gender*	What is your gender?	1=Female 2=Male 3=Transgender	
	Race*	Please indicate your broad racial group membership: (Mark all that apply**) *[**Note that those who select multiple choices were coded as Multiracial]*	1=White/ Caucasian 2=Middle Eastern 3=African American/ Black 4=American Indian/ Alaska Native 5=Asian American/ Asian 6=Latino/ Hispanic 7=Multiracial 8=Race/ Ethnicity not included above	

Block 2: Inputs	Pre-college service involvement	Looking back to *before you started college*, how often did you engage in the following activities: Performed community service?	1=Never 2=Sometimes 3=Often 4=Very Often	
	Pre-test for the dependent variable	Omnibus SRLS Pre-test *Sample items listed in the above text*	Likert scale with (1) strongly disagree and (5) strongly agree.	0.74
Block 3: Bridge Variable	Age	What is your age? (Open response)	Open response for participants	
Block 4: Proximal environments	Community service participation	In an average month, approximately how many hours do you engage in community service?: - As part of a class - As part of a work study experience - As part of a campus organization - As part of a community organization unaffiliated with your school - On your own	1=None 2=1-5 hours 3=6-10 hours 4=11-15 hours 5=16-20 hours 6=21-25 hours 7=26-30 hours 8=31 or more hours	
	Study abroad participation	Which of the following have you engaged in <u>during your college experience:</u> Study Abroad?	1=Yes 2=No	

Block 4: Proximal environments (continued)	Internship experience	Which of the following have you engaged in during your college experience: Practicum, internship, field experience, co-op experience, or clinical experience?	1=Yes 2=No	
	Socio-cultural conversations with peers	During interactions with other students outside of class, how often have you done each of the following in an average school year? *Sample items from this scale are listed in the above text*	1=Never 2=Sometimes 3=Often 4=Very Often	0.89
Block 5: Variable of interest	ASB involvement (Short-term service immersion)	Since starting college, to what degree have you been involved in the following types of leadership training or education? Short-Term Service Immersion (ex. Alternative Spring Break, January term service project)	1=Never 2=Once 3=Sometimes 4=Often	
Dependent variable	Socially Responsible Leadership	Omnibus SRLS *Sample items from this scale are listed in the above text*	Likert scale with (1) strongly disagree and (5) strongly agree.	0.96

Data Analysis

After standard data cleaning, correlations and distributions were assessed to assure the data met the assumptions of the methods utilized to examine the hypotheses. Zero-order correlations were examined between each independent variable and the dependent variable as well as among independent variables. To maintain the integrity of the study, independent variables with correlations of higher than 0.90 were removed from the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). No correlations exceeded 0.50. Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 provide all of the correlations for this study. Further, VIF levels were analyzed; the rule of 10 is the standard threshold, though I used a more conservative level of VIF (O'Brien, 2007). A more conservative threshold of four (4) was used to minimize the effect of inflation on the variance explained; however no measures of VIF exceeded 1.2. Pairwise deletion was used to handle missing cases as that maximized the number of cases included in each analysis, which therefore resulted in varied sample sizes for each analysis conducted.

For the first hypothesis, I calculated descriptive statistics including frequencies, means, standard deviations, and correlations. First, I created a new, categorical variable to indicate participation in short-term service immersion programs. Then, I calculated independent samples t-tests to compare means and test for significance on leadership between all seniors in the sample who indicated participation in short-term service immersion programs and those who did not participate in short-term service immersion programs.

Table 3.2

Correlations

	Fem	Male	Trans	White	Middle Eastern	Black	Amer Ind.	Asian	Latino	Multi	No Race Ind.	Serv. Pre-test	Omni Pre-test	Age
Fem	1													
Male	-.95**	1												
Trans	-.05**	-.03**	1											
White	.05**	.03	-.03**	1										
Middle Eastern	-.03	.03**	.03**	-.12**	1									
Black	.03**	-.02	0.01	-.41**	-.02	1								
Amer. Ind.	-0.01	0.01	.04**	-.09**	-0.01	-0.02	1							
Asian	-0.02	.03**	0	-.41**	-.02	-.07**	-0.02	1						
Latino	-0.01	0.01	0.01	-.32**	-0.02	-.06**	-0.01	-.06**	1					
Multi	.03**	-0.02	.04**	-.44**	-.02	-.08**	-0.02	-.08**	-.06**	1				
No Race Ind.	-0.01	0.01	0.02	-.19**	-0.01	-.03**	-0.01	-.03**	-.03	-.04**	1			
Serv. Pre-test	.14**	-.15**	0.01	0.00	-0.02	-.02	-.03	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.02	1		
Omni Pre-test	.05**	-.04**	-.03**	-.04**	-0.01	-.07**	-0.00	-0.01	.02	0.00	-0.01	.27**	1	

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Fem=Female. Trans=Transgender. Amer. Ind.=American Indian. Multi=Multiracial. No Race Ind.=No Race Indicated. Serv. Pre-Test=Pre-test for Community Service Involvement. Omni Pre-test=Pre-test for Omnibus Measure of Socially Responsible Leadership.

Table 3.3

Correlations (continued)

	Fem	Male	Trans	White	Middle Eastern	Black	Amer Ind.	Asian	Latino	Multi	No Race Ind.	Serv. Pre-test	Omni Pre-test	Age
Age	-0.01	-0.00	.08**	-.13**	-0.01	.16**	.05**	-0.01	.04**	.03**	.04**	-.10**	-0.00	1
Comm Serv	-.06**	.06**	0.02	.02	-0.0	-.04*	-0.01	.02	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-.20**	-.10**	-0.01
Class	.09**	-.09**	0.00	-.03	0.01	.06**	-0.02	-0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	.05**
Work-study	0.03	-0.02	0.01	-.05**	-.03	.05**	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.0	.04**	0.02	0.00	0.02
Campus	0.01	-0.01	.03	-0.01	0	0.02	-0.02	0.01	0.02	-0.01	-0.02	.09**	.04*	-.16**
Comm. Org	-0.03	0.03	0.02	-.10**	0.02	.09**	0.02	-0.00	0.02	.04**	0.02	.09**	.04*	.16**
Own	-0.01	-0.00	.05**	.11**	-.03	.07**	-0.01	-0.00	-.03	.06**	.06**	.11**	.06**	.14**
Study Abroad	-.09**	.09**	-0.00	.07**	0.02	-.09**	.03**	-0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	-.09**	-0.02	.14**
Intern	-.06**	.06**	0.01	-.06**	0.02	-0.00	0.01	0.01	.04**	.05**	-0.01	-.10**	-.06**	.08**
Soc-Cul	-.04**	.04**	0.02	-.06*	.02	.02	-0.01	-.02	.03**	.07**	.04**	.18**	.15**	-.12**
STSI	-0.00	0.00	0.02	-.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	.03*	-0.01	0	0	.12**	.03*	-.04**
Omni	.07**	-.05**	-.03*	-0.00	-0.02	.05**	-0.00	-.06*	.02	-0.03	0.01	.18**	.42**	0.01

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Fem=Female. Trans=Transgender. Amer. Ind.=American Indian. Multi=Multiracial. No Race Ind.=No Race Indicated. Serv. Pre-Test=Pre-test for Community Service Involvement. Omni Pre-test=Pre-test for Omnibus Measure of Socially Responsible Leadership. Comm Serv=Community Service Involvement. Class=Community Service in Class. Work-Study=Community Service through Work-Study. Campus=Community Service on Campus. Comm. Org.=Community Service Off-Campus. Own=Community Service on Own. Soc-Cul=Socio-Cultural Conversations. Omni=Omnibus Measure for Socially Responsible Leadership.

