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Symbolic Centers in the Background Or Units at the Forefront of Change? Race Specific Cultural Centers and Student Support Programs and Their Potential Impact on Students of Color

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SYMBOLIC CENTERS IN THE BACKGROUND OR UNITS AT THE FOREFRONT

OF CHANGE? RACE SPECIFIC CULTURAL CENTERS AND STUDENT SUPPORT

PROGRAMS AND THEIR POTENTIAL IMPACT ON STUDENTS OF COLOR

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

BY

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Para mis padres, Tato y Paulita Rodriguez

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the potential impact race specific cultural centers and student support programs (CCSSPs) have on the leadership development of students of color. Data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership was used to answer two primary questions. The two primary questions focused on the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership outcomes and the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices. The analytic approach utilized "effect size" methodology while also conducting sample t-tests to compare means between CCSSP users and non-users and chi-square analysis for relationships between dependent categorical variables.

No findings emerged for leadership outcomes for the sample as a whole. Meaningful differences in the rates of participation in sociocultural conversations, faculty and staff mentoring, identity-based student organizations and multicultural Greek-letter organizations were found for CCSSP users in the aggregate. The same analyses were conducted after disaggregating the data by race and numerous unique differences for all three racial groups of color who utilized CCSSPs were discovered with leadership outcomes and high-impact leadership practices.

This study sets the foundation for future leadership studies that focus on college students of color. It also provides the context for analyzing centers charged with assisting a growing student population of color. The findings of this study highlight the importance of disaggregating data by race for more meaningful and concise information that can help inform appropriate practices for student affairs professionals.

CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXT AND PROBLEM

On October 4, 2014, the NBC show called Saturday Night Live (SNL) aired a comedic and satirical segment that poked fun at the continual population shift in this country. The skit called on all White people to come together and enjoy the last days of White dominance. Aside from it being a funny and entertaining piece, SNL touched upon a real and important demographic change that is bound to have a significant sociopolitical impact nationally. By the year 2047, people of color (e.g., African Americans, Asian Americans, Latinos, and people of Middle Eastern background) are expected to become the majority (U.S. Census, 2010). At the forefront of this change is higher education. If colleges and universities are to uphold their original promise of developing society's leaders (Thelin, 2004), it is pertinent that policies and practices reflect the needs of a continually diverse student population.

This chapter introduces a study that looks at the potential impact of race-specific cultural centers and student support programs (CCSSPs), which are important vehicles for serving the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. The study begins with a statement of the problem that includes a brief history of higher education as it relates to communities of color. The purpose, rationale, significance, and a brief summary of research methods follow. Definitions of key terms and concepts are also provided.

Statement of Problem

Higher education in the United States was originally created in the colonial period by the Puritans as a way to develop the sons of affluent White merchants into the next generation of leaders in society (Altbach, Berdahl, & Gumport, 2005; Rudolph, 1990; Thelin, 2004). They remained institutions that almost exclusively served affluent White men for almost 500 years (Thelin, 2004). A number of historical events ranging from the Supreme Court's *Brown v. Board of Education* decision to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 increased the presence of women and students of color on campuses across the U.S. Higher education, however, was not prepared for the large influx. Students of color viewed the environment in their institutions as inhospitable and isolating (MacDonald, Botti, & Clark, 2007; Patton, 2010; Stewart, 2011). Their discontent was felt at even the most liberal institutions, which resulted in a movement that challenged the status quo (Williamson, 1999). The lack of preparedness by higher education served as the impetus for the student movements of the 1970s, which led to the creation of CCSSPs (Kerr, 1991; Patton, 2005, 2006, 2010; Thelin, 2004; Young, 1986).

Enrollment increases among students of color that first began in the late 1960s are forecasted to continue for the next 30 years (Hussar & Bailey, 2011; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). By as early as the year 2020, the number of African and Asian American students is expected to increase by 25% while Latina/o students are projected to lead the influx with a 46% increase (Hussar & Bailey, 2011; U.S. Census, 2010). Despite their larger numbers on college campuses, attrition rates among students of color are high when compared to their White peers (e.g., 2008 bachelor degree attainment rates were 67% for

White students and 9% for African American students; Kim, 2011). If higher education is to honor its original commitment of preparing future leaders (Thelin, 2004) and answer more recent calls to refocus attention and resources back to college student leadership development (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AACU], 2007; Komives et al., 2011; National Association of Student Personnel Administrators [NASPA] and American College Personnel Association [ACPA], 2004), it is imperative that the needs of students of color be immediately addressed.

One of the tools that colleges and universities have historically relied on for addressing the needs of students of color is a CCSSP (Gandara, 2005; Patton, 2010). These units may differ in structure, campus placement, and even approach, but they all share the same purpose: to address the academic and personal development needs of students they serve (Council for the Advancement of Standards [CAS], 2009; Gandara, 2005; Patton, 2010; Stewart, 2011; Young, 1986). Despite their potential impact on an increasingly important student demographic, empirical studies on how CCSSPs affect students of color are virtually non-existent (Patton, 2010).

The body of literature that is available on CCSSPs is limited to publications that are historical and/or anecdotal in nature (Patton, 2006, 2010). The lack of research makes it difficult to understand the effectiveness of CCSSPs on student leadership development. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is to address this gap in knowledge by answering the following two research questions:

1. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership development outcomes for students of color?

2. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?

<div align="center">**Definition of Terms and Concepts**</div>

Throughout this study, many distinct terms and concepts are used that warrant defining. Many terms are closely related or commonly used interchangeably with other similar but different terms and concepts. Therefore, the following is a brief summary of key terms and concepts and their definitions related to this study.

Defining Leadership

Leadership theories are often grouped under one of two schools of thought: industrial (starting in the mid-1880s; Stogdill, 1974) and postindustrial (starting in the late 1960s; Rost, 1991). Theories under the industrial paradigm are based on a more leader-centric, positional, and hierarchical perspective (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991). Leadership is therefore individualistic and meant to be practiced by only those with certain traits or qualities (e.g., height, personality, intelligence; Northouse, 2010). These industrial theories of leadership mirror the perspectives of their time, which reflected more male-centered and structural approaches. A new paradigm, known as the postindustrial period of leadership, began to offer more inclusive frameworks grounded in collaboration, shared relationships, and social justice (Komives & Dugan, 2010; Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991).

For this study, the general concept of leadership is defined by using the more contemporary postindustrial perspective. As such, leadership is an inclusive, teachable, and shared process that is fundamentally responsible for the greater social good (Kezar,

Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Northouse, 2010). The concept of leadership development builds on this perspective and is defined as a collaborative learning process where engaged individuals move from simple to more complex ways of understanding leadership (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Maniella, & Osteen, 2005).

Within the postindustrial leadership paradigm exists a small but growing group of theories that focus explicitly on college students. One example is the social change model (SCM) of leadership development (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009) which is the primary theoretical framework for this study. The SCM was created by a large team of leadership educators and scholars who set out to address the need for a model that applied directly to a diverse college student population. The model emphasizes leadership as a collective, collaborative, values-based, and service-focused process.

The SCM posits that leadership development is a purposeful and collaborative process that occurs across seven interactive core values (Komives et al., 2009). These seven core values (i.e., *consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship*) are interrelated and they function within three interactive clusters; *individual, group,* and *society* or *community* (Komives et al., 2009). An eighth value, *change*, is not considered within any of the three domains but is the primary outcome resulting from the belief in, practice of, and interaction between the other seven values (HERI, 1996).

The concept of leadership development in general is considered to consist of multiple domains that have a direct influence on one's overarching leadership ability (Dugan, 2012). The following is a brief description of key leadership domains related to this study.

Leadership efficacy. Leadership efficacy is derived from Bandura's (1997) work on self-efficacy and it can sometimes be confused with leadership capacity. It is described as an individual's belief in their ability to enact their perceived leadership capacity (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; McCormick, Tanguma, & López-Forment, 2002). Self-efficacy is considered to be the primary predictor for capacity because it moderates whether or not a person will act on their belief as a leader (Dugan, Kodama, & Gebhardt, 2012). This makes sense since most individuals will avoid tasks that they believe they cannot accomplish.

Leadership capacity. Leadership capacity is described as an individual's ability to effectively engage in leadership behaviors based on their knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Day et al., 2009). In the context of higher education, it can be thought of as "a student's enacted leadership beliefs, style, and approach" (Dugan, 2011, p. 61). The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS; Tyree, 1998), developed from the socially responsible leadership theory, is an example of how capacity was measured for this study. A detailed description of the scale and the theoretical model is provided in chapters two and three.

Resiliency. In general, resiliency is defined as an individual's stress coping abilities or personal qualities that enable them to manage adversity (Connor & Davison,

2003). For students of color, it is related to "the ability to reject stereotype threat, and/ or successful navigation of hostile climates; necessary skills associated with navigating predominantly White leadership contexts that often situate Whiteness as normative" (Dugan et al., 2012, p. 12). Resiliency is considered an important factor in leadership development for students of color (Dugan et al., 2012; Ospina & Foldy, 2009; Revilla, 2004).

Social perspective-taking. Social perspective-taking (SPT) is defined as a higher-order cognitive skill reflected by an individual's ability to take on another person's perspective and accurately infer their thoughts and feelings (Dey & Associates, 2010; Dugan, Kodama, Correia, & Associates, 2013; Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005; Gehlbach, 2004; Johnson, 1975). SPT is believed to significantly affect intellectual and moral development (Avolio, 2010). More importantly, SPT is considered an important mediator to leadership capacity and an important tool for extending the benefits of social coordination and leadership development (Dugan et al., 2013).

Defining High-impact Leadership Practices

The above leadership domains or outcomes (i.e., efficacy, capacity, resiliency, social perspective-taking) have been linked to high-impact practices that students may engage in during college. The following is a brief description of the high-impact leadership practices that are highlighted in the present study.

Involvement on- and off-campus. Involvement on campus will focus on two high-impact practices. First is general student organization experiences and the second is identity-based organization involvement. Student organization involvement (e.g.,

membership, positional leadership roles) acts as significant predictors of leadership development for college students in general (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, 2006; Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Involvement in identity-based organizations, conversely, has been associated with a greater influence on leadership development for students of color (Cokley, 2001; Flowers, 2004; Fries-Britt, 2000; Guardia & Evans, 2008; Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Inkelas; 2004; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001). For off-campus involvement, this study focused on activities outside of their campus or membership in organizations that are not directly linked to the student's college or university (e.g., sports club, church group, parent-teacher association, union).

Sociocultural conversations. Sociocultural conversation is defined as a discourse or set of interactions between peers across socio and cultural issues. Dugan and Komives (2007) described it as interactions where students talk about "different lifestyles, multiculturalism and diversity, major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice…with students whose political opinions or personal values were very different from their own" (p. 14). Studies indicated that sociocultural conversations have a significant impact on leadership and racial identity development for college students (Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Harper, 2006a; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Liang, Lee, & Ting, 2002; Nuñez, 2009; Ospina & Foldy 2009; Ospina & Su, 2009).

Mentorship experiences. For this study, mentorship is defined as experiences where someone invested time to help the student develop personally or professionally. Three types of mentoring experiences are identified in this study. The first is faculty

mentorship, which has differing effects on students of color (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Thompson, 2006). The next two categories, staff mentoring and peer mentoring, demonstrate a more consistent positive relationship with leadership development for students of color (Bordes & Arredondo, 2005; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

Community service. Community service is defined as activities both on- and off-campus that are done for the purpose of serving a greater good. Moreover, community service was viewed as attempting to address some form of community, social, or environmental need. Community service in general has also been found as a significant positive predictor of leadership in studies that included students of color (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Sutton & Terell, 1997).

Understanding Race and Leadership

For the purpose of this study, race is defined as an individual's identity derived from their perceived membership in a socially recognized racial/ethnic group (e.g., African American, Latino; Cokley, 2007; Helms & Cook, 1999; Phinney, 1996). Race is considered as a key determinant of social mobility and social identity development (Ospina & Su, 2009). It is a socially constructed concept recognized as necessitating further review in terms of its relationship with and influence on leadership (Chin, 2010; Day et al., 2009; Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Komives et al., 2009; Ospina & Foldy, 2009).

Defining CCSSPs

CCSSPs are race-specific cultural centers and student support programs charged with addressing the needs of their specific target group of color. The purpose of this study is to look at the potential impact independent cultural centers and student support programs that target only one racial group of color have on their students. This is an important distinction because it means that multicultural programs are not considered as CCSSPs because their focus may not exclusively be on serving one group of color but rather a number of underserved populations. More specifically, this study focused on the potential impact that race-specific interventions have on the leadership development of the target student population, which may differ from more common one-size-fits-all approaches found in settings where multiple racial groups are being served.

<div align="center">

Significance of Study

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This study is significant for at least five reasons. First, findings help fill a gap in knowledge regarding the potential impact CCSSPs have on the leadership development of the students they serve. Many CCSSPs have been in existence for more than 40 years, yet no studies exist regarding the impact they have on the students who use their centers (Patton, 2010). Studies show that leadership development differs by racial groups (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013) and that the college environment matters (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar, 2009). Additionally, studies that look at the impact of identity-based organizations have found that providing racially and culturally sensitive safe spaces help students persevere in their college environment (Guardia & Evans, 2008; Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn &

Ozaki, 2010; Wong, 2011). While CCSSPs are not the same as identity-based student organizations, research would assist in establishing whether a similar effect exists.

The second reason this study is significant is that it will help build on the knowledge of leadership development for students of color. While studies of leadership that explicitly look at, purposely include, or disaggregate data by racial group exist (e.g., Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Dugan et al., 2012, Kodama & Dugan, 2013), more are needed to address inconsistencies in findings and to expand the knowledge base where information is limited. This study serves an important role in adding to the foundation of knowledge for future research of leadership for students of color.

Third, this study helps student affairs educators and administrators enhance their practices to better serve an increasingly expanding student population of color. In recent years, many institutions have focused much attention on university-wide diversity initiatives and the creation of chief diversity officer positions (Iverson, 2010). Most of these positions report to areas that are not within student affairs yet a significant part of their responsibilities include making policies and other decisions that impact students of color and student affairs as a whole. Having an understanding of the effectiveness of CCSSPs will not only help student affairs educators enhance their practices, but it can also better equip them to support or address concerns regarding proposed changes to campus practices.

The fourth significance is this study's potential to enhance the emerging professionalism in the field of leadership education. Dugan (2011) described the evolution of leadership education as having moved from a "fragmented set of atheoretical

(even antitheoretical), uncoordinated activities with little common language or practices to a field with established theoretical frames, conceptual models, standards of practice, and diverse pedagogical strategies" (p. 3). The conceptual and theoretical frameworks, along with the use of terms used in this study, come from previously published literature on leadership thus increasing their validity and the possibility that established peers in the field will integrate results into professional practice.

The final significance for this study is its potential contribution to helping students of color in their leadership development. It matters that students of color become leaders because the demographic shifts at the national level and on our campuses make it a priority that can directly impact society's future (Chang, Milem, & Antonio, 2010). Higher education has an opportunity to influence leadership capacities for students of color during a time in their lives where they are known for heightened development potential (Komives et al., 2005). Purposeful development of their leadership capacities will in turn enhance their efficacy, resiliency, social perspective-taking, academic performance, racial identity, and ability to impact social change (Dugan et al., 2012; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). This makes looking at the potential impact of CCSSPs on students' of color leadership development not only necessary but socially responsible.