Table 3.4

Correlations (continued)

	Comm. Serv.	In class	Work study	Campus org	Comm. Org	Own	Abroad	Intern	Soc-Cul	Short-term serv.	Omni
Comm Serv	1										
Class	.a	1									
Work-study	.a	.20**	1								
Campus	.a	.04**	.05**	1							
Comm. Org	.a	.04**	.10**	-0.01	1						
Own	.a	.09**	.10**	0.01	.29**	1					
Abroad	.04**	0.00	-0.00	.05**	-.08**	.05**	1				
Intern	.08**	-.11**	-.09**	-.06**	-0.02	-.03	.07**	1			
Soc-Cul	-.11**	.04**	.04**	.09**	.03	.06**	-.10**	-.06**	1		
Short-term serv.	-.16**	.04**	.08**	.13**	.07**	.08**	-.10**	-.06**	.10**	1	
Omni	-.22**	0.01	0.02	.10**	.07**	.08**	-.02	-.09**	.36**	.08**	1

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01level (2-tailed). a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant. Comm Serv=Community Service Involvement. Class=Community Service in Class. Work-Study=Community Service through Work-Study. Campus=Community Service on Campus. Comm. Org.=Community Service Off-Campus. Own=Community Service on Own. Soc-Cul=Socio-Cultural Conversations. Omni=Omnibus Measure for Socially Responsible Leadership.

For the second hypothesis, I created a new, categorical variable to compare four groups of students: (1) those who did not participate in community service or short-term service immersions, (2) those who participated only in community service, (3) those who participated only in short-term service immersions, and (4) those who participated in both community service and short-term service immersions. Then, I calculated descriptive statistics for the new variable, including means and standard deviations. I used a one-way ANOVA to test for difference between these groups, however when a significant

Levene statistic indicated a violation of ANOVA assumptions, I instead utilized

independent samples t-tests to further analyze difference assuming unequal variance

between groups.

For the third hypothesis, I conducted one blocked, forced-entry, regression with

blocks built in the following fashion predicting the dependent variable of socially

responsible leadership. See Table 3.1 for coding of these measures.

- Block 1 (Inputs): Gender and race

- Block 2 (Inputs—pre-college experience and quasi-pre-tests): Pre-college
  involvement in service and pre-test for omnibus SRLS

- Block 3 (Bridge variable): Age

- Block 4 (Proximal environments): Community service participation, study
  abroad participation, internships, and socio-cultural conversations

- Block 5 (Variable of interest): Short-term service immersion

Given that the research question for this study sought to investigate a relationship

between one dependent variable and many independent variables, regression was the best

tool for analysis. Typically, a 95% significance level (a p value of .05) is used as the

measure for statistical significance, however, given the large sample size available

through the MSL, I used a 99% significance level, which was a p value of .01 (Astin,

1991, 1993; Lattin, Carroll, & Green, 2003). Further, I calculated effect size to determine

if the significance was meaningful.

Conclusion

The data from this study shed light on the demographics of STSI participants and

provided practitioners with information on the relationship between STSI participation

and socially responsible leadership. As educators are called to demonstrate how

programs and services contribute to the institution's mission, this study has added to that

evidence base. The next chapter will outline the specific results of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between short-term service immersion (STSI) involvement, such as Alternative Spring Break (ASB), and socially responsible leadership outcomes as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). Specifically, the guiding research questions were, (1) was there a significant difference in leadership outcomes between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and those who do not?; (2) was there a significant difference between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and community service compared with those who only participate in one type of program or none at all?; and (3) when controlling for pre-college variables, demographics, and other college environment factors, specifically community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations, did participation in short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB, contribute to leadership outcomes as defined by the SRLS?

Hypotheses

The guiding hypotheses for this study were:

$H1_0$: those who participate in STSI programs will not demonstrate significantly higher leadership capacity than those who do not participate;

$H2_0$: those who participate in community service and STSI will not demonstrate a significantly higher leadership capacity than those who participate in only STSI, only service, or do not participate in either program; and

$H3_0$: participation in short-term service immersion programs will not significantly contribute to leadership capacity beyond race, gender, age, pre-tests for community

service, pre-tests for the dependent variable, and participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations.

The sample used in this study included seniors from the MSL-2009 data collection who answered "yes" to the question, "Since starting college, have you ever participated in a leadership training or leadership education experience of any kind (ex: leadership conference, alternative spring break, leadership course, club president's retreat)?" This limitation was placed on the sample due to the survey's design. The question that determined participation in the variable of interest, short-term service immersion, was only available to respondents who answered "yes" to the above question. Those who answered "no" skipped the sequence of questions related to leadership training and education and were therefore excluded from this analysis.

Sample Characteristics

The overall sample of 9,553 seniors is described in table 4.1, which details the demographics of the entire sample as well as those who participated in short-term immersion and those who did not. STSI participants and non-STSI participants were both representative of the overall sample. Table 4.1 includes a number of descriptors of the sample even if not used as variables in this study to add depth to understanding study findings. Of the entire sample, 63% identified as female, 34.7% identified as male, and 0.2%, or 15 respondents, identified as transgender. In regard to sexual orientation, 90.1% identified as heterosexual, 2.2% identified as bisexual, 2.4% identified as gay/lesbian, 0.7% identified as questioning, and 2.4% chose rather not say. For race and ethnicity, 69.9% of the sample identified as White/Caucasian, 0.6% identified as Middle Eastern, 6.7% identified as African American/Black, 0.4% identified as American Indian/Alaska

Native, 6.7% identified as Asian American/Asian, 4.1% identified as Latino/Hispanic, 7.7% identified as multiracial or chose more than one race/ethnicity, and 1.5% identified with a race/ethnicity not included on the question. With regard to age, 2.3% were 20 years old or younger, 84.2% of the sample was between the ages of 21 and 24, and 11.3% were 25 years of age and older.

Concerning political views, 9.0% of the sample identified as very liberal, 30.6% identified as liberal, 37.2% identified as moderate, 18.8% identified as conservative, and 2.7% identified as very conservative. The overall sample represented all majors. The largest majors represented in the sample were: business (20%), social sciences (17.3%), humanities (7.6%), education (7.5%), and biological/life sciences (6.2%). Thirty-nine and a half percent of the sample (39.5%) had a GPA between 3.50 and 4.00 and 39% had between a 3.00 and 3.49. Fewer students had a GPA below 3.00, with 16.6% who reported a GPA between 2.50 and 2.99; 2.5% who reported a GPA between 2.00 and 2.49; 0.1% (10) who reported a GPA below 2.00; and two respondents who reported no college GPA. A majority of the students in the sample were not first-generation college students (83.8%) and only 13.4% identified as being a first-generation college student. Similarly, most students started at their current institution (76%) and only 24% reported transferring to their current institution. With regard to enrollment, 95.3% of respondents were full-time students and only 4.7% were enrolled part-time. When asked about current housing, 56.5% of these seniors lived in an off-campus home not with parents, 8.4% reported living with parents, 19.2% reported living in college/university housing, 3.9% lived in a fraternity or sorority house, 8.3% lived in other on-campus housing, and 1.3% had other living accommodations.

Of the sample, 60% reported participating in community service in an average month with 16.7% doing so as part of a class, 8% as part of a work-study experience, 40.9% as part of a campus organization, 23.3% as part of a community organization, and 33.1% doing community service on their own in an average month. Additionally, 31.5% had studied abroad, 74.6% had participated in an internship, and 99.2% engaged in socio-cultural conversations.

The only statistically significant differences in participation between STSI participants and non-STSI were in community service participation, study abroad, internship participation, and age. STSI participants were more engaged in community service, studied abroad more, participated more frequently in internships, and had fewer students over the age of 25 than their counterparts who did not participate in STSI programs. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the demographics of the overall sample as well as the profiles of the STSI participants and non-STSI participants.

Table 4.1

Sample Characteristics

	Overall sample		STSI Participants		Non-STSI Participants	
	Total N=9553		Total N=3293		Total N=6260	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Gender						
Male	3312	34.7%	1130	34.3%	2182	34.9%
Female	6018	63.0%	2082	63.2%	3936	62.9%
Transgender	15	0.2%	7	0.2%	8	0.1%
Race						
White/Caucasian	6674	69.9%	2275	69.1%	4399	70.3%
Middle Eastern	56	0.6%	17	0.5%	39	0.6%
African American/Black	644	6.7%	226	6.9%	418	6.7%

American Indian/Alaska Native	36	0.4%	10	0.3%	26	0.4%
Asian American/Asian	638	6.7%	246	7.5%	392	6.3%
Latino/Hispanic	395	4.1%	141	4.3%	254	4.1%
Multiracial	734	7.7%	248	7.5%	486	7.8%
Race/Ethnicity not included above	148	1.5%	49	1.5%	99	1.6%
Age						
Under 20	221	2.3%	76	2.3%	145	2.3%
21-24	8047	84.2%	2864	87.0%	5183	82.8%
25 and older	1083	11.3%	283	8.6%	800	12.8%
Political views						
Very liberal	857	9.0%	321	9.7%	546	8.7%
Liberal	2927	30.6%	1022	31.0%	1905	30.4%
Moderate	3550	37.2%	1182	35.9%	2368	37.8%
Conservative	1796	18.8%	631	19.2%	1165	18.6%
Very conservative	256	2.7%	79	2.4%	177	2.8%
Primary major						
Agriculture	63	0.7%	17	0.5%	46	0.7%
Architecture/Urban planning	61	0.6%	26	0.8%	35	0.6%
Biological/Life sciences	593	6.2%	218	6.6%	375	6.0%
Business	1910	20.0%	579	17.6%	1331	21.3%
Communication	690	7.2%	236	7.2%	454	7.3%
Computer and information sciences	156	1.6%	45	1.4%	111	1.8%
Education	716	7.5%	256	7.8%	460	7.3%
Engineering	478	5.0%	157	4.8%	321	5.1%
Ethnic, Cultural Studies, and Area Studies	64	0.7%	24	0.7%	40	0.6%
Foreign Languages and Literature	145	1.5%	65	2.0%	80	1.3%
Health-related fields	730	7.6%	238	7.2%	492	7.9%
Humanities	726	7.6%	298	9.0%	428	6.8%

Liberal/General studies	109	1.1%	30	0.9%	79	1.3%
Mathematics	139	1.5%	39	1.2%	100	1.6%
Multi/Interdisciplinary studies	179	1.9%	75	2.3%	104	1.7%
Parks, recreation, leisure studies, sports management	101	1.1%	33	1.0%	68	1.1%
Physical sciences	196	2.1%	69	2.1%	127	2.0%
Pre-professional	220	2.3%	81	2.5%	139	2.2%
Public administration	91	1.0%	30	0.9%	61	1.0%
Social sciences	1653	17.3%	602	18.3%	1051	16.8%
Visual and performing arts	316	3.3%	97	2.9%	219	3.5%
Undecided	12	0.1%	7	0.2%	5	0.1%
Sexual orientation						
Heterosexual	8605	90.1%	2961	89.9%	5644	90.2%
Bisexual	209	2.2%	71	2.2%	138	2.2%
Gay/Lesbian	229	2.4%	73	2.2%	156	2.5%
Questioning	68	0.7%	26	0.8%	42	0.7%
Rather not say	229	2.4%	87	2.6%	142	2.3%
GPA						
3.50-4.00	3773	39.5%	1315	39.9%	2458	39.3%
3.00-3.49	3722	39.0%	1302	39.5%	2420	38.7%
2.50-2.99	1585	16.6%	506	15.4%	1079	17.2%
2.00-2.49	239	2.5%	90	2.7%	149	2.4%
1.99 or less	10	0.1%	2	0.1%	8	0.1%
No college GPA	2	0.0%	1	0.0%	1	0.0%
First Generation Status						
First Generation College Student	1284	13.4%	423	12.8%	861	13.8%
Non-First Generation College Student	8002	83.8%	2780	84.4%	5222	83.4%

Current housing						
Parent/guardian or other relative home	806	8.4%	244	7.4%	562	9.0%
Other off-campus home	5402	56.5%	1830	55.6%	3572	57.1%
College/University residence hall	1837	19.2%	714	21.7%	1123	17.9%
Fraternity or sorority house	371	3.9%	104	3.2%	267	4.3%
Other on-campus student housing	795	8.3%	284	8.6%	511	8.2%
Other	121	1.3%	40	1.2%	81	1.3%
Transfer Status						
Transferred to current institution	2294	24.0%	700	21.3%	1594	25.5%
Began at current institution	7258	76.0%	2593	78.7%	4665	74.5%
Enrollment						
Full-time	9100	95.3%	3166	96.1%	5934	94.8%
Part-time	452	4.7%	127	3.9%	325	5.2%
College Involvement						
Community Service Participation	5733	60.0%	2287	69.5%	3446	55.0%
As part of a class	1598	16.7%	711	21.6%	887	14.2%
As part of a work study experience	765	8.0%	396	12.0%	369	5.9%
As part of a campus organization	3905	40.9%	1759	53.4%	2426	38.8%
As part of a community organization	2225	23.3%	991	30.1%	1234	19.7%
On your own	3163	33.1%	1373	41.7%	1790	28.6%
Study Abroad participation	3009	31.5%	1284	39.0%	1725	27.6%
Internship experience	7122	74.6%	2570	78.0%	4552	72.7%

Note. Highlighted rows indicate statistically significant difference in levels of

participation.

Differences in Socially Responsible Leadership

The first hypothesis of this study examined socially responsible leadership outcomes for those who participated in STSI programs and hypothesized that they would not demonstrate significantly higher leadership capacity than those who did not participate in STSI programs. Using a t-test to analyze differences between groups, I identified that there was a significant difference between means when equal variances were not assumed. Equal variances were not assumed because the Levene statistic was significant, indicating a possible Type I error and heterogeneity of variance (Pallant, 2007).

As noted in Table 4.2 below, the average score on the omnibus scale for STSI participants was 4.12 (0.39), which was statistically significantly higher than non-STSI participants, whose mean score was 4.08 (0.37), both on the high end of the scale, which was scored on a Likert scale from one to five. Due to the statistically significant finding, I reject the null hypothesis. However, when Cohen's d was calculated, the effect size was 0.105. That measure of Cohen's d illustrates that while significant, the difference between each group's mean score is trivial (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.2

Omnibus by STSI Involvement

	N	Percentage of Sample	Omnibus Mean (SD)
STSI Participants	3275	34.4%	4.12 (.39)**
Non-STSI Participants	6246	65.6%	4.08 (.37)

Note. $N = 9521$. **$p < 0.01$.

Short-term Service Immersion and Community Service Involvement Differences

Community service has been well documented as a positive collegiate influence (Astin, 1993; Butin, 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Foos, 1998; Gasiorski, 2009; Green,

2001; Jones & Abes, 2003, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001; Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Kezar, 2002; McGovern, 1998; Morton, 1995; O'Grady, 2000; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pompa, 2005; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Neururer, 1998; Rosenberger, 2000; Sax & Astin, 1998; Wade, 2000). As such, the second hypothesis examined the relationship between community service participation, STSI participation, various combinations of the aforementioned participation types, and the dependent variable of socially responsible leadership. Hypothesis two specifically asserted that those students who participate in community service and STSI would not demonstrate a significantly higher leadership capacity than those who participated in only STSI, only service, or did not participate in either program. The mean score on the omnibus measure for socially responsible leadership for those who participated in both STSI programs and service was highest at 4.17 (0.36). Aligned with the results of the first research question, no significant difference between groups could be identified because the assumptions of ANOVA were not met due to a significant Levene statistic. Nevertheless, when independent samples t-tests were calculated between each set of groups and equality of variance was not assumed, statistical significance did emerge. Table 4.3 details the means, standard deviations, and overviews statistically significant relationships. Those students who participated in both STSI programs and community service scored the highest on the socially responsible leadership scale and significantly more so than any other group.