Method Overview

The following two primary questions guided the study:

1. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership development outcomes for students of color?

2. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of

    color in high-impact leadership practices?

To answer these questions, data were drawn from the 2012 Multi-Institutional Study of

Leadership (MSL). The MSL is an international research project created to examine the

impact of the higher education experience on college student leadership development and

leadership outcomes (MSL, 2012). The data in the overall MSL study represent more

than 80 institutions from the United States. The dataset for this dissertation drew from a

single university that participated in the 2012 cycle of MSL. Aside choosing a university

that offered separate race-specific CCSSPs targeting African American, Asian American,

Latina/o, and Native American students, the selection of the institution was also based on

a number of other unique factors and recognitions, most important of which was its

diverse student population where no single racial group comprised a majority and its

designation as a Minority, Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander, and

Hispanic-Serving Institution (MSI, AANAPISI, and HSI).

      The school is a large, four-year, public, primarily nonresidential, research 1

institution. The enrollment figures for the year of the present study totaled more than

27,000 students including 17,000 undergraduates. Students of color comprised slightly

more than 55% of the total undergraduate population during the year in which data were

collected. The school followed the MSL study protocol by inviting a randomly drawn

sample of 4,000 undergraduate students to participate in the survey. Researchers

determined this size based on a desired 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of

±3 or better for overall and subgroup analyses.

The MSL uses a cross-sectional research design that relies on self-reported student data. Two additional questions were added to the local 2012 MSL instrument to be used specifically for this dissertation. The questions were:

1. To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following offices at [institution name]: [student support office names inserted]?

2. To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following cultural centers at [institution name]: [cultural center names inserted]?

The self-reported scores were collected using a web-based instrument that employs appropriate standards of quantitative, cross-sectional survey design (Crawford, McCabe, & Pope, 2005; Groves et al., 2004).

The analytic approach for this study utilized an "effect size" methodology in order to best quantify this type of review (Wilkinson et al., 1999). Effect size methodology goes beyond looking at differences and provides the magnitude of an effect (American Psychological Association, 1994 & 2010; Field, 2005) which can prove to be much more insightful than simply testing for statistical significance alone. Calculations included samples t-tests to compare means between CCSSP users and non-users and chi-square analysis for relationships between dependent variables. Effect size analyses were conducted using Cohen's (1988) descriptive measure (i.e., d) for standardized differences between two means.

Chapter Summary

CCSSPs maintain they have played a significant role in the college experience of students of color for the last 40 years (Patton, 2010). Others disagree and claim they only

serve to quiet the politically-connected liberals across the country (Hu-DeHart, 2000; Iverson, 2007). This study helps inform the debate by looking at the potential impact CCSSPs have on the rate of participation in high-impact leadership practices and on leadership development outcomes of the students they serve. This is accomplished through the use of a reliable and comprehensive quantitative-based international study.

Linkages between CCSSP core features and existing studies in college student leadership are made in chapter two in order to demonstrate how the results of this study have the potential to enhance the literature. Special attention is given to literature that focuses on the leadership development of students of color. The study utilized data from the MSL, which is an internationally recognized research project with citations in many respected peer-reviewed journals adding credibility to the results. The research method followed empirically sound quantitative approaches to answer the two primary research questions.

The results of the study are significant for a number of reasons. First, it helps fill a gap in knowledge regarding the potential impact CCSSPs have on students of color. Second, it builds on the knowledge of leadership development for students of color. The third reason is that the study helps student affairs educators better serve students by providing evidence to support their work. Fourth, this study helps enhance the emerging professionalism in the field of leadership education. Finally, this study addresses the importance of students of color becoming leaders.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary purpose of higher education has long been the development of our society's next generation of leaders, yet studies that focus on college student leadership development did not begin in earnest until the 1990s (Dugan, 2011; Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008; Komives, 2011; Thelin, 2004). Originally viewed as a concept that was unteachable, positional, and reserved for a select few in society in the early 20th century, today's perspective on leadership has evolved to consider the phenomena as a process that is learnable, values-based, and socially constructed (Komives et al., 2009; Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991). As a social construction, it is important to also consider the potential influence of other social constructions, such as race. Not only is race still considered a key determinant of social mobility and social identity development (Ospina & Su, 2009), but research increasingly produces evidence of its potential impact on leadership development (Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

Leadership development and the influence of race on leadership serve as the theoretical foundation for the review of how CCSSPs potentially impact students of color. The following literature review provides an overview of leadership theories, studies on leadership, and a synthesis of works that examine the impact of race. Included in the review is a brief description of the common core features found within CCSSPs.

The chapter concludes with the establishment of potential linkages between leadership

outcomes and predictors of leadership with some of the common core features of

CCSSPs.

Leadership Development

The evolution of leadership theories can be categorized into two distinct schools

of thought: the industrial (starting in the mid-1880s; Stogdill, 1974) and postindustrial

(starting in the late 1960s) periods (Rost, 1991). The industrial paradigm is predicated on

a more leader-centric, positional, and hierarchical perspective (Bass, 1990; Northouse,

2010; Rost, 1991). Leadership is viewed as individualistic and reserved for a select few

who are thought to possess certain traits or qualities (e.g., height, personality,

intelligence; Northouse, 2010). Individuals who are in positions of power over others are

also included in this perspective regardless of their demographic memberships,

personality, or perceived intelligence (Northouse, 2010).

The evolution of industrial theories is considered to have started with great man

theories (1800's to 1900s; i.e., leaders are born), followed by trait theories (early to mid-

1900s; i.e., leaders have innate traits), behavioral theories (1950s to 1980s; i.e., effective

leaders behave in specific ways), situational/contingency theories (1950s to 1960s; i.e.,

leaders emerge depending on situation), and theories that consider the leader's ability to

influence others (1920s to 1970s; i.e., charisma is required in order for leaders to

influence; Rost, 1991). These theories reflected society at the time, which associated

leadership with more masculine and structural perspectives. The postindustrial period of

leadership (post 1970s) began to offer new and more inclusive frameworks (Komives &

Dugan, 2010; Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991). The following is a brief overview of some

theoretical models of leadership under the postindustrial paradigm.

Postindustrial Theoretical Models of Leadership

While aspects of the industrial perspective of leadership are important and still

utilized today, postindustrial models are credited with providing the foundation for more

contemporary theories including those that focus on college student leadership (Rost,

1991). Therefore, this comprehensive review focuses on the evolution of the

postindustrial leadership paradigm followed by an overview of college student leadership

theories.

Servant leadership. Greenleaf (1977) asserted that service to others or taking

care of followers' needs was the primary responsibility of a leader. Placing followers at

the forefront was a significant change in perspective at the time. According to Greenleaf

(1977), leadership involves building communities, sharing the decision-making process,

and empowering followers in general. The servant leadership model was originally

intended as a way of life or a recommended approach to work environments where a

leader is viewed as answering a call for social change; a call to help followers grow to

become wiser, freer, and more autonomous (Greenleaf, 1977). Many of these elements

resonate with colleges and universities, which has led to its wide use in many formal

leadership programs (Dugan & Komives, 2011). Notwithstanding its introduction of a

number of key postindustrial elements of leadership, the model has been criticized as

being leader-centric in nature (Dugan & Komives, 2011; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010).

Transformational leadership. Similar to servant leadership, transformational leadership focuses on the work of the leader. Transformational leadership is regarded as one of the fundamental theoretical concepts of the postindustrial paradigm (Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991). The concept began with sociologist James MacGregor Burns (1978) and later by the expanded work of Bass (1985, 1998). Transforming leadership, as Burns first called it, is much like servant leadership in that it claims that leaders exist for the primary purpose of assessing and meeting the needs and motives of followers to achieve a set of mutual goals (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2010). A transforming leader leads by "near-universal ethical principles of justice equality of human rights and respect of individual dignity" (Burns, 1978, p. 42). Thus, leadership is viewed as a shared and values-based process where both leaders and followers are said to experience an uplifting effect or a transformation.

Bass (1985, 1998) created a similar but distinct theoretical framework called transformational leadership. Burns (1978) focused on social change through moral elevation while Bass (1985, 1998) looked at reaching attainable goals within an organizational setting (Yukl, 2010). In Bass's (1985) model, a distinction was made between transforming and transactional leaders. Transforming leaders help followers transcend personal interests to consider the interests and needs of the group. Followers also recognize higher-order needs and they realize the importance of task outcomes (Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership, conversely, refers to behaviors that help clarify expectations so that followers stay on task to achieve a desired award. Both models, however, are considered to have been retrofitted from their original organizational

management focus rather than having been truly conceptualized to reflect the evolving and more inclusive nature of postindustrial perspectives (Komives & Dugan, 2010).

Authentic leadership. Stemming from the transformational leadership perspective, authentic leadership is a fairly new theoretical model that is based in positive psychology and humanist philosophy (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Kezar et al., 2006). Authentic leadership is considered both a root construct able to be practiced in conjunction with other forms of leadership and its own distinct theoretical model because of its personal-growth elements (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Northouse, 2010). The increased focus on leaders caring for followers along with recent atrocities and large-scale fraudulent acts (e.g., 9/11 destruction, Enron corruption, Lehman Brothers failure, and Bernard Madoff's ponzi scheme), has drawn much attention to the character of those involved in the leadership process (Northouse, 2010). Overall, authentic leadership is much like transformational leadership in that it is a shared process of mutual development through positive and supportive behaviors. The model, however, does not focus on college environments but rather on organizational settings (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ciulla, 2004; Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, Wernsing, & Gardner, 2008; Wheatley, 2006) and while it may be applicable in a college setting, it is still considered to be fairly new and untested (Komives & Dugan, 2010; Northouse, 2010).

College Student Leadership Development

Higher education first began to focus intentionally on student leadership in the 1990s by either adopting existing organizational theories or by creating models exclusively for college students (Avolio et al., 2005; Dugan et al., 2008; Northouse,

2010; Rost, 1991; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Most of these models focus on values and emphasize social justice through reciprocal relationships, collaboration, and collectivism (Avolio et al., 2005). The following is a summary of key theoretical models that were conceptualized for college student leadership development.

Leadership challenge. Kouzes and Posner's (1988, 2007) leadership challenge is considered to be one of the most applied models of leadership development for college students (Komives, 2011). Originating from the corporate sector, Kouzes and Posner (1988, 2007) built their model off of Burns's (1978) work and identified five learnable exemplary practices of leadership. The five practices include: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, encourage the heart, and enable others to act. The overall model enables individuals to recognize their contributions to the leadership process regardless of their specific role.

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory (SLPI; Posner 2004; Posner & Brodsky, 1992) was developed to measure and directly apply the leadership challenge model to college students. More concisely, SPLI is a leadership assessment tool that gauges individual leadership competences. Empirical studies using SLPI measures have demonstrated support for participation in long-term formalized leadership programs (e.g., Posner 2004, 2009). SLPI and the leadership challenge model are considered to be part of the postindustrial theoretical family because of their process orientation, collaborative approach, and focus on values and social justice. Northouse (2010), however, reminds us that the model dictates fixed behaviors, and its focus is not on followers but rather the leader. Additionally, the model can be interpreted as requiring that all five behaviors be

achieved before a leader can be considered effective. The practice of challenging the process, for example, may not always be necessary or well received because it implies that all aspects of society operate from the same social rules. Finally, research from SLPI continues to suggest that gender and race do not play a role in shaping leadership (Posner, 2004), and this runs counter to other emergent research (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan et al., 2012).

Relational leadership. The relational leadership model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998, 2007, 2013) is another example of a college-student focused framework that emphasizes reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers. This model underscores the nature of relationships, which are considered the building blocks in working with others to make a difference and to accomplish change (Komives et al., 2013). The model espouses six foundational principles where leadership: is a concern of all of us, is viewed and valued differently by various disciplines and cultures, is not static and must continually relate to shared problems, can be exhibited in many ways, can be learned and developed, and must be committed to ethical action in order to encourage change and social responsibility. Leadership development is enhanced when three basic principles of reciprocal relationship engagement are followed: *knowing* (i.e., yourself, how change occurs and why and how others reach their perspectives), *being* (i.e., ethical, principled, authentic, caring, open, inclusive) and *doing* (i.e., act on your passions and commitments in socially responsible ways). Despite its creation exclusively for college students, it is not applicable to this study because it lacks empirical support. To date,

there is no significant research supporting the model despite its utility as a conceptual framework.

Social change model. Preceding all previous college student models is the social change model (SCM) of leadership (HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 2009). SCM was created by a team of leadership educators and scholars who set out to address the need for a leadership model that applied directly to a diverse college student population. This model emphasizes leadership as a collective, collaborative, values-based, and service-focused process. It provides for the inclusion of non-traditional leaders who are active agents of positive social change but may not be serving in traditional leadership roles or in formal leadership positions. This perspective, along with other features of the model, makes it an appropriate theoretical model for the current study. The following is a more detailed overview of SCM along with empirical findings that support its use for a review of how CCSSPs potentially impact students of color (see Figure 1).

SCM posits that leadership development is a purposeful and collaborative process that occurs across seven core values (Komives et al., 2009). These seven core values (seven C's) are believed to be interactive and interrelated, and they function within three interactive clusters; individual, group, and society or community (Komives et al., 2009). An eighth value, change, is not considered within any of the three domains but is the primary outcome resulting from the belief in, practice of, and interaction between the seven C's (HERI, 1996). Figure 1 provides a graphic representation of the model.

Figure 1. Graphic representation of the social change model of leadership.
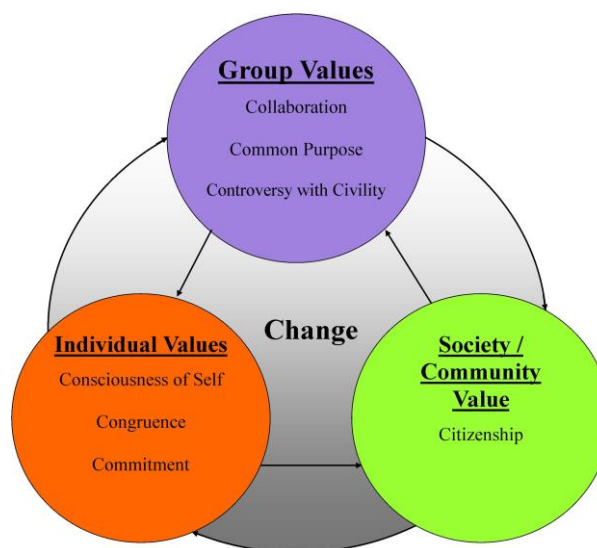
Within the individual domain, leadership requires having an understanding of

one's own personal beliefs, attitudes, and emotions, which are often accomplished,

among other ways, through introspection and continual self-reflection. This value is

called *consciousness of self.* Acting in accordance with these self-actualized qualities is

the second value called *congruence*. A leader is considered congruent when followers

witness actions and behaviors that are consistent with what the leader espouses. Closely

tied to congruence is *commitment*, or a leader who demonstrates high levels of

involvement, follow-though, and reliability; someone with passion, energy, or purposeful

investment that leads to positive social change.

The values under the group domain include *collaboration, common purpose,* and

controversy with civility. *Collaboration* includes collective contributions from all

members, shared authority, responsibility, and accountability and for individuals to

engage across differences (Komives et al., 2009). To be an effective positive social

change agent, there must be a joint effort toward a *common purpose*. The value of

controversy with civility is described as the healthy practice of participating in a civil discourse where different viewpoints are openly shared, discussed, understood, and integrated into the creative solution process.

The third domain, community, encompasses the value of *citizenship*. Citizenship is described as becoming connected to one's community (i.e., internal or external to institution) and demonstrating a commitment to change for the benefit of others. Actively engaging in service and community involvement are examples of citizenship.

The eighth core value is *change* or positive social change. Komives et al. (2009) defines change as acts that attempt to improve the human condition or care of the environment. Leadership for social change aims to alter the world toward a more desirable future by recognizing a common purpose that incorporates a sense of concern for the interests and the rights of all that might be affected.

The Influence of Race on Leadership

Scholars increasingly agree that social justice or social change is a central component, as well as a critical outcome, of leadership (Astin & Astin, 2000; Komives et al., 2009; Preskill & Brookfield, 2009). Race is one of the most influential factors of oppression in society and is also increasingly recognized as an important intersect with leadership. The intersection of race and leadership warrants further review (Chin, 2010; Day et al., 2009; Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Komives et al., 2009; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Understanding influences of race is particularly important in the higher education arena. Adding to the urgency are current figures and projected increases in racially diverse college student populations coupled with studies indicating that

students interpret their educational environments differently (Astin, 1993b; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Posner, 2004). The following section provides a brief review of racial identity theories in order to better understand how the development of one's racial identity potentially impacts leadership development.

Racial and Social Identity Development

Models that focus on racial identity development first began to surface in the 1970s (Cross, 1971; Helms, 1984; Phinney, 1996). Racial identity theories examine one's sense of belonging to a racial group and the impact that sense of belonging may have on individuals (Rotheram & Phinney, 1987). Phinney (1996) explained that "ethnic identity involves an emphasis on how group members themselves understand and interpret their own ethnicity" (p. 143). Many theorists suggest that groups of color must acknowledge and address the historical effects of exclusion before a healthy self-concept can be achieved. The following is a brief overview of some of the most relevant racial identity development theories, along with models that are exclusive to specific groups of color.

African American identity. The 1970s marked the inception of African American racial identity theories (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010; Helms, 1990). In reaction to centuries of racism, some models focused on assimilation and acceptance of White culture as a way to a healthy self-esteem (Jackson & Kirschner; 1973; Vontress, 1971) while others viewed the embracement, acceptance, and development of Black identity as necessary for a positive self-concept (Cross, 1971; Thomas, 1971). One of the most widely used models is a stage-based theory by Cross (1971, 1991) and Cross and Fhagen-Smith (2001). Originally created as a five-stage

model of *Nigrescence* (i.e., the process of becoming Black or African American; Cross 1971), it was later revised and made into a three pattern, six sector framework (Cross & Fhagen-Smith, 2001). The original five stages included *pre-encounter* (i.e., internalized Eurocentric values), *encounter* (i.e., a shift of one's self-perception and social outlook from Eurocentric to Black values), *immersion – emersion* (i.e., anti-White pro-Black), *internalization* (i.e., sustainable, positive, and healthy Black identity), and *commitment* (i.e., active agent for positive social change). The model, however, assumed that all Black people experience society or are socialized in the same way.

In 1991, Cross published *Shades of Black: Diversity in African American Identity* in which he decreased the five stages to four (i.e., internalization and commitment stages were combined into one) and added three core concepts of racial identity development (i.e., personal identity, reference group orientation, and race salience). This revised model addressed criticism of the original model that appeared to make stagnant and dichotomist assumptions about Black identity development. Instead, the revised model allowed for varying degrees of race saliency. The model was enhanced again in 2001 (Cross & Fhagen-Smith) to include other comprehensive life patterns. Aside from allowing for individuals to recycle various stages within life patterns, the 2001 model introduced the concept of individuals who never experience Nigrescence. The continued change to the Nigrescence model, coupled with the disparate approaches in the previously mentioned frameworks, demonstrates the complexity of Black identity.

Asian American identity. Complexity in racial identity development is not limited to African Americans. For Asian Americans, racial identity involves addressing

issues around external and in-group racism, the lack of a common language, diverse

cultural values, significantly different immigration experiences, and social stereotypes

such as the model minority (Alvarez, 2002; Chan, 1991; Kibria, 1999; Kodama,

McEwen, Lian, & Lee, 2001; Lee, 1994; Museus & Kiang, 2009; Museus & Park, 2015).

Scholars suggest caution when approaching Asian American identity as solely a

panethnic or homogeneous construct (Alvarez, 2002; Kibria, 1999, 2002; Kodama,

2014). Despite this complexity, the most commonly used racial identity model continues

to be the work of Jean Kim (1981, 2001).

According to Kim (1981, 2001), Asian American identity development occurs

across five distinct stages that are designed to be progressive and sequential in nature.

The stages include *ethnic awareness* (i.e., identity-based on family or community), *White

identification* (i.e., rejection of Asian culture and assimilation into White identity),

awakening to social political consciousness (i.e., rejection of White superiority and

beginning of social activism), *redirection to Asian American consciousness* (i.e., sense of

pride in Asian identity), and *incorporation* (i.e., post immersion confidence in Asian

identity). The model used a sample of only 10 women, all of whom were of Japanese

background. While informative, the model must be used in the context of a continually

changing demographic which reflects a shift from a predominantly Japanese and Chinese

group to one that is more Korean, Philippine, and Vietnamese.

Latina/o identity. Similar to Asian Americans, Latinas/os represent many

continually changing racial and ethnic groups (e.g., Honduran, Salvadorian, Puerto Rican,

Mexican, Cuban). There are a number of theoretical models and research studies that

focus on Latina/o student development. Some examples include the four C's of Latino

Leadership (i.e., *character, competence, compassion, community servanthood*; Ramirez,

2006), Keefe and Padilla's (1987) typology of Mexican American ethnic orientation,

Torres's (1999) bi-cultural orientation model, and the cultural identity scale by Felix-

Ortiz de la Garza, Newcomb, and Myers (1994). A fourth example, the Latino identity

development model (LIDM) by Ferdman and Gallegos (2001) and later updated in 2012

(Gallegos & Ferdman), focuses on how Latina/os see themselves, ethnically rather than

as a racial group. .

LIDM posits six orientations of Latina/o identity in the United States that are not

sequential or exclusive. The first three orientations are *Latino-integrated* (i.e., a healthy,

holistic Latina/o self-concept open to integration with other social identities), *Latino-*

identified (i.e., strong Latina/o pride with rejection of U.S. racial constructs), and

subgroup-identified (i.e., rejection of Latina/o panethnicity, Latina/o subgroup seen as

superior over others). The model avoids the use of stages and includes the following three

orientations: *Latinos as others* (i.e., unaware of their Latina/o heritage but still connect

with other groups of color solely based on physical attributes), *undifferentiated/denial*

(i.e., colorblind ideology, no connection to Latinas/os, racism is not recognized and

dominant culture is embraced but not fully accepted), and *White-identified* (i.e., full

adaptation of White racial identity where all other groups are seen as inferior). One of the

challenges to the original model, which was later addressed in the 2012 version, was its

consideration of social factors such as how membership in distinct or multiple ethnic

groups and social identities relates to Latina/o identity development—a theme across most groups of color.

Native American identity. In-group diversity is perhaps most prevalent with Native Americans. Approximately 500 tribes are officially recognized in the United States (Brayboy & Castagno, 2011; LaCounte, 1987), but according to a not-for-profit organization that collects American Indian information, their unofficial count is closer to 749 (Redish, 2011). Racial identity development within the Native American community requires attention to issues around colonization, racism, languages, culture, and most importantly, tribal sovereignty (Evans et al., 2010). Sovereignty is the level of autonomy and independence granted to a particular tribe by the federal government. Despite their enormous diversity, there have been some racial identity models developed that include LaFromboise, Trimble, and Mohatt's (1990) five categories of "Indianness", Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, and Robbins (1995) four health personalities to acculturation, and most recently, the five factors of influence on American Indian consciousness by Horse (2001).

In Horse's (2001) model, the focus is on five factors that influence "individual and group consciousness as either tribal people or as American Indians" (p. 100). The first factor is *how well one is grounded in their native language and culture,* which establishes the foundation of who the person is. The second is *whether or not one's genealogical heritage as an American Indian is valid* as evidenced by one's upbringing. "*Whether one embraces a general philosophy or worldview that derives from distinctly Indian ways, that is, old traditions*" (Horse, 2001, p. 100) is the third factor. Similarly, the fourth factor considers the degree to which a person thinks of herself or himself as an

Indian person. Official membership recognition by one's tribe is the final factor that, according to Horse (2001), is an important factor in the development of Native American identity. The model is often cited as a racial identity model, but the author cautions against its use as such. He instead prefers that, because of the vast tribal diversity, it be considered as a framework for understanding Native American development (Evans et al., 2010; Horse, 2005).

In summary, racial identity development in a college setting is cited as an important factor in fostering a positive educational environment (Torres, Jones, & Renn, 2009). As a socially constructed phenomenon, race continues to influence leadership development (Dugan et al., 2014; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Race is considered in this study by focusing on research related to the potential impact of CCSSPs on the leadership development of individual racial groups of color. The following is a brief discussion of relevant literature on race and leadership.

Race and Leadership Studies

Studies that look at leadership and elements of social identity development such as race are sparse (Chin, 2010; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Some of the first studies to consider elements of race and leadership came from the organizational sector by cultural theorists who examined global communities (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Kezar et al., 2006; Northouse, 2010). Although these studies were conducted in organizational settings at a global level with more than 40 participating countries (and not specifically on college students), culture, which includes race, was found to have a significant impact on leadership (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House

et al., 2004). Further connections can be made to college student leadership development when one considers that the racial representation in their samples reflect most of the racial groups in higher education.

There are a number of studies that look at college student leadership and the influence of race. Arminio et al. (2000), for example, examined the influence of race on college student leaders of color. In their three-year study looking at why students of color were not participating in or successfully completing formal leadership programs, the authors found that the complex social construction of race was a significant factor in respondent's leadership perceptions and development. There were 106 students of color (34 African American, 43 Asian American, 39 Latina/o) who participated in phenomenological interviews at a midsized comprehensive institution. The study found that most of the students did not consider themselves leaders even though they held elected positions. The reason for this was their understanding of the term in a more leader-centric traditional perspective, which meant having to separate themselves from their racial group. In other words, considering themselves as leaders meant being part of the "enemy" and "buying into" a historically oppressive system (Arminio et al., 2000). Most interesting was that some of the students claimed they had taken a personal toll for holding a leadership position because their loyalty to their racial group was often questioned and the lack of role models often left them feeling isolated.

Other studies, such as Komives et al. (2005) and Renn and Ozaki (2010), also support race as having a significant influence on college student leadership perception and development. The study by Komives et al. (2005) included 13 participants with 5

identifying as students of color. There were 8 men and 5 women; 2 were sophomores, 9 seniors, and 2 recent graduates. The students were identified by a purposeful sampling procedure as having demonstrated relational leadership on their campus. There were a total of three in-depth interviews conducted with each of the participants. The study found that students who developed an awareness of leadership described their shifting leadership identity as moving from an industrial perspective that was hierarchical and leader-centric to one that embraced leadership as a collaborative and relational process. Students of color identified race as one of the most significant factors in the development of their leadership identity. Race was either directly recognized as a factor or it surfaced as a perceived significant role modeling aspect of a leader. The authors recognized race as an important asset "of diversity that [the student] brought to the group" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 599).

Similar to Komives et al. (2005), another study that looked at the identities of students leading identity-based organizations found race to be related to leadership identity (Renn & Ozaki, 2010). The researchers conducted qualitative interviews with 18 student leaders where 10 self-identified as a person of color, 8 as female, 7 as male, and 3 as transgender. There were 5 sophomores, 6 juniors, and 7 seniors who participated. Among the findings, Renn and Ozaki (2010) concluded that once in leadership positions, students experienced heightened salience in leadership and psychosocial identity in the domain specific to their group, which included race. For many of the students, becoming involved or founding an identity-based organization was a means to safely express and explore their psychosocial identity which resulted in increased leadership identity and

experience. Unlike in Komives et al. (2005), this study found that most students perceived leadership as a positional conception rather than a teachable process.

Further contradictions to the findings of the previous studies, and adding to the need for a closer look at the potential impact of race on leadership development, are the results of Posner's (2004) research. Posner (2004) looked at the leadership practices of 604 fraternity chapter officers in more than 200 college campuses nationwide using the SLPI and found no statistically significant differences between how frequently students of color and White students reported leadership engagement. Furthermore, the study findings directly contradicted Arminio et al. (2000) when it revealed that students (including students of color) who viewed themselves as more effective leaders than their peers consistently reported engaging in more formal leadership practices. One of the reasons for this contradiction may be the limitation of only looking at leadership roles in predominantly White fraternity and sorority systems.

In a study by Kezar and Moriarty in 2000, race was found to be a significant factor, but only conditionally, when looking at predictors of leadership by racial group. More than 9,000 students at 352 institutions participated in the 1987 and 1991 Cooperative Institutional Research Program survey. The researchers examined factors influencing leadership development with a focus on potential differences between sexes and between African American and White students. Participation in racial or cultural awareness workshops and community service (practices that are still not regularly found in formal leadership programs) were found as predictors of leadership ability for African American students. Additionally, faculty interactions outside of the classroom were not

found to predict leadership development, and positional leadership experiences were not considered as important in the development of leadership related skills. A closer look at these two findings may reveal that the race of the faculty member and the more collective leadership approaches of students of color may have been factors in their lack of significance. The study demonstrated that race was a significant factor in leadership development, but the results could have been enhanced if race had been used as a comprehensive identity process rather than as a categorical variable.

Two recent studies have answered the call for more complex ways of understanding race and its impact on leadership development. Dugan et al. (2012) used the measures of collective racial esteem (CRE) to examine the influence of race on socially responsible leadership. CRE is derived from Collective Self Esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992), which goes beyond race as a simple category to examine a student's self-concept related to membership in a broader racial group (Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine, & Broadnax, 1994). The researchers asserted that CRE may be used to correlate racial identity in assessing the impact of race in quantitative research. Data from the MSL were used to look at 8,510 participants from 101 institutions nationwide. One of the most relevant findings of the study was the discovery that having effectively developed an internally validated racial self-concept was a significant contributor to leadership capacity of students of color. This makes sense when one considers that self-awareness and having an understanding of where one fits within a college environment, often considered as hostile and racialized structures, helps students of color navigate their college experience.

Kodama and Dugan (2013) built upon the previous study by analyzing predictors of leadership self-efficacy that were conditioned by racial group. More than 8,000 college students, including a 27% subgroup of color, comprised the sample for this study. Data representing more than 100 institutions nationwide were collected using the local MSL instrument. The results, which were obtained after disaggregating the data by race, continue to support the need for institutions to move away from traditional "one-size-fits-all" approaches to leadership development. Some examples of positive predictors of leadership efficacy for all racial groups included sociocultural conversations with peers and positional leadership roles in student organizations. Community service, on the other hand, was only significant for African American and Asian American students. Mentoring, regardless of mentoring roles (i.e., faculty, employer, peers), appeared to have no impact on leadership efficacy for any group of color with one exception—African American students being mentored by a student affairs staff member. These results support the need for further research that disaggregates data by looking at race in more complex ways. The argument against one-size-fits-all approaches to the leadership development process does not seem to be limited to White versus groups of color, but there appears to be a need to consider differences within groups of color as well.