Given the large sample size, significance could be a result of chance; therefore, I calculated effect sizes as measured by Cohen's d. A medium-sized effect did exist for all pairings in which significance emerged, except for between those who participated in both programs and service only. Although statistically significant, the mean difference

between those who participated in both STSI programs and community service and those who only participated in community service only yielded a Cohen's d of 0.056, which is a very small effect size.

For all other significant pairings, however, the effect size was much greater. The mean score on the omnibus measure for those who participated in both STSI programs and community service was 4.17 (0.36) on a five-point Likert scale. When compared to the mean score for those who participated only in STSI programs, which averaged 3.97 (0.42) on the five-point scale, a Cohen's d score of 0.511 emerged, or a medium effect size. When students who participated in both types of programs were compared with those who participated in neither, the effect size was 0.466, a medium effect size. Similarly, those who participated in only community service scored significantly higher than those who participated only in STSI (d=0.460), a medium effect size. Further, those who participated only in community service also scored higher than those who participated in neither STSI nor service (d=0.411) with a medium effect size. Given the statistical significance and effect sizes, I reject the null hypothesis because those who participated in both STSI programs and community service scored higher on the measure for leadership capacities (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.3

Omnibus by STSI and Service Involvement

	N	Percentage of entire sample	Omnibus Mean (SD)
STSI and Service (a)	2287	23.9%	4.17 (.36)
STSI Only (b)	1005	10.5%	3.97 (.42)
Service Only (c)	3446	36.1%	4.15 (.36)
Neither (d)	2813	29.5%	4.00 (.37)

Note. $N = 9551$. Relationship of significance a > c > b**; a > c > d**. **p < 0.01.

Short-term Service Immersion Programs as a Predictor of Leadership

The final hypothesis in this study examined the predictive value of STSI participation for socially responsible leadership, while controlling for other variables including other environmental experiences using a quasi-I-E-O design. Specifically, the hypothesis stated that participation in short-term service immersion programs would not significantly contribute to leadership capacity beyond race, gender, age, pre-tests for community service, pre-tests for the dependent variable, and participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations. The means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of each variable included in the regression are provided in Table 4.4. As mentioned in chapter 3, the data were tested to assure they met the assumptions of regression.

The means for community service participation as part of a class, as part of a work study experience, as part of a community organization, and on one's own all hovered between one and two, which mean that on average, students participated in fewer than one to five hours of service per month in each of those capacities. The means for community service as part of a campus organization was between two and three. Therefore, on average, students participated in one to five hours of community service as part of a campus organization. The average score for study abroad participation was 1.68, which showed that more students did not study abroad than did in the sample. Alternatively, more students participated in internships than did not because the mean score for internships was 1.25. For both study abroad and internships, a score of one signified that the respondent did participate in that activity and a score of two indicated no participation. Concerning participation in socio-cultural conversations, the mean

score of 3.25 on a four-point scale was an indicator that participants in the sample often

participated in socio-cultural conversations. Also a four-point scale, participation in

STSI programs ranged from never to often, therefore a mean score of 1.56 (0.88) denoted

that the average response was between never and once with regard to STSI participation

rates. Finally, a mean score of 4.09 on the omnibus measure of socially responsible

leadership indicated that most respondents agreed with the statements related to

leadership capacity.

Table 4.4

Means and Reliabilities for Regression

	Mean (SD)	Reliability
Pre-college service involvement	2.64 (.91)	
Pre-test for omnibus leadership outcome	3.91 (.52)	0.74
Age	22.98 (4.99)	
Community service participation	1.40 (.50)	
Community service participation: As part of a class	1.48 (1.01)	
Community service participation: As part of a work study experience	1.30 (1.03)	
Community service participation: As part of a campus organization	2.17 (1.20)	
Community service participation: As part of a community organization	1.64 (1.12)	
Community service participation: On your own	1.82 (1.08)	
Study abroad	1.68 (.47)	
Internship	1.25 (.44)	
Socio-cultural conversations	3.25 (.71)	0.89
Short-term service immersion	1.56 (.88)	
Omnibus	4.09 (.38)	0.96

The final model of the regression included five blocks in a quasi-I-E-O design and

allowed for each set of variables to be both isolated and controlled. The total variance

explained was 28.3%. All blocks of the regression were significant, except for the third

block, which added the bridge variable of age, and the last (fifth) block, which added the variable of interest, STSI program participation. The fourth block significantly predicted more than 9% of the variance, almost a third of the total variance explained by the model. The final block, which included the variable of interest, only contributed 0.01% to the model and was not statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Because the last block of the regression, STSI participation, was not significant, I fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Despite the lack of significance for the variable of interest, Table 4.5 provides the data from the regression for the model, including the coefficients for the final model. Significant results emerged from other environmental variables, including community service as part of a campus organization and as part of a community organization, participation in internships, and participation in socio-cultural conversations. For the significant environmental predictors, only internship participation had an inverse relationship with the dependent variable. Although the quasi-pre-test contributed to the variance at the highest rate, socio-cultural conversation participation was the next highest standardized coefficient (Beta).

Table 4.5

Predictors of Socially Responsible Leadership (Final Block Only)

Variable	B	Beta	VIF
Block 1			
(Constant)**	2.398		
Male	-0.018	-0.022	1.044
Transgender**	-0.285	-0.03	1.016
Middle Eastern	-0.096	-0.019	1.008
African American/Black	0.006	0.004	1.075
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.031	0.005	1.009
Asian American/Asian**	-0.084	-0.055	1.023
Latino/Hispanic	-0.003	-0.002	1.024
Multiracial	0	0	1.04
Race/Ethnicity not included above	-0.038	-0.013	1.016
R^2 Change 0.011**			
Block 2			
Pre-college community service involvement	0.011	0.026	1.172
Omnibus SRLS Pretest**	0.263	0.359	1.1
R^2 Change 0.177**			
Block 3			
Age**	0.004	0.055	1.142
R^2 Change 0			
Block 4			
Community service as part of a class	-0.007	-0.02	1.071
Community service as part of work-study	0	-0.001	1.071
Community service as part of a campus organization**	0.019	0.06	1.058
Community service as part of a community organization**	0.011	0.032	1.136
Community service on own	0.006	0.017	1.141
Study Abroad	0.014	0.017	1.059
Internship**	-0.045	-0.052	1.047
Socio-Cultural Discussions**	0.158	0.294	1.085
R^2 Change 0.094**			
Block 5			
STSI Participation	0.012	0.028	1.06
R^2 Change 0.001			

Note. Total R^2 = 28.3. *F* = 103.64**. **p < 0.01

Post Hoc Analyses

Due to the contribution of socio-cultural conversation participation to the variance explained in the regression model, better understanding the relationship between STSI participation and socio-cultural conversation participation could help explain the discrepancy between hypotheses in this study. For the post hoc analysis, the null hypothesis was that there would be no difference in socio-cultural conversation participation between STSI participants and non-STSI participants. To test the hypothesis, I calculated the means for each group on the socio-cultural conversations scale in which STSI participants scored 3.33 (0.66), in contrast to those who did not participate in STSI who scored 3.20 (0.72), which is detailed in table 4.6 below. Statistical significance was determined using an independent samples t-test. Although the difference between groups is statistically significant, the effect size was small with a Cohen's d score of 0.188 (Pallant, 2007). However, due to the statistical significance, I reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4.6

Socio-Cultural Conversations by STSI Involvement

	N	Percentage of Sample	Socio-Cultural Conversations Mean (SD)
STSI Participants	3275	34.4%	3.33 (.66)**
Non-STSI Participants	6246	65.6%	3.20 (.72)

Note. $N = 9521$. **$p < 0.01$.