Overall, leadership studies and formal leadership programs primarily focus on surface-level development of skills and competencies, but neglect the complex psychological influences of social identity and racial identity in particular in college student leadership development (Day et al., 2009; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Dugan et al. (2012) argued that this neglect is, in part, due to colorblind

assumptions that permeate traditional leadership theories. If scholars agree that a critical outcome of leadership development is social justice (AACU, 2007; Astin & Astin, 2000; Komives et al., 2013; NASPA & ACPA, 2004), then focusing on the influence of race is unavoidable and necessary to fully engage in social change work (Ospina & Su, 2009). CCSSPs provide an ideal setting for review as an environmental location that may treat leadership and race as mutually influential.

Connecting CCSSP Core Features and Leadership Development

The empirical literature on college student leadership development and racial identity identify a number of predictors for leadership development. If the lens is shifted to examine core features associated with the design and delivery of CCSSPs, it is possible to identify points of possible connection. Key features of CCSSPs, identified after a review of current and historical literature, include: *college access, safe spaces, engagement, cultural education/advocacy, mentorship, and academic support*. The following is a synthesis, based on empirical research, of ways in which core CCSSP features may influence leadership development.

CCSSPs and College Access

The *college access* core feature can be divided into two general categories: building social capital and engagement. Social capital may be defined as the capacity for formal and informal networks to facilitate educational advancement (Nuñez, 2009; Perna, 2007). CCSSP's work with prospective students by providing college access presentations in their home communities—a practice that has the potential to build social capital. These activities are usually led by CCSSP staff, but sometimes current college

students are asked to present about their experiences (Patton, 2010). For the college

student, the experience of serving in a leadership role with a purpose of giving back to

their native communities may be in line with studies that have found general involvement

(Antonio, 2001; Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Komives et al., 2006; Renn &

Ozaki, 2010) and community service (Astin, Keup, & Lindholm, 2002; Astin et al., 2000;

Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) as

positive influences on leadership development for students of color. Similarly, Dugan et

al. (2012) found that membership in off-campus organizations was a significant positive

predictor of leadership development for students of color. However, they did not find off-

campus community service as a predictor of leadership for African American students.

Community service is an area that is explored by this study for all participating groups of

color.

CCSSPs as Safe Spaces

Once enrolled at their university, students can take advantage of the second core

feature of a CCSSP called *Safe Spaces*. African American students in the 1960s were in

pursuit of "safe spaces" (Patton, 2010; Young, 1986) or a home away from home (Young

& Hannon, 2002) where they could socialize, meet other students, and support each other

(Patton & Hannon, 2008) and where issues of racism, discrimination, and feelings of

isolation could be aired and addressed (Gandara, 2005; Patton, 2005, 2010; Stewart,

2011; Young, 1986). After their creations, CCSSPs were viewed as "island[s] in a sea of

whiteness" (Young, 1986, p. 13) that offered a sense of identity and protection and where

students could build a "support system that constructs positive self and group identities" (Stoval, 2005, p. 106).

Perhaps the most important aspect of this CCSSP core feature, where linkages to leadership can be made, is the opportunity for students to safely dialogue about racial, political, and other social differences (Jones, Castellanos, & Cole, 2002). Conversations across differences, or sociocultural conversations, are cited as one of the most important predictors of leadership development for students of color (Antonio, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2012; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013). As students address dissonance with peers who are different, they not only build resiliency but the experience has also been associated with the development of leadership efficacy and capacity (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2012; Quaye & Baxter Magolda, 2007).

Exposing students of color to sociocultural conversations provides them with varying perspectives that can help them overcome the perceived hostile racial climates (Nuñez, 2009; Ospina & Foldy, 2009) by stimulating social perspective-taking (Dugan, 2011; Dugan, Bohle, Woelker, & Cooney, 2014; Gehlbach, Brinkworth, & Wang, 2012). Social perspective-taking (SPT) is considered an important mediator of leadership learning (Avolio, 2010; Dugan et al., 2014) and is believed to significantly affect intellectual and moral development (Dey & Associates, 2010). Defined as a higher order cognitive skill reflected by an individual's ability to take on another person's perspective and accurately infer their thoughts and feelings (Dugan et al., 2014; Gehlbach, 2004;

Galinsky et al., 2005; Johnson, 1975), SPT may be enhanced as students increase

engagement in a CCSSP because of the comfort they feel in these safe spaces.

In a study by Dugan et al. (2014), SPT was considered when they looked at the

leadership capacity development of more than 13,000 students at 101 institutions

nationwide. The results indicated that SPT is an important mediator for socially

responsible leadership. This finding was made using the social change model of

leadership development, which is the theoretical model used in this dissertation. The

researchers further asserted that SPT is a powerful tool for extending the benefits of

social coordination and leadership development, which in turn makes CCSSPs as safe

spaces especially relevant when considering the potential impact they have on students of

color.

CCSSPs and Academic Support

Another important core feature in their effort to potentially impact students of

color is CCSSPs as centers of academic support. The fundamental purpose of higher

education is to develop tomorrow's leaders (Thelin, 2004), but the primary goal of all

units that serve students is or should be student success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, &

Associates, 2010). Academic support, the fifth core feature, is important because how the

service is approached matters as much as the service itself. Some of the activities that fall

under the *academic support* core feature include academic advising, tutoring, academic

skills programs, and areas for students to study with like peers (Lozano, 2010; Patton,

2010; Shotton, Yellowfish, & Cintrón, 2010).

Pope (2000) cited academic autonomy (i.e., a student's year in school, grade point average, and full or part-time status) as having a significant relationship with racial identity development. The results of his study suggest that for students of color, racial identity development and psychosocial development, which includes developing academic autonomy, are concurrent processes. Further links between academic autonomy leadership development and racial identity development were made by Harper (2006a). In his study of 32 high-achieving African American male students, he found that academic success was, in part, due to leadership involvement and identity development. Holistically, this makes sense because how successful or challenged a student may be in one aspect of the college experience is bound to impact her or his efficacy in other areas.

This is particularly interesting when considering Asian American students. Asian American CCSSPs, unlike their African American or Latina/o counterparts, have historically directed less attention to issues of access or academic assistance and instead focused heavily on services and programs that address leadership and racial identity development (Ming Liu, Cuvjet, & Lee, 2010). This is surprising considering how some studies have disproven common perceptions linked to the "model minority" stereotype and have found that when data is disaggregated by sub-racial groups, college readiness for some subgroups appear to be more in line with the academic and personal needs of other groups of color (Inkelas, 2004; Maramba, & Velasquez, 2012; Museus, 2008; Museus & Kiang, 2009). Pope (2000), for example, found that Asian American students scored lower than African American or Latina/o students in developing academic

autonomy. The results prompted Pope (2000) to urge practitioners to redirect focus on the academic, career, and life-planning needs of Asian American students.

Overall academic support is an important factor in the college experience for students of color, but no evidence was found linking it directly to leadership development. Therefore, this study did not consider CCSSPs as academic support centers as a potential area of impact for leadership development for students of color.

Engagement and Leadership Development

The core feature of engagement and leadership development is perhaps the most relevant for this study. CCSSPs offer direct opportunities for students to be involved and provide support for the creation of engagement activities. This section focuses on three areas of engagement opportunities: community service, identity-based student organizations, and general student organizations. In a number of studies, engagement on- and off-campus has been found to have a predictive relationship with leadership development (e.g., Astin, 1993b; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Komives et al., 2006;).

Research examining the connection between community service and leadership development specific to students of color seem to report conflicting results. Kezar and Moriarty (2000) identified volunteer work as the only type of extracurricular experience to impact African American men's leadership efficacy. Community service has also been found to be a significant positive predictor of leadership in studies that included students of color (Astin et al., 2000; Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Sutton & Terell, 1997). Dugan et al. (2012), however, found community

service to be a significant predictor of leadership capacity for all groups except African American students. Students may have answered the questions based on their extensive community service experiences prior to college, and this may have limited the impact for them when compared to other groups. Additionally, the context around how they became involved in their community service during college may shed some light on the difference for African American students. If accessed through a formal leadership program, their experience could be perceived as something they *had to do* (Arminio et al., 2000) as opposed to community service for social change as a result of self–actualization. Dugan et al. (2012) suggested that "leadership interventions may better serve student development by working from within a particular population" (p. 12). CCSSPs appear to answer this call by providing an environment that is culturally based and that provides opportunities for involvement in students' respective communities and on campus in the form of student organizations.

Engagement in student organizations is supported as being a significant predictor of leadership for students of color (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, 2006; Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), but involvement in identity-based organizations appears to have a much more relevant impact (Cokley, 2001; Flowers, 2004; Fries-Britt, 2000; Guardia & Evans, 2008; Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Inkelas; 2004; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001). Studies that looked at students of color involvement in identity-based student organizations include themes such as a reluctance to use the term leader, leadership as a

collaborative effort versus individual experience, gains in racial identity development, leadership efficacy, capacity, and social perspective-taking.

One example is a phenomenological study of 32 high-achieving African American undergraduate male leaders of both general and identity-based organizations (Harper & Quaye, 2007). The students represented six universities. Findings indicated that engagement in identity-based student organizations enhanced students' belief and understanding of their racial identity, leadership capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking, despite perceiving their environment as hostile and unwelcoming. Similar results were reported by Renn and Ozaki (2010) who looked at 18 identity-based organization leaders in a single institution. Student leaders were found to experience both psychosocial identities and leadership identities as salient. The heightened psychosocial identity development was in turn linked to strengthened leadership efficacy, capacity, and ability to maneuver through (i.e., social perspective-taking, resilience) the broader environment (Renn & Ozaki, 2010). Both studies highlight the importance of identity-based student organization positional leadership engagement, but lack any insight on the impact of general membership. Most early CCSSPs claim that they began as extensions of grass-roots student activism led by identity-based student organizations (Young, 1986), which makes engagement one of the most important core features for this study.

CCSSPs and Cultural Education/Advocacy

Leadership for students of color necessitates learning cross-cultural skills, which involves knowing about one's own culture (Balón, 2005). CCSSPs offer safe spaces for students to explore, express, and validate their culture and racial identity (Patton, 2010).

Activities associated with cultural education/advocacy include poetry nights, cultural dance performances, invited speakers, lecture series, or celebratory events like Black History Month (Patton, 2006b, 2010). Most of these programs and activities are marketed and open to the rest of the institution, which may result in a setting where conversations across differences can safely take place. When those conversations involve issues of race and culture, studies indicate a significant impact on leadership and racial identity development (Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Harper, 2006a; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Liang et al., 2002; Nuñez, 2009; Ospina & Foldy 2009; Ospina & Su, 2009). Sociocultural conversations with peers are a significant predictor of leadership capacity and efficacy among all students of color (Dugan et al., 2012, 2013). Findings also connect conversations across differences to positive gains in social perspective-taking and resilience (Dugan et al., 2014).

Liang et al. (2002) studied Asian American students who utilized a center similar to a CCSSP and found that through their exposure to programs and activities around Asian American history, identity, and oppression, students were able to self-explore and gain a sense of empowerment and responsibility that led to positive effects in relation to social change and their leadership development. Other studies describe how participation in cultural awareness workshops (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), programs that include peer to peer reflections (Astin et al., 2000), and discussions around issues of "whiteness" (Horse, 2005) were cited as impacting leadership development for students of color. Harper and Quaye (2007) stressed that when African American students work with diverse

populations, it enables them to appreciate differences, which better equips them to teach others about their backgrounds, history, and Black culture in general.

The need for sociocultural conversations highlights the import role racial climate has on leadership development for students of color and the potential impact CCSSPs have on their students. Racial climate, or how a student perceives their environment, matters because it has been found to be correlated with resiliency, efficacy, and social perspective-taking (Dugan et al., 2012, 2014; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). All of these areas are fundamental to answering the primary questions of this study.

CCSSPs and Mentorship Experiences

Similar to sociocultural conversations, mentoring experiences is a critical CCSSP core feature and an area considered to be a high-impact leadership practice for students of color. Mentorship experiences are reviewed under three categories: faculty, staff, and peer. Linkages are made between CCSSPs and empirical findings that look at the impact of mentoring relationships on leadership development for students of color. The following is a summary of these findings as they relate to the three primary areas of support provided by CCSSPs.

Faculty mentoring. Interactions with faculty have long been associated with positive relationships and many college outcomes (Astin, 1993b; Kuh, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Santos & Reigadas, 2002), but the significance of these interactions with respect to leadership development for students of color is not certain. Findings from four studies associate mentoring relationships with faculty as positive predictors of student leadership (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Komives et al.,

2006). Thompson (2006) conducted a study that looked at how system-wide college

resources affect student leadership process development. Findings from this study

concluded that mentorship, including faculty as mentors, could potentially facilitate the

enhancement of students' leadership development. While useful, this study was

conducted at a small private liberal arts college where only 7% of the sample self-

reported as a person of color. Kezar and Moriarty (2000), on the other hand, conducted a

national multi-institutional study with a sample of more than 9,000 college students, of

which more than 500 were students of color. Findings from this study seem to contradict

Thompson's results where despite having a positive significance in social self-

confidence, faculty interactions outside of the classroom setting did not serve as a

predictor for leadership development for African American students. Adding to the

complexity, Dugan et al. (2012) found that faculty mentoring was a significant positive

predictor for leadership capacity among African American and Asian American students.

The same study, however, added that faculty as mentors were not significant for Latina/o

students. None of the studies indicated the racial background of the faculty referenced.

Perhaps a reason for the inconsistent findings is a need for students of color to associate

and build relationships with mentors who are of the same race (Torres & Hernandez,

2009). Inconsistent findings around faculty as mentors for students of color demonstrate

the unique needs students have, and also gives sustenance to the potential impact CCSSPs

may have on the development of their respective student populations. This study helps to

explain the inconsistencies by looking at rates of participation differences between those

who utilize CCSSPs and those who do not.

Staff and peer mentorship. Studies that look at the relationship between staff and student peers as mentors or role models differ from those that look at faculty. Campbell, Smith, Dugan, and Komives (2012) found that student affairs mentors (in comparison with faculty mentors) foster better socially responsible leadership capacity in their students. Positive relationships were identified between leadership development and mentoring by staff and peers for students of color in general (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010), for Latina/o students (Dugan et al., 2012), and for African American students (Kodama & Dugan, 2013). Arminio et al. (2000) noted that a personal cost of holding a positional leadership position for students of color was a lack of opportunities for developing mentoring relationships with staff. Bordes and Arredondo (2005) looked at mentoring and first year Latina/o college students and found that the positive impact on student development was not only the result of having a mentor, but of perceptions of being mentored as well. This study also looked at the potential impact of the mentor's race and found that it did not make a difference to the students. Clayborne and Hamrick (2007) looked at the leadership experiences of African American professionals and found evidence that their unmet needs as college students (similar to mentoring relationships with staff; guidance, nurturing, support) was still felt after the college experience. Future studies that consider mentoring and its impact on leadership development for students of color would do well to look not only at the protégé but also at the student serving as the mentor.