Given the significant differences found for the socio-cultural conversations outcomes for short-term service immersion participants, I also analyzed those respondents who participated in STSI and service, only STSI, only service, and none.

Participation in STSI, service, and both STSI and service all significantly scored higher on socio-cultural conversations than those who did not participate in STSI or service. Those who did not participate in STSI or service scored an average of 3.12 (.74) on the socio-cultural conversations scale. There was no significant difference between students who participated in STSI only, who scored an average of 3.25 (.68), and those who participated in service only, who scored an average of 3.27 (.70). However, those who participated in both STSI and service, with an average score of 3.37 (.65), scored significantly higher than those who participated in just STSI or just service. Table 4.7 overviews the means and standard deviations for each group on both outcomes as well as the percentage involved in each way.

In addition to testing for statistical significance, I also assessed effect sizes for the means that were significantly different, which yielded small effect sizes except for two pairings. Those students who participated in both STSI programs and community service had a small-medium effect size when compared with those who participated in neither with a Cohen's d of 0.359, and those who participated in only community service also had a small-medium effect size when compared to those who participated in neither, with a Cohen's d of 0.208 (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.7

Socio-Cultural Conversations by STSI and Service Involvement

	N	Percentage of entire sample	Socio-Cultural Conversations Mean (SD)
STSI and Service (a)	2287	23.9%	3.37 (.65)
STSI Only (b)	1005	10.5%	3.25 (.68)
Service Only (c)	3446	36.1%	3.27 (.70)
Neither (d)	2813	29.5%	3.12 (.74)

Note. $N = 9551$. Relationship of significance a>b>d**; a>c>d **. **$p < 0.01$.

Summary

Although the regression model did not provide statistically significant results, promising results emerged that support short-term service immersion participation as a positive involvement opportunity for college students, particularly given the results for hypothesis one, hypothesis two, and the post hoc analyses, which demonstrated statistical significance. The following chapter will make meaning of the findings in the context of current literature and will provide implications for practice and future research.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter will provide a review of the study, the methods, and the results, followed by a discussion that situates the findings from this study in the larger body of literature related to immersion programs, community service, socially responsible leadership, and other relevant sources. Finally, this chapter concludes with an overview of this study's limitations, implications for practice, and ideas for future research.

Summary of Study

The rise in attention to short-term service immersion programs (STSI) such as Alternative Spring Break (ASB) and the dearth of research on the effects of such programs served as the motivator for this study. In particular, this study was interested in the relationship between socially responsible leadership and STSI program participation.

Statement of the Problem

Colleges and universities are increasingly being called to educate leaders and citizens (Colby, 2002; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Gutmann, 1987/1999; Jones & Abes, 2004; Komives, 2011; McElhaney, 1998; Zlotkowski, Horowitz, & Benson, 2011). Aligned with the assumptions of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, a widely used tool for collegiate leadership education (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006), community service/involvement is often used as a vehicle for leadership development (Cilente, 2009; Dey & Associates, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; HERI, 1996; Jones & Abes, 2003, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001; Kezar, 2002; Meixner & Rosch, 2011; Pritchard, 2001; Sax & Astin, 1998; Zlotkowski, Horowitz, & Benson, 2011). A popular form of community service is short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB programs. From 2006 to 2010,

there was an estimated increase in Alternative Spring Break participation from 36,000 students to 72,000 students (Bohn, 2009; Break Away, 2009, 2010).

Despite the increased focus on leadership and the increased participation in STSI programs, very little research exists on outcomes associated with STSI program participation, specifically as related to student leadership capacities. In contrast, there is a growing body of research on the positive relationship between leadership outcomes and long-term immersion programs, such as internships (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, Morosini, & Beazley, 2011; Taylor, 1988; Thompson, 2006) and study abroad (Armfield, 2004; Kitsantas, 2004; Lee, 2010). Additionally, research supports the importance of participation in socio-cultural conversations and community service participation as important predictors of leadership capacities (e.g. Dugan, 2011; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gasiorski, 2009). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between short-term service immersion involvement and socially responsible leadership outcomes as measured by the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS).

Review of Methods

The guiding research questions for this study were, (1) was there a significant difference in leadership outcomes between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and those who do not?; (2) was there a significant difference between those who participated in short-term service immersion programs and community service compared with those who only participate in one type of program or none at all?; and (3) when controlling for pre-college variables, demographics, and other college environment factors, specifically participation in community service, study

abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations, did participation in short-term service immersion programs, such as ASB, contribute to leadership outcomes as defined by the socially responsible leadership scale (SRLS)?

As outlined in chapter three, the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership 2009 (MSL-2009) served as the data source for this study. All seniors who completed at least 90% of the instrument and indicated participation in leadership education and training were included in this analysis for a total sample size of 9,553 respondents. Astin's (1991, 1993) Inputs-Environments-Outcomes (IEO) model served as the conceptual framework for this analysis with a quasi-IEO model due to a then post design rather than a true longitudinal analysis. Using an ex post facto correlational design, I utilized means comparisons, specifically independent samples t-tests to analyze the first two hypotheses and one blocked, forced-entry regression to assess the third hypothesis in the study. Post hoc analyses were conducted to better understand the relationship between STSI participation and socio-cultural conversation engagement.

Summary of Results

A total sample of 9,553 seniors who completed at least 90% of the MSL-2009 and who indicated that they had participated in a leadership training or education experience served as the base for this study. In order to understand better the population of students who participated in STSI programs, demographics were calculated on both the overall sample as well as for those who participated in STSI programs and those who did not. Interestingly, STSI participants and non-STSI participants were relatively reflective of the overall sample. However, those who participated in STSI programs did participate at

significantly higher rates in all forms of community service, study abroad, and internships.

Research question one examined whether there was a difference in socially responsible leadership scores for those who participated in STSI programs versus those who did not. The accompanying null hypothesis for this research question was that there would be no difference between those who participated in STSI programs and those who did not participate in STSI programs. After conducting an independent samples t-test to compare the means for both groups, I rejected the null hypothesis because the data showed that STSI participants did score significantly higher on the omnibus measure of socially responsible leadership.

Research question two sought to determine if there was a difference in socially responsible leadership scores for those who participated in both community service and STSI programs, STSI programs only, community service only, and those who did not participate in STSI programs or community service. The accompanying null hypothesis for this research question was that there would be no difference between those groups. After conducting an independent samples t-test to compare the means amongst the groups, I rejected the null hypothesis because the data showed there was a statistically significant difference. Specifically, those who participated in both STSI programs and community service scored significantly higher than all other groups, while those who participated in service only scored higher than those who participated in STSI only and those who participated in neither STSI nor service.

Research question three was interested in isolating the effects of STSI participation on socially responsible leadership by controlling for other factors known to

contribute to that outcome. The accompanying null hypothesis for this research assumed that participation in short-term service immersion programs would not contribute to leadership capacity beyond race, gender, age, pre-tests for community service, pre-tests for the dependent variable, and participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations. I failed to reject this hypothesis because STSI programs did not significantly contribute to socially responsible leadership beyond the other independent variables included in the analysis.

Promising results emerged from the post hoc analyses, which found that STSI participants scored significantly higher than non-STSI participants on socio-cultural conversations. Further, any participation by students in STSI programs, community service, or participation in both, resulted in significantly higher scores on the socio-cultural conversations scale than for those students who did not participate in any form of STSI program or community service.