Chapter Summary

If higher education is to fulfill its original promise of preparing society's future leaders, it must take into account the continued increase in cultural and racial diversity of our college student population. The evolution of leadership theories from the industrial paradigm (leader-centric and hierarchical) to the postindustrial (collectivist and process oriented) is chronicled in a growing body of literature that embraces a more diverse and socially responsible approach to leadership development (Northouse, 2010). Building on this more inclusive perspective is literature that supports the need for a more complex treatment of race and its influence on leadership development (Dugan et al., 2012; Maramba & Velasquez, 2010; Ospina & Su, 2009). CCSSPs may be a central location to cultivate the intersections of this work as their core features align well with high-impact practices for leadership development.

The literature review in this chapter provided the theoretical and empirical evidence necessary to support a study on the potential impact CCSSPs have on the leadership development for students of color. Additionally, CCSSPs were shown to provide an ideal setting for a review that considers race, since CCSSPs were created in response to and for the purpose of addressing the effects of racial discrimination against students of color (Patton, 2010). The literature review also provided evidence of potential linkages between core features of CCSSPs and leadership development.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methods used for the study will be summarized. The purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, and other supporting empirical evidence will also be provided. A review of the conceptual framework for the study followed by details of the research design, sample, study instrument, analysis plan, and justification for and description of the variables selected for the study will ensue. An overall summary of the chapter will close this section.

Purpose and Rationale

The primary purpose of this study is to address a gap in the literature that looks at the potential impact of race-specific cultural centers and student support programs (CCSSPs) on multiple dimensions of leadership development for students of color. The importance of such a study is found in three key areas in higher education. First is the realization that the demographic composition of students enrolled in higher education will continue to grow increasingly diverse—a trend led by students of color since the 1960s (Hussar & Bailey, 2011; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). By the year 2020, the number of African and Asian American students is expected to increase by 25% while Latina/o students are projected to lead the influx with an anticipated increase of 46% (Hussar & Bailey, 2011; U.S. Census, 2010).

Despite their larger numbers on college campuses, the attrition rates of students of color are high when compared to their White peers (Cook & Cordova, 2007). If higher

education is to honor its original commitment of preparing future leaders (Thelin, 2004) and answer calls to refocus attention and resources back to college student leadership development (AACU, 2007; NASPA, 2004), it is imperative that the needs of students of color be addressed. This study can help inform higher education administrators by looking at CCSSPs, one of the oldest programs colleges and universities have implemented to serve students of color.

The second rationale for supporting a review of CCSSPs is higher education's need to find new and more effective ways of impacting leadership development for students of color. Studies have demonstrated that one-size-fits-all approaches to formal leadership programs are not as effective with students of color (Dugan, et al., 2012). While formal leadership programs are not typically part of what CCSSPs offer, the previous chapter linked elements of the core features of CCSSPs to both critical leadership development outcomes and predictors of leadership (i.e., high-impact practices). Collectively, this study contributes to two key areas of need within higher education: knowledge of more effective leadership development approaches for students of color and the impact of race on leadership development.

Finally, a review of CCSSPs can help inform colleges and universities that are facing or attempting to address potential challenges to race-based practices (e.g., *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, *Hopwood v. University of Texas Law School, Grutter v. Bollinger & Gratz v. Bollinger)*. These legal challenges reflect an ideology that claims blatant racism is no longer practiced in society and as such, race-based Affirmative Action type programs (under which CCSSPs can fall) are no longer needed.

Many universities have responded to these challenges by consolidating CCSSPs into multicultural student centers that often include services for other marginalized groups such as students with disabilities and the lesbian, gay, bisexual, queer, and transgendered communities (CAS, 2012; Stewart, 2011). These changes have been made without considering how CCSSPs have influenced their target groups for the last 40 years (Patton, 2010; Stewart, 2011). Although this study did not focus on multicultural centers, the results can nonetheless help inform the debate between the two approaches for serving students of color.

Research Questions

This study focused on answering two primary questions: (1) *What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership outcomes for students of color?* and (2) *What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?* To answer the first primary question, the following was examined: (1a) *Are there differences in leadership outcomes (i.e., efficacy, capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking) between students of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs?* and (1b) *Are there differences in leadership outcomes between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs and those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs?* The second primary question is answered by looking at the following two sub-questions: (2a) *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices (i.e., involvement in on- and off-campus organizations, mentorship experiences, sociocultural conversations, and community service) between students of color who utilize CCSSPs*

when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs? and (2b) *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs?*

Hypothesis

The first set of research questions will examine the potential influence CCSSPs have on students of color leadership outcomes as a whole and by racial groups. It was hypothesized that there would be meaningful effect size measures for African American and Latina/o students who utilize CCSSPs when compared to their peers who do not utilize CCSSPs. This result was expected across all leadership outcomes (i.e., efficacy, capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking). CCSSP core features were linked to high-impact leadership practices such as involvement in on- and off-campus organizations, sociocultural conversations, mentorship experiences, and community service (Dugan et al., 2013). These high-impact leadership practices have been strongly associated with gains in capacity, efficacy, resiliency, and social perspective-taking (Antonio, 2001; Astin, 1993b; Dugan, 2011; Dugan & Komives, 2007, Dugan et al., 2012, 2014). If students of color admit to having utilized a CCSSP, it is hypothesized that they will be more engaged in these high-impact leadership practices. CCSSPs seem to offer the appropriate experiences in an ideal setting. It would then make sense to expect more meaningful effect sizes for leadership outcomes variables when compared with their peers who did not participate in a CCSSP.

The second primary question looks at the potential difference in the frequency of engagement in these same high-impact leadership practices between students of color who utilized CCSSPs and those who did not. Students of color are more likely to look for same-race involvement opportunities in what appears to be both an effort to seek critical support and to gain leadership experiences in settings that are more comfortable and welcoming to them (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan et al., 2012; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001). Studies have demonstrated hesitancy for using the term "leadership" among groups of color (Arminio et al., 2000; Harper & Quaye, 2007), which may be a reason for their lower rates of participation in campus-wide formal leadership programs.

At a CCSSP, however, many of the high-impact leadership practices are not labeled as part of any formal leadership program. Instead, they are offered as activities focused on social change and directly tied to racial identity development (Patton, 2010). For example, community service opportunities may be linked to giving back to their community of origin, student organizations may be exclusively or in part racial identity-based, and mentoring opportunities may involve mentors and mentees of the same race. These unique racially based opportunities are far less likely to exist outside of a CCSSP. Students who do not participate in CCSSPs may not have the same level of exposure to these high-impact practices. This is considered by examining the differences in the rates of participation in the high-impact practices between CCSSP users and non-users. These results are presented in the findings section of chapter four.

Theoretical Model

The MSL is theoretically grounded using the Social Change Model (SCM) of leadership development (HERI, 1996). As previously described, the SCM was created exclusively for college students and is considered one of the most influential college models (Kezar et al., 2006). The model emphasizes leadership as a collective, collaborative, values-based and service focused process that is consistent with the more contemporary postindustrial leadership paradigm (Kezar et al., 2006; Rost, 1991). The central principle of the SCM is that social change happens through the development of seven core values (Komives et al., 2009). The seven values consist of: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, common purpose, collaboration, controversy with civility, and citizenship (seven C's). These seven core values are believed to be interrelated and function within three interactive clusters: *individual, group,* and *society* or *community* (Komives et al., 2009). Change is considered an eighth value, though it is not cited under any of the three domains. Instead, *change* is the primary outcome resulting from the belief in, practice of, and interaction between the seven C's (HERI, 1996). Table 1 provides definitions for each of the value definitions associated with the social change model.

Conceptual Framework

MSL uses an adapted version of Astin's (1993a) inputs-environments-outcomes (I-E-O) college impact model as its conceptual framework. The I-E-O model allows for the examination of student development under varying environmental conditions. Retrospective questions are used in a cross-sectional design rather than

utilizing a pre-and post-test approach. This approach avoids concerns with response shift

bias typically associated with pre- and post-tests on outcomes with cognitive dimensions.

I-E-O was also adapted by integrating Wiedman's (1989) student socialization model

which looks at the influence of non-college reference groups. While the MSL uses I-E-O

as a framework for its conceptual model, this study does not consider input elements and

only looks at the environment and outputs.

Table 1. Definitions for values associated with the Social Change Model of Leadership
Development

Value	Definition
Consciousness of Self	Awareness of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate one to take action.
Congruence	Thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity, and honesty towards others; actions are consistent with most deeply-held beliefs and convictions.
Commitment	The psychic energy that motivates the individual to serve and that drives the collective effort; implies passion, intensity, and duration, and is directed toward both the group activity as well as its intended outcomes.
Collaboration	To work with others in a common effort; constitutes the cornerstone value of the group leadership effort because it empowers self and others through trust.
Common Purpose	To work with shared aims and values; facilitates the group's ability to engage in collective analysis of issues at hand and the task to be undertaken.
Controversy with Civility	Recognizes two fundamental realities of any creative group effort: that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and that such differences must be aired openly, but with civility. Civility implies respect for others, a willingness to hear each other's views, and the exercise of restraint in criticizing the views and actions of others.
Citizenship	The process whereby an individual and the collaborative group become responsibly connected to the community and the society through the leadership development activity. To be a good citizen is to work for positive change on the behalf of others and the community.

Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development:
Guidebook version III.* College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

The conceptual model for the present study draws upon existing literature on leadership development as well. Scholars state that leadership development is comprised of a number of developmental dimensions that include efficacy, capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking (Dugan, 2015; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Hannah et al., 2008; Machida & Schaubroek, 2011). These outcomes comprise the various dimensions of leadership development empirically shown to correlate with a number of high-impact practices such as on- and off-campus involvement, mentorship experiences, sociocultural conversations, and community service (Dugan et al., 2013). Many of these high-impact leadership practices were identified in the previous chapter as direct or indirect components of CCSSP core features (e.g., mentorship experiences, student organization opportunities, safe spaces for sociocultural conversations; Ming Liu et al., 2010; Patton, 2005, 2010; Stewart, 2011; Young, 1986). Therefore, the conceptual model (see Figure 2) for the study reflects CCSSP core features which act as bridges to high-impact leadership practices (i.e., environmental factors of I-E-O) that are in turn recognized as predictors of leadership outcomes (i.e., outcome factors of I-E-O).

Figure 2. Conceptual model linking CCSSP features to leadership outcomes

CCSSP Core Features	High-impact Leadership Practices	Leadership Outcomes
College Access Safe Spaces Engagement Cultural Education/Advocacy Mentorship Academic Support	Involvement on/off campus Sociocultural Conversations Mentorship Experiences Community Service	Efficacy Capacity Resiliency Social Perspective-Taking
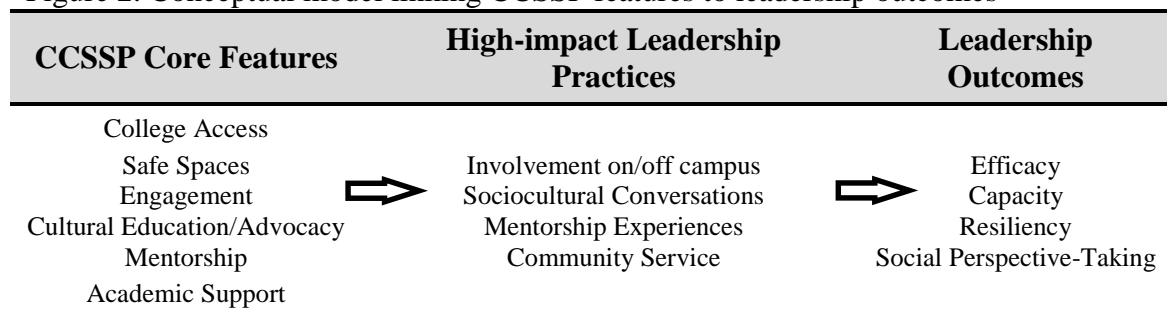
Research Design

This study drew from data collected in the 2012 MSL. The MSL is an international research project created to examine the impact of the higher education experience on college student leadership development. The study was first conducted in 2006, and then from 2009 until 2012 the survey was administered annually. More than 250,000 students from approximately 200 institutions have participated in the survey since its inception (MSL, 2012). The MSL is a sound resource due to its rigorous testing of more than 400 variables and its use of other precautionary measures that ensure accuracy and reliability of self-reported data. Evidence of the reliability and validity of the variables, scales, and composite measures used in the MSL can be found in numerous peer reviewed publications (e.g., Campbell et al., 2012; Dugan et al., 2014; Haber, 2012; Haber & Komives, 2009; Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

The MSL uses a cross-sectional research design that relies on self-reported student data. Concerns regarding having adequate control to assess change over time (Pascarella, 2001) are addressed through the use of retrospective questioning methods that allow for the creation of quasi-pretests. Dugan (2015) provides justification for the use of a cross-sectional design in the MSL by noting that leadership is influenced significantly by cognitive reasoning (Komives, et al., 2006) which can often involve shifts in cognition. These shifts can alter the interpretation of items when using a pre- and post-test which can violate the assumption that the same standard of measurement is being used, thus leading to the possibility of distorting scales in a study.

Precautionary measures consistent with recommendations from self-report research design experts were also considered. Some examples include the implementation of the Crowne-Marlowe (1960) measure of social desirability to address any concerns regarding socially desirable responses (Gonyea, 2005; Porter, 2011) and the use of pilot testing and qualitative interviews with diverse students to insure clarity of measures which in turn address concerns regarding the possibility of a halo effect (Bowman & Hill, 2011; Gonyea, 2005; Porter, 2011). Concerns with having students gauge their own educational gains were avoided by using items that ask them to assess their abilities at a given time. Other recommendations were also considered, including the use of rigorous methodological standards and ensuring ease-of-use of the instrument by participants (Astin, 1993a; Gonyea, 2005; Pike, 1995).

Data Collection Process

Students were invited by email to complete the online 2012 MSL survey, followed by as many as three emailed reminder messages to those who had not responded. The online instrument and email communication process were managed by the Survey Sciences Group, LLC. In addition to the national survey's offer to enter all completed questionnaires into a drawing for a $500 gift card, the institution whose participants are represented in this research offered a second drawing for $20 gift cards to their respective bookstores. The odds of winning were 1 in 100 and 1 in 45 respectively.

Institutional and Student Sample

More than 80 institutions participated in the 2012 MSL, resulting in an overall national sample size of 275,682. The dataset for this dissertation was drawn from a single

institution. The Carnegie classification for the sample institution is a large, four-year, public, primarily nonresidential, Research 1 university situated just minutes outside of the downtown district of a major Midwestern city. The enrollment figures for this university total more than 27,000 students including 17,000 undergraduates. Of the undergraduate population, 17% live on campus. Students of color comprised more than 55% of the total 2012 undergraduate population with a subgroup breakdown of 8% African American, 22% Asian American, 24% Latina/o, and 1% Native American. In addition to not having any racial group comprising a majority (i.e., 40% White undergraduate population in 2012), the sample institution was either already, or in the final stages of becoming, a Minority, Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander, and Hispanic-Serving Institution (MSI, AANAPISI, and HSI).

A random sample of 4,000 undergraduate students was drawn from this institution. The requested sample size was necessary for a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error at or better than ± 3 (MSL, 2012). The random sample for this study was supplemented with a stratified sample of all students of color from this university as identified by institutional records. This was done in an attempt to increase the final sample size, as the institution had a poor history with response rates for online survey research.