Interpretation in Light of Previous Research and Theory

The findings from this study support previous research and advance the understanding of participation in short-term service immersion programs. Much literature connects participation in community service to leadership development (Astin, 1993; Butin, 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Foos, 1998; Gasiorski, 2009; Green, 2001; Jones & Abes, 2003, 2004; Jones & Hill, 2001; Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Kezar, 2002; McGovern, 1998; Morton, 1995; O'Grady, 2000; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pompa, 2005; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Neururer, 1998; Rosenberger, 2000; Sax & Astin, 1998; Wade, 2000). Although most research focuses on community service broadly, limited research on participation in ASB, a form of short-term service immersion, has been

positive (Cooper, 2002; Jones et al., 2012; McElhaney, 1998; Rhoads, 1997; Rhoads & Neururer, 1998). Results from this study affirm a positive relationship between short-term service immersion participation, community service, high-impact practices, and socially responsible leadership.

STSI and Socially Responsible Leadership

Jones et al. (2012) examined the ways STSI participants find meaning through STSI program participation. Through a constructivist multi-site case study, the researchers' key findings aligned with the findings from this study. In the Jones et al. study, the researchers found that STSI participants experienced dissonance during their programs due to "getting out of their bubble," "boundary crossing," and "personalizing" (Jones et al,. 2012, p. 208-209). Each of these sub-themes exposed the ways in which participants engaged in conversations about and across difference through the design of the programs, which took students out of their day-to-day lives and immersed them in a different experience. The social change model of leadership development's eight values related to these findings by Jones et al. (HERI, 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009). Specifically, controversy with civility, consciousness of self, and citizenship are experiences evident in Jones et al.'s research. This present study found that students who participated in short-term service immersion programs scored significantly higher on socially responsible leadership than those who did not participate, which supports Jones et al.'s findings, especially when interpreted through the lens of the social change model.

Service and Socially Responsible Leadership

Community service/involvement is a critical tool for leadership according to the assumptions of the social change model (Astin, 1996; Bonous-Hammarth, 2001; Cilente,

2009; HERI, 1996). As such, the findings from this study further support the relationship between community service and socially responsible leadership. Participants who engaged in both STSI programs and community service scored statistically significantly higher than those who participated in only STSI programs, only community service, or neither on measures of socially responsible leadership. Further, those students who participated in only community service scored significantly higher than those who participated in STSI only or neither STSI nor service. This finding is perplexing as service should be a component of STSI programs, which led me to consider two possible explanations. The first rationale could be that there is variety within and across STSI programs. Perhaps some programs lack an intentional community service component as part of the experience. Or, conversely, perhaps STSI programs may have incorporated so much critical reflection that the participants began to question their leadership capacities.

This discrepancy among findings related to community service and STSI participation is reflected in the broader literature on short-term service immersion participation. Rhoads and Neururer (1998) found generally positive effects associated with ASB participation at the individual, group, and community level. Similarly, Cooper (2002) found that students involved with Alpha Phi Omega service fraternity and those involved with ASB demonstrated higher scores on the social responsibility inventory than those who engaged in service-learning courses.

In contrast, King (2004) conducted an interpretative case study on a weeklong cultural immersion experience in Tijuana. His findings illustrated that in some cases service-learning could reinforce systems of privilege. Additionally, Jones et al. (2012) revealed "understanding of privilege" (p. 211) as a key finding from their research on the

meaning-making for short-term service immersion participants. This awareness of privilege exposed a vulnerability and perspective for participants in their study that came because of program participation. These conflicting analyses of STSI participation could help describe the discrepancy uncovered in this study between those seniors who participated in both STSI programs and community service, community service only, and STSI participation only.

Internships and Socially Responsible Leadership

Dugan and Komives (2010) provided an overview analysis of influences on socially responsible leadership. They found that internships positively contributed to collaboration, a component of socially responsible leadership. Similarly, Thompson (2006) found that internship and fieldwork experiences significantly contributed to leadership attitudes and beliefs, particularly levels of hierarchical and systemic thinking. Given the positive results of those studies, the results of this study were surprising. Internship participation was included as an environmental variable in the regression analysis conducted in this study and was a significant predictor of socially responsible leadership. However, the coefficient was negative, indicating that in this study an inverse relationship between internship participation and socially responsible leadership emerged. Although the coefficient was small relative to other predictors with a standardized coefficient (Beta) of only -0.052, this finding is inconsistent with previous research. One possible explanation could be that internships contributed to certain aspects of socially responsible leadership, such as collaboration, rather than the overall measure, a scenario documented by Dugan and Komives (2010).

Socio-cultural Conversations and Socially Responsible Leadership

Specifically, participants in STSI programs scored significantly higher than peers who did not participate in STSI programs on the measure for socially responsible leadership and socio-cultural conversation participation. Meixner and Rosch (2011) highlighted socio-cultural conversation as a powerful pedagogy, and in previous research using the MSL, participation in socio-cultural conversations was the strongest predictor of all eight SRLS outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Further, Dey and Associates (2010) found that participants in their study not only benefited from engaging in conversations about and across difference, but they also sought out those opportunities. Perhaps the most compelling study that documents the importance of socio-cultural conversations is Gurin et al.'s (2002) analysis that highlighted the importance of diversity for learning and democracy outcomes. The independent samples t-test supported statistically significant difference between groups and socio-cultural conversations contributed the most within the environmental variables to socially responsible leadership in the final model of the present study's regression analysis.

Interestingly, participants in STSI and service, STSI only, and service only all scored significantly higher than those students who participated in neither STSI nor service on socio-cultural conversations. As stated earlier, socio-cultural conversations were a strong predictor of socially responsible leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2010) and have been documented as contributors to learning and democracy outcomes (Gurin et al., 2002). As such, any form of service, STSI, and the combination may be useful as a platform for facilitating socio-cultural conversations.

Further, Jones et al. (2012) exposed a phenomenon where the STSI participants were not only engaging with difference in the communities in which they served, but also among their teams. STSI participants consistently shared that their STSI teams were composed of other students whom they would have never interacted with regularly on campus (Jones, et. al, 2012). This combination of interaction also supports the finding from the present study concerning the higher scores on the socio-cultural conversations scale for STSI participants and, more broadly, for STSI and service participants.

STSI Participant Profile

Little is known about the demographics of STSI participants. The findings from this study show that STSI participants and non-STSI participants are similar in most ways and representative of the overall sample, particularly in regard to race/ethnicity, gender, political views, sexual orientation, primary major, and GPA. Additionally, transfer status, current housing, enrollment status, and first generation status were also relatively similar for each group and were representative of the overall sample. With regard to involvement and age, however, significant differences between groups emerged. STSI participants were younger than their peers who did not participate in STSI programs. Additionally, they were more involved in community service, study abroad, and internships. This difference between groups could account for the possible Type I error and heterogeneity of variance within groups that emerged in all comparison analyses.

Given the differences between the groups, when controlling for those environmental variables, STSI involvement was not a significant predictor or contributor to socially responsible leadership. The final model in this study explained about 28% of the variance in regard to socially responsible leadership, with the environmental variables

explaining nearly one-third of that variance. The environmental block included community service involvement, study abroad participation, internship participation, and socio-cultural conversations. These high-impact experiences (National Survey for Student Engagement, 2007; Komives, 2011) are documented contributors to student leadership and further research is needed on how these types of experiences connect (or do not connect) with STSI participation.

Involvement Theory and High-Impact Experiences

Astin's (1999) theory of involvement helped shape the design of this study. Astin defined involvement as

> the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the
> academic experience. … Thus, a highly involved student is one who, for example,
> devotes considerable energy to studying, spends much time on campus,
> participates actively in student organizations, and interacts frequently with faculty
> members and other students. (p. 518)

Astin's theory hypothesized that students are more likely to persist through college the more involved they are on campus and that student affairs educators and faculty can create opportunities for student involvement. The findings from this study connected well with Astin's theory. Given the profile of STSI participants, who they were mattered less than what they did on campus. Specifically, STSI participants and non-STSI participants were representative of the overall sample regarding almost all of the demographic characteristics except age. Differences emerged in levels of participation in community service, study abroad, internships, and socio-cultural conversations. Further, the heterogeneity of variance between STSI participants and non-STSI participants could

be related to their varied involvement patterns, all of which were high-impact experiences (Komives, 2011; National Study of Student Engagement, 2007).

Kuh (2009) defined student engagement as "the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college *and* what institutions do to induce students to participate in these activities" (p. 683). Although similar to Astin's (1999) involvement theory, the nuanced definitions of involvement and engagement make them unique constructs. In particular, Wolf-Wendel, Ward, and Kinzie (2009) distinguished between involvement and engagement based upon interviews with the theories' progenitors and prominent users. They concluded,

> Involvement is the responsibility of the individual student, though the environment plays a role. The unit of analysis for involvement is the student and his or her energy; it is the student who becomes involved. … The focus on engagement is on creating campus environments that are ripe with opportunities for students to be engaged. In most of the recent engagement research, the institution, not the student, is the unit of analysis. Although the construct of engagement accounts for individual student behaviors (i.e., what the student is engaged in) and research on student engagement is typically conducted from the student perspective, NSSE results are aggregated to the institution level to encourage institutional research and examination of institutional practice and effectiveness. (p. 425-426)

Research on engagement has led to the understanding and adoption of high-impact practices, such as community service-learning, study abroad, and participation in internships (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2007). Certainly, the findings from

this study support the role of participation in high-impact practices in contributing to socially responsible leadership. Specifically, the significance of community service participation and internship participation, in addition to the importance of participation in socio-cultural conversations that emerged in the findings of the present study support the notion that high-impact practices make a difference in college students' leadership capacities.

Limitations

Although this study significantly contributes to research and practice, it is not without limitations. The use of a cross-sectional design is not ideal and a proper longitudinal study would be a more accurate assessment of the true college impact (Astin, 1991, 1993; Feldman, 1972; Pascarella, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Terenzini, 1994). Additionally, the impact of short-term service immersion program participation may not be immediate: therefore, in addition to a pre/post longitudinal study; post-college follow-up data would also supplement this study with long-term effects of participation in STSI programs, such as ASB (Kuh, 1993). Further, including the measure for STSI program participation as part of indicators of leadership education and training may have swayed those who responded to the question. Findings may have varied if the measure was included instead as a form of community service participation.

Hanson and Lenning's (1979) call for attention to the "vague nature of constructs" (p. 172) is still relevant more than thirty years later. This study, while standardized and tested, is still attitudinal and subject to the interpretation of the respondent. Also, there are inherent limitations in self-reported data and, although a random sample, those students who were included in this analysis all indicated participation in leadership

education and training programs and, therefore, may not be representative of overall campus populations.

Although there are many benefits to a quantitative study of this nature, there are also several limitations. The design of STSI programs, such as ASB, varies greatly within and across institutions. A quantitative measure of STSI participation does not expound upon the nuances of such programs in the same way a qualitative inquiry might. Ironically, while STSI programs focus on depth of experience, quantitative analysis only scratches the surface of the impact of such experiences.

Implications for Practice

The findings from this study provide promising implications for educators seeking to influence levels of socially responsible leadership and support the expansion of programs like ASB, and other short-term service immersion programs on campus, as well as community service. Although the growing number of students participating in STSI programs such as ASB has been well documented, limited research existed to support their expansion. Findings from this study demonstrated that STSI participants scored significantly higher on the measure of socially responsible leadership and socio-cultural conversation participation. Additionally, the combination of STSI participation and community service participation offers educators support for those programs as intentional tools for building socially responsible leadership. Collaboration among faculty and other campus entities to incorporate STSI programs and community service into academic classes and campus programs might enhance socially responsible leadership on campus. Moreover, even a small increase in the amount of students' community service participation per month (an average of one to five hours), particularly

as part of campus or community organization, mattered in this study. As such, intentionally including community service in those types of programs could influence socially responsible leadership outcomes. Conversely, being more purposeful with the inclusion of leadership education into community service-learning and short-term service immersion programs would only enhance the important connection between leadership and service.

Further, the findings from this study reinforce the importance of high-impact practice participation, such as community service and participation in socio-cultural conversations. Interestingly, even though participants indicated completing an average of five or fewer hours of service per month, depending upon delivery format, that involvement contributed significantly to the development of socially responsible leadership. This finding reinforces the importance of including opportunities for intentional community service and involvement in formal and informal programmatic offerings, even if they are for a short duration. For example, incorporating intentional community service experiences into an orientation for positional leaders in the campus activities office or Student Government Association could be beneficial in increasing leadership capacities. The students could collectively identify a need in their community, collaborate with community leaders to address the need, serve the community in a related capacity, and reflect on the experience.

Additionally, creating opportunities for formal and informal socio-cultural conversations could also enhance leadership capacities. For example, placing table tents in residence hall lounges or dining halls with provocative questions regarding political beliefs, religious beliefs, social issues, or personal values would encourage dialogue on

topics related to the socio-cultural conversations outcomes, which was positively related to socially responsible leadership in this study. More formally, an advisor could include structured dialogues on topics related to politics, religion, social issues, values, or multiculturalism into each meeting or gathering.

Associations for higher education, such as ACPA-College Student Educators International, could use findings from this study to inform the development of a symposium or professional development program to help better prepare educators to deliver STSI and community service programs on campus. Despite the promising findings from this study, barriers to increasing STSI programs exist on campus, such as funding, timing, and faculty support. A symposium hosted by a professional association could help provide resources to combat such obstacles. Ideally, evidence such as this study can be used as a tool to justify creating, maintaining, or increasing opportunities for students to participate in STSI programs. In summary, educators are encouraged to intentionally incorporate community service into STSI and other programs on campus, collaborate with faculty and staff to increase STSI programs, and integrate socio-cultural conversations into programs. Professional associations should provide resources for student affairs educators on strategies to build strong community service and STSI programs.

Future Research

Although this study fills a gap between research and practice with regard to better understanding short-term immersion programs, such as ASB, there is much more to be understood about these types of programs. This study explored aggregate data about demographic characteristics of STSI participants. Disaggregating the data by

race/ethnicity and gender may expose conditional effects of STSI participation by group. Additionally, analyzing predictors of STSI participation that include specific pre-college and college involvement would expose patterns of those who are more likely to participate and those who are less likely to be engaged in STSI programs.

The MSL dataset is large and robust; further analyses related to other outcome variables would help further explore the effect of STSI programs. Outcome measures such as efficacy, social perspective-taking, social change behaviors, and cognitive complexity would enhance the understanding of the experience of STSI participants. Furthermore, the omnibus measure for socially responsible leadership served as the dependent variable for this study. Conducting separate analyses on the eight scales within the SRLS separately could show that STSI participation matters for specific aspects of the social change model more than others, such as commitment, citizenship, and change. Research to help better understand the ways in which STSI participation relates to socially responsible leadership through a path analysis would explore the possible indirect relationship of STSI participation and socially responsible leadership. Additionally, advanced statistical analyses such as structural equation modeling (SEM) would add to an understanding of the nature of the relationships between STSI participation and socially responsible leadership by providing insight into possible causal relationships.

Not only would further analyses with existing MSL data help to better understand the effects of short-term service immersion participation, but additions to the MSL 2015 instrument came to light through this study. The finding in this study related to the role of internship participation and socially responsibility was especially puzzling in light of

previous research. Enhancing the understanding of different types of internships through additional items on the MSL 2015 would allow for a taxonomy of internship programs to be generated. For example, disaggregating between formal internship programs and informal internship experiences would allow for important comparisons in types of programs. Similarly, better understanding the types of STSI programs through additional items would provide for a greater understanding of the program effects and help create a taxonomy of STSI programs. For example, programs could then be compared on levels of critical reflection and community service as well as the duration of the experience.