The final sample for this study consisted of 155 students. Of this number, 21% identified as African American, 45% as Asian American, and 34% as Latino/a. White, Middle Eastern, and Native American students were excluded due to survey participation rates that were too low for statistical analysis. Academic class standing distribution

reflects 37% first-year, 19% sophomores, 19% juniors, and 25% seniors. CCSSP users comprised 42% of the overall sample compared to 58% of students who never used a CCSSP.

Study Method

The following sections describe the process that was used for selecting the study variables. An overview of the analysis plan is also discussed.

Variables to Identify CCSSP Participants

Two additional questions were added to the 2012 version of the MSL for a single institution specifically for this dissertation study. The questions were (1) *To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following offices at* [institution name]: [student support office name inserted]? and (2) *To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following cultural centers at* [institution name]: [cultural center names inserted]? Students answered these questions using a Likert-type scale with four options that included *never, sometimes, often,* and *very often*. These allowed the research to accurately identify the degree of participation in CCSSPs.

Variables for Leadership Outcomes

The leadership outcomes dependent variables for this study include leadership capacity, leadership efficacy, resiliency, and social perspective-taking. *Leadership capacity* is measured using the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS). The SRLS used in the MSL is a revised version using a 71-item composite measure theoretically grounded on the SCM (HERI, 1996). Responses to the SRLS utilized a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Dugan et al.

(2012) used this measure in their study and found the reliability estimate for the single factor measure of socially responsible leadership to be at least .96 for all groups of color.

A scale for *leadership efficacy* was created by the MSL team and used in a number of analyses throughout the report. The scale reflects Bandura's (1997) cognitive social theory, which posit that someone's internal belief system about their likelihood for success in a particular domain is the single greatest predictor of taking action. The scale used a four-item range from 1 (*not at all confident)* to 4 (*very confident)* to measure a student's internal belief in their capacity to perform leadership-related actions or practices successfully (Bandura, 1997; McCormick et al., 2002). Cronbach alpha levels in a recent study that looked at leadership efficacy and unique predictors by race among college students of color were at least .87 for all racial groups (Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

Measuring *resiliency* is important when looking at historically under-represented and marginalized groups like students of color because it can assess what Connor and Davison (2003) describe as an individual's successful stress-coping abilities. A ten-item Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale was added to the local 2012 MSL to look at how resiliency affects leadership development. Response options ranged from 1 (*not at all confident*) to 4 (*very confident*). While new to the 2012 MSL, the scale's internal consistency has been found to be reliable as indicated by Cronbach's alpha levels of .85 in Campbell-Sills and Stein (2007), .89 in Connor and Davidson (2003), and .91 in Kodama (2014).

The next dependent variable*, social perspective-taking*, is scored in the MSL using a 5-point scale from 1 (*does not describe me well*) to 5 (*describes me very well*).

Researchers determined that social perspective-taking is a critical intermediary of a student's abilities to apply individual leadership capacities with group level capacities. Social perspective-taking is understood as the ability to recognize another person's perspective and to empathize with their thoughts and feelings (Dugan et al., 2014), which is in line with aspects of contemporary leadership theory (i.e., collectivism, process orientation, caring for others, and self-actualization; Galinsky & Ku, 2004; Galinsky et al., 2005; Komives & Dugan, 2010). The reliability measure for this scale was .85 in Dugan et al. (2014).

Variables for Predictors of Leadership

High-impact collegiate engagement experiences tied to leadership development for students included aspects of student organization and off-campus organization involvement, community service, formal leadership program participation, and mentoring experiences. Student organization and off-campus organization involvement looked at whether or not the student was a member or in a leadership position. Attention was also given to determining if their student organization was considered identity-based. Additionally, the MSL includes items that look at whether or not their student or off-campus organization's primary focus was on social change. Mentoring experiences considered whether the mentor was a faculty, staff, or student.

Overall, experiences in identity-based organizations were measured using simple dichotomous indicators of participation/experience or non-participation/no experience. Degree of involvement in student and off-campus organizations was scaled using a range from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*much of the time*). Frequency of community service and mentoring

(by faculty, student affairs staff, and peers) was measured using response options ranging from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*often*). Degree of involvement in sociocultural conversations with peers was evaluated by using a six-item composite measure scaled from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*very often*). Cronbach alpha levels ranging from .89 to .91 using the six-item measure have been found in previous studies (e.g., Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan 2013).

Data Analysis Plan

The purpose of this study was to look at the potential impact CCSSPs have on students of color's leadership development. Examining for meaningful differences between students who use CCSSPs and those who do not utilize those services makes "effect size" methodology an appropriate way to quantify this type of review (Wilkinson et al., 1999). Effect size methodology provides the magnitude of an effect (APA, 1994, 2010; Field, 2005) which is more insightful for this study. The following is the data analysis plan that was utilized to look at the effect size for both sets of variables under leadership outcomes and high-impact leadership practices.

The analysis plan began with a general inspection of the data, which involved looking at frequency statistics and cross tabulations for students who answered the two questions, allowing for identification of participation in CCSSPs. Students of color were isolated and only those who self-selected a single race of color were used. Racial sub-population percentages were compared to the overall institutional enrollment figures for parity. The analysis continued by running reliabilities and factor loadings for composite measures. Variables with a Cronbach's (1951) alpha of 0.7 or higher were used in the final review.

The first research sub-question (1a) asks: *Are there differences in leadership outcomes (i.e., efficacy, resiliency, capacity, and social perspective-taking) between students of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs?* The analytic approach to answer this question involved samples *t*-tests and chi-square statistics for relationships between dependent variables. Effect size analyses were conducted using Cohen's (1988) descriptive measure (i.e., *d*) for standardized differences between two means. The second sub-question (1b) asks: *Are there differences in leadership outcomes between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs and those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs?* The same steps above were repeated after isolating individual racial groups (e.g., Asian Americans, Latina/o).

Research sub-question 2a (i.e., first sub-question for primary question two) asks: *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between students of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs?* To answer this question, frequency analyses were conducted for each variable (e.g., mentorship experiences) for CCSSP users and non-users. Variable frequencies were reviewed based on whether or not they had engaged in the high-impact practice and the rate of that interaction. Samples *t*-tests were conducted to determine if frequency of participation was different between groups, followed by effect size calculations for the magnitude of difference. The same process was repeated for the last sub-question (2b): *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs?*

Chapter Summary

The primary purpose of this study is to look at the potential impact of CCSSP's on predictors and outcomes of socially responsible leadership for students of color. The study is guided by two primary questions:

1. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership development outcomes for students of color?

2. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?

Data collected from the 2012 MSL was examined to answer the research questions.

The MSL is a cross-sectional research design that relies on self-reported student data. The theoretical foundation of the MSL is the social change model (SCM) of leadership development (HERI, 1996). The SCM emphasizes leadership as a collective, collaborative, values-based, and service focused process (Kezar et al., 2006). The conceptual model for the MSL is a modified version of Astin's (1993a) inputs-environments-outcomes (I-E-O) college impact model. For this study, the conceptual model only utilizes environmental factors and outcomes. This was accomplished by drawing linkages between leadership literature and CCSSP core features (e.g., mentoring relationships, engagement, academic support) and high-impact leadership practices (e.g., on- and off-campus involvement, community service, etc.) which are in turn cited as predictors of leadership outcomes (e.g., efficacy, capacity).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to look at the potential impact race-specific cultural centers and student support programs (CCSSPs) have on the leadership development of the students they serve. The primary questions guiding this research were:

1. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership outcomes for students of color?

2. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?

A combination of independent samples *t*-tests and chi-square analyses were utilized to answer the primary questions. Effect sizes were calculated to measure the magnitude of the differences of the findings (American Psychological Association, 1994, 2010; Cohen, 1988; Field, 2005).

Data Review and Coding

The sample characteristics and the responses used for the final analysis reflect information that was drawn after rigorous data cleaning and coding. Only those students who answered one or both of the two customized questions added to the local MSL instrument for the sample institution were included in the final data set. The two questions were (1) *To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following offices at* [institution name]: [student support program names inserted]? and (2) *To what extent have you taken advantage of services through any of the following*

cultural centers at [institution name]: [cultural center names inserted]? Table 2 illustrates

what students reported as their level of CCSSP utilization.

The responses to the two questions were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment

Correlation (PMMC). The results demonstrated a .96 correlation that was statistically

significant between both groups of respondents. Because of the high degree of

correlation, a composite measure was created and named CCSSP Usage. The process for

creating the new composite variable included the summing of the responses followed by

dividing the sums by two to create a mean score that reflects the original range. The total

number of cases for the CCSSP Usage composite measure remained at 201. The two

missing responses for cultural centers and the three for student support programs

illustrated in Table 2 were included because each reported having utilized the other type

of CCSSP. Before utilizing the new CCSSP Usage composite measure, a test for

reliability using Cronbach's alpha resulted in a high reliability rate of .98.

Table 2. Cultural Center and Student Support Program Usage

		Cultural Center		Support Program		Composite	
Answer Options		**Freq**	**Percent**	**Freq**	**Percent**	**Freq**	**Percent**
	Never	130	65%	129	64%	130	65%
	Sometimes	49	24%	48	24%	49	24%
	Often	10	5%	10	5%	13	6.5%
	Very Often	9	5%	12	6%	9	4.5%
	Total	198	99%	199	99%	201	100%
Missing	System	3	2%	2	1%	0%	0%
Total		201	100%	201	100%	201	100%

Descriptive frequencies for the new CCSSP Usage variable show that slightly

more than 64% of participants reported never having used a CCSSP. The 35% ($N = 71$) of

students who reported having utilized CCSSPs reflected 5% as *very often*, 7% as *often*,

and 24% as *sometimes.* Given the small number of responses, coupled with the focus of this study on students who used CCSSPs in comparison with those who did not, the variable for CCSSP usage was dichotomized (i.e., transformed so that 0 = *never used* and 1 = *used*).

A cross tabulation of the dichotomized CCSSP Usage variable by race revealed a utilization distribution of 16% for African American students, 35% for Asian American/Asian students, 26% for Latina/o students, 7% for Middle Eastern students, 12% for Multiracial students, and 4% who did not indicate their race. Table 3 provides a more detailed illustration of CCSSP use by race.

Table 3. CCSSP Use by Race

CCSSP Usage	African American	Asian American	Latina/o	Middle Eastern	Multi-racial	Race Not Included	Total
Used							
Count	20	8	37	3	2	1	71
% within	63%	11%	70%	21%	8%	14%	35%
Never used							
Count	12	62	16	11	23	6	130
% within	38%	89%	30%	79%	92%	86%	65%
Total							
Count	32	70	53	14	25	7	201
% within	16%	35%	26%	7%	12%	4%	100%

The number of students who identified as Middle Eastern, multiracial, Native American, White and students who did not report their racial background was either zero or too low for statistical measurement. Table 4 provides the illustration of the final study sample.

Table 4. Study Sample by CCSSP Use and Race

CCSSP Usage		African American	Asian American	Latina/o	Total
Used	Count	20	8	37	65
	% within	62%	11%	70%	42%
Never used	Count	12	62	16	90
	% within	38%	89%	30%	58%
Total	Count	32	70	53	155
	% within	21%	45%	34%	100%

Findings for Question 1

To answer the first question, the analysis focused on exploring two supporting sub-questions. The first sub-question (i.e., question 1a) asked: *Are there differences in leadership outcomes* (i.e., efficacy, capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking) *between students of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs*? Table 5 provides the means and standard deviations from the independent samples *t*-test along with the effect sizes for all of the results.

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for Leadership Outcomes by CCSSP Usage

Dependent Measures	Used		Never Used		t(2,153)	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD		
Leadership Efficacy	3.0	.72	3.0	.76	.31	.1
Leadership Capacity	4.2	.48	4.2	.53	.51	.1
Resiliency	3.9	.67	3.8	.73	.69	.1
Social Perspective-Taking	3.8	.81	3.9	.77	-.70	-.1

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq .2$. ** $d \geq .5$. *** $d \geq .8$.

For the first leadership outcome, *efficacy*, there was no meaningful difference found between CCSSP users and non-users (*t* [153] = .31, *p* >.05) which was further

supported by a trivial .1 effect size. Similar results for the remaining leadership outcomes

(i.e., *capacity, t* [153] = .51, *p* >.05, *d* = .1; *resiliency, t* [153] = .69, *p* >.05, *d* = .1; *social*

perspective-taking, t [153] = -.70, *p* >.05, *d* = -.1) revealed no reportable effect sizes

between CCSSP users and those who did not use the centers. The findings thus far reveal

no meaningful differences between CCSSP users and non-users across all leadership

outcomes.

The second sub-question (i.e., question 1b) asked: *Are there differences in*

leadership outcomes between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs and

those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs? To answer this question, independent

samples *t*-tests and effect size analyses were conducted for each individual racial group.

Highlights from these analyses are provided in the following section. A full description of

the results can be found in Table 6.

For African American students, differences in scores were found for *social*

perspective-taking (*t*[30] = -2.09, *p* = < .05) between CCSSP users (*M* = 3.91; *SD* = .75)

and CCSSP non-users (*M* = 4.45; *SD* =.63). Further analysis for the effect size for *social*

perspective-taking revealed a large Cohen's *d* (-.8) pointing to CCSSP non-users. The

outcomes of *capacity* (*t*[30] = -.71, *p* = >.05) and *resiliency* (*t*[30] = -.57, *p* = >.05) were

found to have small meaningful effect sizes (capacity *d* = -.3 & resiliency *d* = -.2) but

results again pointed to CCSSP non-users. Results for *efficacy* (*t*[30] = .07, *p* = >.05) did

not reveal any measurable differences between CCSSP users and non-users. These

findings indicate that African American students who do not use CCSSPs demonstrated

higher levels of leadership capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking than their peers who used CCSSPs.

For Asian American students, small meaningful effect sizes for *efficacy* (t[68] = .72, $p = >.05$, $d = .3$) and *capacity* (t[68] = .67, $p = >.05$, $d = .3$) emerged. Both of these results point to Asian American students who used CCSSPs. These results demonstrate Asian American CCSSP users with meaningfully higher leadership outcome scores in efficacy and capacity when compared with their peers who were uninvolved in CCSSPs.

Latina/o student leadership outcome analyses uncovered small meaningful Cohen's *d* effect size measures for *capacity* (t[51] = -.58, $p = >.05$, $d = -.2$), *resiliency* (t[51] = -1.01, $p = >.05$, $d = -.3$), and *social perspective-taking* (t[51] = -.73, $p = >.05$, $d = -.2$). All of these results point to Latina/o students who did not utilize a CCSSP. Overall, Latina/o students who did not use a CCSSP reported greater scores that were meaningfully different in leadership capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking when compared to their peers who used CCSSPs.

Findings for Question 2

The second primary question asked: *What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?* Tables 7 and 8 provide the results of the independent samples *t*-tests, chi-square statistics for categorical dependent measures, and effect size measures. Chi-square analysis was used to answer the question for *identity-based student organization* and *multicultural Greek-letter student organizations* because of their dichotomous nature (i.e., students answered yes or no only). The following is a summary of the findings.