In addition to other quantitative analyses, qualitative methodologies would contribute to the understanding of the STSI participant experience to add depth to the breadth of understanding exposed in this study. A phenomenological study exploring the essence of STSI participation or an ethnographic examination of STSI groups could help researchers learn more about specific programs. The diversity of STSI programs makes comparisons and generalizability challenging. Greater understanding of types of programs, such as distinguishing between STSI programs offered for academic credit, STSI programs offered by local community organizations, and STSI programs housed in student affairs would provide more guidance for educators interested in program design. Exploring more deeply the specific program characteristics with the greatest impact would aid in that guidance. Finally, learning more about the types of pedagogy used in STSI programs would help to expand the scope of how programs could be offered on campus. For example, does the duration of time have an effect on the outcomes associated with STSI programs? Is there a difference between a weekend-long STSI program versus a weeklong ASB versus a three-week winter term program? In summary,

future research using existing MSL data as well as new studies with different methodologies will enhance the understanding of STSI involvement and program structure.

Conclusion

The understanding of the effects of STSI program participation is vast and mostly unknown. This study scratches the surface in exposing important aspects of STSI participation and its connection to socially responsible leadership. There is a large gap between research and practice related to the rapid growth of STSI programs. This study is a step toward bridging that divide and helping colleges realize their prosocial goals.
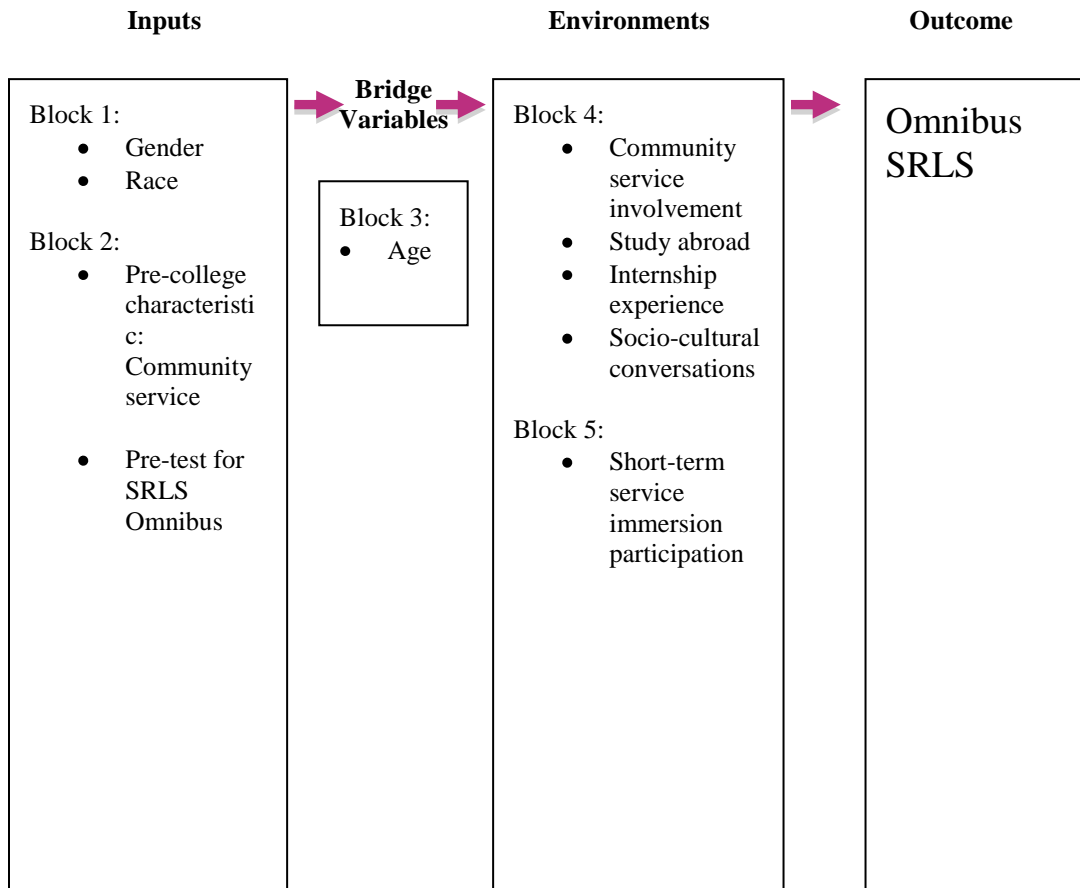
APPENDIX A: MSL 2009 PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS (U.S. only)

1. Alfred University
2. Baylor University
3. Berry College
4. Binghamton University
5. Bridgewater State College
6. Brigham Young University–Hawaii
7. Bryant University
8. Bucknell University
9. California Lutheran University
10. California State University–Sacramento
11. Clemson University
12. Colgate University
13. Colorado State University
14. Columbia College
15. Concordia College
16. Cornell College
17. CUNY Bernard M Baruch College
18. CUNY Lehman College
19. DePaul University
20. Drake University
21. Drexel University
22. Duke University
23. Elmhurst College
24. Elon University
25. Furman University
26. Gallaudet University
27. George Mason University
28. Georgia Southern University
29. Gettysburg College
30. Guilford College
31. Hamline University
32. Harvard University
33. Houghton College
34. Indiana University–Bloomington
35. Jackson State University

36. John Carroll University
37. Kansas State University
38. Loyola Marymount University
39. Loyola University Chicago
40. Mansfield University
41. Marquette University
42. Meredith College
43. Metro State College of Denver
44. Millikin University
45. Missouri Western State University
46. Monroe Community College
47. Montgomery College, Maryland
48. Moravian College
49. North Carolina Central University
50. North Carolina State University
51. Northeastern Illinois University
52. Northeastern State University
53. Northwestern University
54. Ohio University
55. Pacific Lutheran University
56. Regis University
57. Roger Williams University
58. Rollins College
59. Saint Joseph's University
60. Saint Mary's University of Minnesota
61. Samford University
62. Seattle University
63. Sonoma State University
64. Southern Methodist University
65. SUNY Geneseo
66. SUNY Potsdam
67. Temple University
68. Texas A & M University
69. Texas Christian University
70. University of Arizona
71. University of Buffalo
72. University of California–Berkeley
73. University of Central Florida

74. University of Central Oklahoma
75. University of Colorado at Boulder
76. University of Detroit Mercy
77. University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign
78. University of Iowa
79. University of Kansas
80. University of Louisville
81. University of Maryland–College Park
82. University of Massachusetts–Lowell
83. University of Minnesota
84. University of Nevada–Las Vegas
85. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
86. University of North Carolina, Greensboro
87. University of North Carolina, Wilmington
88. University of Richmond
89. University of Rochester
90. University of San Diego
91. University of San Francisco
92. University of Scranton
93. University of South Florida
94. University of Tampa
95. University of Wisconsin–La Crosse
96. University of Wisconsin–Madison
97. University of Wisconsin–Oshkosh
98. University of Wisconsin–Stevens Point
99. Wartburg College
100. Wilson College
101. Youngstown State University

APPENDIX B: I-E-O Design

Inputs   **Environments**   **Outcome**

| Block 1: |
| • Gender |
| • Race |
| |
| Block 2: |
| • Pre-college characteristic: Community service |
| |
| • Pre-test for SRLS Omnibus |

Bridge Variables

| Block 3: |
| • Age |

| Block 4: |
| • Community service involvement |
| • Study abroad |
| • Internship experience |
| • Socio-cultural conversations |
| |
| Block 5: |
| • Short-term service immersion participation |

Omnibus SRLS

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