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for Leadership Outcomes by CCSSP Usage and Race

Dependent Measures	Leadership Efficacy					Leadership Capacity					Resiliency					Social Perspective-Taking				
	Used		Never				Used		Never				Used		Never				Used		Never				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*
African American	3.23	.64	3.21	.73	.07(30)	.0	4.35	.48	4.48	.46	-.71(30)	-.3*	4.04	.62	4.18	.79	-0.57(30)	-.2*	3.91	.75	4.45	.63	-2.09(30)*	-.8***
Asian American	3.19	.61	2.98	.78	.72(68)	.3*	4.21	.38	4.09	.50	.67(68)	.3*	3.64	.85	3.68	.70	-0.17(68)	-.1	3.68	.49	3.76	.74	-0.31(68)	-.1
Latina/o	2.90	.77	2.91	.73	-.03(51)	-.0	4.12	.50	4.22	.61	-.58(51)	-.2*	3.88	.64	4.08	.69	-1.01(51)	-.3*	3.76	.90	3.95	.83	-0.73(51)	-.2*

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq .2$. ** $d \geq .5$. *** $d \geq .8$.

Sub-question 2a asked: *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between students of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to students of color who do not use CCSSPs?* Two high-impact practices emerged with differences in scores and meaningful effect sizes. For *faculty mentorship,* differences in scores (t[153] = 3.34, p = < .001) and a moderate effect size were found (d = .5) between CCSSP users (M = 2.46; SD = 1.29) and CCSSP non-users (M = 1.82; SD =1.09). Similarly, *staff mentoring* was found to have a difference in scores and a moderate effect size (t[153] = 3.16, p = < .01; d = .5) between CCSSP users (M = 2.58; SD = 1.33) and CCSSP non-users (M = 1.96; SD =1.14). *Sociocultural conversations* emerged with a small meaningful Cohen's d of .3. The rates of participation with *faculty* and *staff mentoring* along with *sociocultural conversations* were reported to be greater by CCSSP users when compared to students who did not utilize CCSSPs. No meaningful effect sizes were found for *peer mentoring*, *student organization leadership position* and *membership*, *off-campus organization leadership position* and *membership*, or *community service*. See Table 7 for more details.

Chi-square tests of independence were preformed to examine the relationship between *identity-based student organization* involvement and CCSSP usage and between *multicultural Greek-letter student organization* involvement and CCSSP usage. For identity-based student organization involvement, meaningful differences were discovered: X^2 (1, N =155) = 6.67, p < .01. Analysis for effect size further supported this finding with a small Cohen's d of .4 which pointed to CCSSP users. Involvement in multicultural Greek-letter student organizations did not emerge with reportable Chi-

square test results (X^2 [1, $N = 155]$ = 3.08, p > .05) but a Cohen's d of .3 did reveal a small effect size. Once again, the overall sample's involvement in multicultural Greek-letter student organizations was reported at a higher rate by CCSSP users when compared to students who did not use a CCSSP. Overall, these findings indicate that CCSSP users were involved in identity-based and multicultural Greek-letter student organizations at a rate that is meaningfully higher than their peers who did not use a CCSSP. Table 8 provides more details of these findings.

The final sub-question (i.e., question 2b) asked: *Are there differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between individual racial groups of color who utilize CCSSPs when compared to those same racial groups who do not use CCSSPs?* For African American students, findings emerged in a number of areas. Results for *faculty mentoring* revealed a moderate effect size (t[30] = 1.5, p => .05, d = .5) pointing to African American CCSSP users. For *staff mentoring* experiences, results show differences pointing to African American CCSSP users (t[30] = 2.92, p = <.01) which was further supported by a large 1.1 Cohen's d effect size measure. *Peer mentoring* was found to have an intermediate effect size (t[30] = 1.4, p => .05, d = .5) which also pointed to African American CCSSP users. Similarly, results for *sociocultural conversations* revealed a small effect size measure (t[30] = .53, p => .05, d = .2) for CCSSP users when compared to their peers who were uninvolved in CCSSPs. Students who reported having served as a *positional leader in a student organization* emerged with a large effect size measure (t[30] = 1.98, p => .05, d = .8) that again pointed to CCSSP users. For *student organization membership,* the analysis uncovered a medium effect size

(t[30] = 1.51, p = > .05, d = .6) pointing to African American students involved in

CCSSPs. *Community service* was found to have a small effect size measure (t[30] = .58,

p = > .05, d = .2) between CCSSP users (M = 2.4; SD = 1.1) and non-users (M = 2.2; SD

= 1.0). Involvement in *identity-based student organizations* was found to have a large 1.6

Cohen's *d* effect size measure pointing once again to CCSSP users. Overall, African

American CCSSP users demonstrated meaningfully higher rates of participation with

faculty, staff and *peer mentoring*, *sociocultural conversations, student organization*

membership and *leadership position, community service* and *identity-based student*

organization membership. The remaining high-impact leadership practices (i.e., *off-*

campus organization leadership position, off-campus organization membership) did not

emerge with meaningful differences between African American CCSSP users and non-

users.

Table 7. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for High-Impact
Leadership Practices and CCSSP Usage

Dependent Measures	Used		Never Used			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,153)*	*Cohen's d*
Mentoring–Faculty	2.46	1.29	1.82	1.09	3.34***	.5**
Mentoring–Peers	2.51	1.32	2.42	1.24	.41	.1
Mentoring–Staff	2.58	1.33	1.96	1.14	3.16**	.5**
Sociocultural Conversations	2.72	.82	2.47	.82	1.84	.3*
Stud Org–Leadership Pos	2.14	1.60	1.92	1.48	.87	.1
Stud Org–Member	3.00	1.60	2.93	1.52	.26	.0
Community Service	2.55	1.15	2.47	1.08	.48	.1
Off-Campus Org–Leadership Pos	1.60	1.18	1.71	1.27	- .55	- .1
Off-Campus Org–Member	2.17	1.46	2.23	1.49	- .27	- .0

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq$ .2. ** $d \geq$ .5. *** $d \geq$ .8.

Table 8. Chi-Square Analyses of Identity-Based and Multicultural Greek-letter Student Organizations

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Usage		X²	df	Cohen's d
	Used	Never Used			
Identity-Based Student Org Yes	49%	29%	6.67**	1	.4*
Identity-Based Student Org No	51%	71%			
Multicultural Greek-letter Stud Org Yes	17%	8%	3.08	1	.3*
Multicultural Greek-letter Stud Org No	83%	92%			

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq$ .2. ** $d \geq$ .5. *** $d \geq$ .8.
[a] Indicates analyses violated the minimum expected cell frequency and results may not be representative.

Findings emerged for most of the high-impact practices for Asian American CCSSP users. For the first practice, *faculty mentoring*, a moderate effect size (*d* = .7) was found between CCSSP users (*M* = 2.8; *SD* = 1.2) and non-users (*M* = 1.9; *SD* = 1.1). *Peer mentoring* emerged with a large .8 effect size measure between CCSSP users (*M* = 3.5; *SD* = 1.1) and non-users (*M* = 2.6; *SD* = 1.3). A small meaningful effect size pointing to CCSSP users was found for students who experienced *staff mentoring* (*d* = .2), *student organization leadership position* (*d* =.2)*, student organization membership* (*d* = .3), *community service* (*d* = .3), and *off-campus organization leadership position* (*d* = .2). Finally, *sociocultural conversations* was found to have a medium effect size (*d* = .5) that once again pointed to CCSSP users. These results demonstrate that Asian American students who use CCSSPs report meaningfully greater rates of participation in most of the high impact practices with the exception of *off-campus organization membership,*

identity-based student organizations, and *multicultural Greek-letter student*

organizations.

For Latino/a students, *faculty mentoring* emerged with a moderate effect size ($d = .7$) between CCSSP users ($M = 2.6$; $SD = 1.3$) and non-users ($M = 1.7$; $SD = 1.1$). Similarly, a moderate effect size was found for *staff mentoring* ($d = .5$) between CCSSP users ($M = 2.5$; $SD = 1.3$) and non-users ($M = 1.9$; $SD = 1.3$). *Sociocultural conversations* ($d = .4$) and *community service* ($d = .3$) emerged with small effect sizes and both results pointed to Latina/o CCSSP users. The results for Latina/o students demonstrate that CCSSPs users reported meaningfully higher rates of participation with *faculty* and *staff mentoring, sociocultural conversations*, and *community service*. No findings emerged for Latino/a students for the remaining seven high-impact practices (i.e., *peer mentoring, student organization leadership position, student organization membership, off-campus organization leadership position, off-campus organization membership, identity-based student organization, multicultural Greek-letter student organization*).

Table 9. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for Mentorship and CCSSP Usage by Race

Dependent Measures	Mentorship / Faculty						Mentorship / Peer						Mentorship / Staff					
	Used		Never				Used		Never				Used		Never			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*
African American	2.1	1.3	1.5	.9	1.5(30)	.5**	2.7	1.4	2.0	1.0	1.4(30)	.5**	3.0	1.4	1.7	.9	2.92(30)**	1.1***
Asian American	2.8	1.2	1.9	1.1	2.0(68)*	.7**	3.5	1.1	2.6	1.3	2.0(68)*	.8***	2.2	1.4	2.0	1.2	.5(68)	.2*
Latina/o	2.6	1.3	1.7	1.1	2.4(51)*	.7**	2.2	1.2	2.2	1.2	.1(51)	.0	2.5	1.3	1.9	1.3	1.5(51)	.5**

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq .2$. ** $d \geq .5$. *** $d \geq .8$.

Table 10. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for Sociocultural Conversations and Student Organization Involvement by CCSSP Usage and Race

Dependent Measures	Sociocultural Conversations						Student Org / Leader Pos						Student Org / Member					
	Used		Never				Used		Never				Used		Never			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*
African American	2.7	.76	2.5	.99	.53(30)	.2*	2.4	1.7	1.3	.7	1.98(30)	.8***	3.3	1.6	2.4	1.4	1.51(30)	.6**
Asian American	2.9	.85	2.5	.79	1.37(68)	.5**	2.4	1.9	2.1	1.6	.51(68)	.2*	3.5	1.5	3.1	1.4	.71(68)	.3*
Latina/o	2.7	.86	2.4	.85	1.20(51)	.4*	2.0	1.5	1.8	1.5	.36(51)	.1	2.8	1.6	2.6	1.8	.26(51)	.1

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.
* $d \geq .2$. ** $d \geq .5$. *** $d \geq .8$.

Table 11. Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent Samples *t*-test for Off-Campus Activities by CCSSP Usage and Race

Dependent Measures	Community Service						Off-Camp Org / Leader Pos						Off-Camp Org / Member					
	Used		Never				Used		Never				Used		Never			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(2,df)*	*d*
African American	2.4	1.1	2.2	1.0	.58(30)	.2[*]	1.5	1.2	1.4	1.0	.20(30)	.1	2.0	1.5	1.9	1.4	.16(30)	.1
Asian American	2.9	.8	2.6	1.0	.78(68)	.3[*]	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.3	.42(68)	.2[*]	2.5	1.7	2.3	1.5	.38(68)	.1
Latina/o	2.6	1.2	2.3	1.3	.85(51)	.3[*]	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.3	-.17(51)	-.1	2.2	1.4	2.3	1.7	-.13(51)	-.0

[*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.
[*] $d \geq .2$. [**] $d \geq .5$. [***] $d \geq .8$.

Table 12. Chi-Square Analyses for Identity-Based and Multicultural Greek-letter Student Organizations by CCSSP Usage

Dependent Measures		African American					Asian American					Latina/o				
		Used	Never	X^2	*df*	*d*	Used	Never	X^2	*df*	*d*	Used	Never	X^2	*df*	*d*
Identity-based Stud Org	Yes	80%	17%	12.2[***]	1	1.6[***]	63%	39%	1.7[a]	1	.3[*]	30%	0%	6.0*[a]	1	.7[**]
	No	20%	83%				38%	61%				70%	100%			
Multicultural Greek-letter Stud Org	Yes	20%	0%	2.7[a]	1	0.6[**]	25%	10%	1.6[a]	1	.3[*]	14%	6%	0.6[a]	1	.2[*]
	No	80%	100%				75%	90%				86%	94%			

[*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.
[*] $d \geq .2$. [**] $d \geq .5$. [***] $d \geq .8$.
Note. Distributions listed above represent the percentage of participation or non-participation in CCSSPs
[a] Indicates analyses violated the minimum expected cell frequency and results may not be representative.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed outline of the study sample along with a comprehensive review of the findings. Independent samples *t*-tests, chi-square analyses, and assessments for effect size measures were used to answer the four research sub-questions. Findings for the first question revealed no meaningful differences in the levels of *leadership efficacy*, *capacity*, *resiliency,* or *social perspective-taking* for the overall sample between students who utilized CCSSPs and those who never used their services.

The second research question looked at the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership outcomes by racial groups. The results revealed meaningful effect sizes that pointed to African American and Latina/o CCSSP non-users for *leadership capacity*, *resiliency,* and *social perspective-taking*. Asian American CCSSP users, on the other hand, were found to have meaningful effect sizes for *leadership efficacy* and *capacity*.

The final two research questions looked at the differences in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices between CCSSP users and CCSSP non-users. For the overall sample, reportable effect sizes were found for *faculty* and *staff mentoring experiences*, *sociocultural conversations*, *identity-based student organizations,* and *multicultural Greek-letter student organizations*. All of these results pointed to CCSSP users.

Once the data were disaggregated by race, a large number of findings emerged. African American CCSSP users demonstrated meaningfully higher rates of participation with *faculty*, *staff* and *peer mentoring*, *sociocultural conversations*, *student organization membership* and *leadership position*, *community service,* and *membership in identity-*

*based student organization*s. The results also demonstrated that Asian American students who use CCSSPs reported meaningfully greater rates of participation in all of the high-impact practices with the exception of *off-campus organization membership, identity-based student organizations,* and *multicultural Greek-letter student organizations.* The results for Latina/o students all pointed to those who used CCSSPs and they demonstrated meaningfully higher rates of participation with *faculty* and *staff mentoring*, *sociocultural conversations*, and *community service*.

The following chapter will provide a detailed discussion and interpretation of the findings. Study limitations will also be shared in an effort to better situate the results for higher education. Chapter five will conclude with implications for practice along with recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This final chapter will serve as a culmination of the entire study. A brief summary of the problem statement, literature review, and methodology is provided here, followed by a summation, in-depth discussion, and interpretation of the findings. The remaining sections discuss implications for higher education and opportunities for future research, as well as perceived study limitations.

Statement of the Problem

Higher education's original promise to develop tomorrow's leaders has faced many challenges since the 1960s, when students of color first described their environments as discriminatory and isolating places (MacDonald et al., 2007; Patton, 2010; Stewart, 2011; Thelin, 2004). Their discontent catalyzed the 1970s student movements (Williamson, 1999), which eventually led to the creation of the first race-specific cultural centers and student support programs (CCSSPs; Kerr, 1991; Patton, 2005, 2006, 2010; Thelin, 2004; Young, 1986). Many CCSSPs are still in existence today, yet empirical studies on their impact on students of color is virtually non-existent (Patton, 2010). If higher education is to answer calls for more attention and resources on leadership development (AACU, 2007; NASPA, & ACPA, 2004), it is essential that the needs of students of color be immediately addressed. This study offers a foundation for future research on students of color by looking at the potential impact CCSSPs have on

their leadership development. The following relevant literature provides the necessary context and theoretical foundation for such future research opportunities.

Summary of Literature Review

Despite higher education's founding principle of developing society's next generation of leaders, studies that focus on college student leadership development did not begin in earnest until the 1990s (Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2008, Komives, 2011; Thelin, 2004). Most theoretical models used to describe college student leadership are thought to reflect postindustrial perspectives that place leadership as a collective and socially conscious process (Komives et al., 2009; Northouse, 2010; Rost, 1991). Within this contemporary paradigm, scholars argued for a more comprehensive look at the influence of other social constructions, such as race, on leadership (Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Ospina & Foldy, 2009; Ospina & Su, 2009).

It is important to consider the complex psychological influences of social identity in general, and racial identity in particular, for college student leadership development (Day et al., 2009; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). If social justice is to be a critical outcome of leadership development (AACU, 2007; Astin & Astin, 2000; Komives et al., 2013; NASPA & ACPA, 2004) then considering the potential impact of race is necessary (Ospina & Su, 2009). CCSSPs provide an ideal setting for consideration as an environment that may treat leadership and race as mutually influential. The following is an overview of CCSSP common core features and their potential connections to leadership development.

The first CCSSP core feature is *college access*, which can be tied to studies that have found college student engagement (Antonio, 2001; Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Komives et al., 2006; Renn & Ozaki, 2010) and community service (Astin et al., 2002; Astin et al., 2000; Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) as positive influences on leadership development for students of color. The second core feature, CCSSPs as *safe spaces* for conversations around differences, appears to reflect what many studies have reported as one of the most important predictors of leadership development for students of color: sociocultural conversations (Antonio, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2012; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013). The CCSSP core feature of *academic support* could not be linked to leadership development, but a relationship was found with racial identity development (Pope, 2000) and to the level of leadership involvement (Harper, 2006a).

CCSSPs as centers for *student engagement* have the potential of impacting leadership development in specific areas such as community service (Astin et al., 2000; Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2012; 2010; Kezar and Moriarty, 2000; Sutton & Terell, 1997), identity-based student organizations involvement (Cokley, 2001; Flowers, 2004; Fries-Britt, 2000; Guardia & Evans, 2008; Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Inkelas; 2004; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001), and engagement in general student organizations (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, 2006; Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Many of the *cultural education/advocacy efforts* at CCSSPs support

the need for cross-cultural learning (Balón, 2005) and potentially play an import role in fostering a positive racial climate, which has been found to be correlated with resiliency, efficacy, and social perspective-taking (Dugan et al., 2012, 2014; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Furthermore, providing an environment where programming around cultural education open to all racial groups may help encourage students to engage in sociocultural conversations, which has been linked to both leadership and racial identity development (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Liang et al., 2002; Nuñez, 2009).

The final CCSSP core feature, *mentorship*, was divided into faculty, staff, and peer mentoring, where the linkages to leadership findings are mixed. For mentorship experiences with faculty, some studies associate it as a positive predictor of student leadership (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Komives et al., 2006; Thompson, 2006), while others did not find any significance for African American (Dugan et al., 2012; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) or Asian American students (Dugan et al., 2012). Studies that look at staff as mentors found that they help foster socially responsible leadership capacity (Campbell et al., 2012). Other findings indicate that both staff and peer mentoring were linked to positive relationships with leadership development for students of color (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010), for Latina/o students (Bordes & Arredondo, 2005; Dugan et al., 2012), and specifically for African American students (Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

Overall, the CCSSP core features described above appear to reflect what many scholars have found to influence or predict leadership for college students in general, and

for students of color in particular. As such, the present study was designed to look at the potential impact CCSSPs have on the students they serve.

Methods Overview

This study utilized data from the 2012 MSL to answer the following two primary questions:

1. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on leadership development outcomes for students of color?

2. What is the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation of students of color in high-impact leadership practices?

The MSL is an international research project created to examine the impact of the higher education experience on college student leadership development and leadership outcomes (MSL, 2012). The dataset for this dissertation drew from a single institution that participated in the 2012 administration of the MSL. The sample school offered students the opportunity to utilize various race-based CCSSPs (e.g., separate cultural centers and student support programs for African American, Asian American, and Latina/o students) and is categorized as a large, four-year, public, primarily nonresidential, research 1 institution with more than 17,000 undergraduates. Students of color comprised slightly more than 55% of the total undergraduate population during the year in which data were collected.

The MSL used a cross-sectional research design that relied on self-reported student data. Two additional questions were added to the local 2012 MSL instrument for

the participants at the sample school. The questions asked for their rate of participation in all types of CCSSPs.

The analytic approach for this study utilized an "effect size" methodology (Wilkinson et al., 1999). Effect size methodology goes beyond looking at differences and provides the magnitude of an effect (American Psychological Association, 1994, 2010; Field, 2005). Cohen's (1988) descriptive measure (i.e., *d*) for standardized differences between two means was used to conduct the effect size analyses. Other calculations included samples *t*-tests to compare means between CCSSP users and non-users, and chi-square analysis for relationships between dependent categorical variables.

Overview of Findings

Independent samples *t*-tests did not yield meaningful differences for any of the leadership outcomes (i.e., efficacy, capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking; e.g., efficacy, *t* [153] = .31, *p* >.05). Similarly, there were no meaningful effect sizes found for leadership outcomes for the sample as a whole (e.g., resiliency, *d* = .1). Overall, these results revealed no evidence of the potential impact CCSSPs have on the leadership development outcomes of students of color who use them. In other words, there were no differences in the scores for leadership efficacy, capacity, resiliency, or social perspective-taking between CCSSP users and non-users for students of color as a whole. This finding suggests that CCSSPs do not have an impact on leadership outcomes when students of color are analyzed as a homogenous group.

When the data were disaggregated by race, however, meaningful differences and unique findings for each racial group emerged. For African American and Latina/o

students, the findings for CCSSP non-users demonstrated small effect sizes with leadership capacity and resiliency when compared to their peers who used CCSSPs. Similarly, the leadership outcome of social perspective-taking for CCSSP non-users returned with a small effect size for Latina/o students and a large effect size for African American students. The only racial group of CCSSP users with meaningful reported leadership outcome scores that were higher than their peers who never used CCSSPs were Asian American students, as evidenced by small effect sizes for leadership efficacy and capacity. These findings mean that Latina/o and African American students who did *not* use CCSSPs not only reported higher scores for leadership capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking, but the differences between them and CCSSPs users were found to be meaningful. More explicitly, these findings appear to indicate that CCSSPs are not having an impact on leadership outcomes for Latina/o and African American students who use those centers. The opposite appears to be true for Asian American CCSSP users as they emerged with higher meaningful scores in leadership efficacy and capacity. Tables 13, 14, and 15 provide a visual of these findings.

Table 13. Leadership Outcome Findings for African American Students

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Leadership Capacity	--	$d = -.3$ (small effect)
Resiliency	--	$d = -.2$ (small effect)
Social Perspective-Taking	--	$d = -.8$ (large effect)

Table 14. Leadership Outcome Findings for Asian American Students

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Leadership Efficacy	$d = .3$ (small effect)	--
Leadership Capacity	$d = .3$ (small effect)	--

Table 15. Leadership Outcome Findings for Latina/o Students

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Leadership Capacity	--	$d = -.2$ (small effect)
Resiliency	--	$d = -.3$ (small effect)
Social Perspective-Taking	--	$d = -.2$ (small effect)

The second primary research question looked at the potential impact of CCSSPs on the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices. Results for the overall sample revealed greater participation rates with faculty and staff mentoring and with sociocultural conversations for CCSSP users (see table 16). Faculty and staff mentorship were both found to have moderate effect size measures and sociocultural conversations emerged with a small effect size. CCSSP users were also found to be involved in identity-based and multicultural Greek-letter student organizations at rates meaningfully higher than their peers who were uninvolved in CCSSPs as evidenced by small effect sizes. In other words, CCSSPs appear to be positively impacting the students of color's rates of participation in sociocultural conversations, identity-based and multicultural Greek-letter student organizations and, to a higher degree, with mentoring by faculty and staff.

Table 16. Findings for Students of Color High-Impact Leadership Practices

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Mentoring – Faculty	$d = .5$ (moderate effect)	--
Mentoring – Staff	$d = .5$ (moderate effect)	--
Sociocultural Conversations	$d = .3$ (small effect)	--
Identity-Based Student Org	$d = .4$ (small effect)	--
Multicultural Greek-letter Org	$d = .3$ (small effect)	--

Findings after disaggregating the data by race continued to demonstrate what appeared to be a more comprehensive picture of the potential impact CCSSPs have on

students of color. For African American students, staff mentoring was found to have a large effect size measure. A large effect size was also found for holding a leadership position in a student organization. Membership in a student organization and experiences with faculty and peer mentoring emerged with moderate effect size measures for African American students. Small meaningful effect size measures were found for community service and sociocultural conversations. Finally, African American CCSSP users were the only racial group with meaningfully higher rates of participation in identity-based student organizations as evidenced by a large effect size. All of the findings for African American students point to CCSSPs users, which indicates the potential positive impact CCSSPs are having on the rates of participation for the overwhelming majority of the high impact leadership practices. In other words, African American CCSSP users reported higher rates of involvement that were found to be meaningful in faculty, staff, and peer mentorship, sociocultural conversations, student organization membership and leadership positions therein, community service, and identity-based student organization membership when compared to their peers who did not use CCSSPs. See Table 17 for more information.

Table 17. Findings for African American Students High-Impact Leadership Practices

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Mentoring – Faculty	$d = .5$ (moderate effect)	--
Mentoring – Peers	$d = .5$ (moderate effect)	--
Mentoring – Staff	$d = 1.1$ (large effect)	--
Sociocultural Conversations	$d = .2$ (small effect)	--
Stud Org – Leadership Position	$d = .8$ (large effect)	--
Stud Org – Member	$d = .6$ (moderate effect)	--
Community Service	$d = .2$ (small effect)	--
Identity-Based Student Org	$d = 1.6$ (large effect)	--

Similarly, the results for Asian American students demonstrated that CCSSP users reported higher meaningful rates of participation with all but three of the high-impact leadership practices (Table 18). Faculty and peer mentoring emerged with a moderate and a large effect size measure, respectively. Sociocultural conversations also emerged with a moderate effect size. The other findings pointing to Asian American CCSSP users include small effect size measures for staff mentorship, membership and leadership position in student organizations, community service, and leadership positions in off-campus organizations. The Asian American CCSSP appears to be impacting students who use those centers, resulting in higher rates of participation in the majority of leadership practices.

Table 18. Findings for Asian American Students High-Impact Leadership Practices

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Mentoring – Faculty	d = .7 (moderate effect)	--
Mentoring – Peers	d = .8 (large effect)	--
Mentoring – Staff	d = .2 (small effect)	--
Sociocultural Conversations	d = .5 (moderate effect)	--
Stud Org – Leadership Pos	d = .2 (small effect)	--
Stud Org – Member	d = .3 (small effect)	--
Community Service	d = .3 (small effect)	--
Off-Camp Org – Leadership Pos	d = .2 (small effect)	--

Findings for Latina/o students were noticeably fewer than the other two racial groups. A moderate effect size was found for both faculty and staff mentoring. The final two results demonstrated small meaningful effect size measures for sociocultural conversations and community service. All results point to CCSSP users which indicates that Latina/o students involved in these centers were found with meaningfully higher rates of participation in faculty and staff mentorship, sociocultural conversations, and

community service. These results, while limited when compared to the other two racial groups of color, continue to demonstrate the potential positive impact CCSSPs are having on the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices of the students who use their centers (see Table 19).

Table 19. Findings for Latina/o Students High-Impact Leadership Practices

Dependent Measures	CCSSP Users	CCSSP Non-users
Mentoring – Faculty	$d = .7$ (moderate effect)	--
Mentoring – Staff	$d = .5$ (moderate effect)	--
Sociocultural Conversations	$d = .4$ (small effect)	--
Community Service	$d = .3$ (small effect)	--

Discussion and Interpretation

Given the large number of analyses conducted in this study, the interpretation of results will focus on seven major themes: significant overlap between cultural center and support program usage; greater rates of high-impact practices not translating into leadership outcome gains; faculty and staff mentoring matters for all students of color; meaningful differences masked in the aggregate; African American students and identity-based student organizations; Asian American students and CCSSPs' potential impact on efficacy and capacity; and Latina/o CCSSPs and high-impact leadership practices. This discussion begins with themes across the overall sample followed by themes for specific racial groups.

Significant Overlap Between Cultural Center and Student Support Program Usage

The first theme emerged from cleaning and preparing the data, rather than in direct response to one of the research questions. Nevertheless, it is critical and informed

the rest of the findings. This theme reflects the significant overlap in responses for the utilization of race-specific cultural centers and student support programs. While these two types of CCSSPs share many common core features, the distinction is between centers that focus on more cultural programming (i.e., cultural centers) versus centers that focus more on academic support (i.e., student support programs; Lozano, 2010; Ming Liu et al., 2010; Patton, 2010). Two questions were added to the local 2012 MSL instrument requesting rates of participation in each of the two types of CCSSPs. The replies for the two questions were analyzed and the result was a statistically significant .96 correlation between the two sets of answers. The high degree of correlation was not expected, which suggested that students either did not answer the two questions truthfully, did not know the difference between the two types of centers, or were involved in both types of CCSSPs.

As previously discussed, a rigorous cleaning process was conducted for the entire data set. The process included the elimination of entire records, even if there appeared to be erroneous responses to an individual question or a set of questions (i.e., scales and grouped questions) in the survey instrument. This, coupled with the wide range of different results for the overall sample and for individual racial groups, suggests that students were truthful in their responses. Thus, it is unlikely that falsified data was the reason for the overlap.

To consider the remaining two possibilities for the correlation, a post-hoc analysis (detailed below) was conducted to look at CCSSP usage by academic class standing, age, and generational status (see Table 20). The analysis for the overall sample did not reveal

any evidence for the correlation, but once the data were disaggregated by race, information emerged that appeared to discredit the idea that students fail to distinguish between the two types of CCSSPs. Coupled with previous research, these results support the claim that students utilize both types of CCSSPs (Inkelas, 2004; Patton, 2006, 2010; Perna & Titus, 2005; Williamson, 1999; Wong, 2011).

For all three racial groups who use CCSSPs, students appeared to be seeking as much assistance as possible. In other words, if a student used one type of CCSSP, they were equally likely to use the other, thus capitalizing on the resources of both. A variety of factors may help explain the reason(s) for this.

College generational status appeared to provide a partial answer to the suggestion that students are utilizing both types of CCSSPs. For example, 63% of Asian American and 65% of African American CCSSP users reported being second-generation college students or beyond. Additionally, 100% of Asian American and 80% of African American CCSSP users were under the age of 21. This suggests that, despite their younger age, the majority of both groups began their college careers with an increased level of social capital. Social capital is defined as the collective value of personal networks (people you know) and the level of information sharing and doing things for each other that helps facilitate educational advancement (Nuñez, 2009; Perna, 2007). Parental educational attainment is associated with higher levels of social capital, as well as post-secondary education decisions that take into account the level of institutional resources such as CCSSPs (Perna & Titus, 2005). Therefore, it seems likely that students

had knowledge of CCSSPs, the familial incentive to seek the support of both types of CCSSPs, or were referred to the second type of CCSSP by the first center.

For Asian American students in particular, the university in this study only offers one CCSSP (i.e., cultural and resource center combined) compared to separate cultural centers and student support programs for African American and Latina/o students. The lack of two unique centers (i.e., academic and cultural) supporting Asian American students deserves some additional attention. Based on their responses to the specific survey questions, it would appear that Asian American students receive support both from the Asian American cultural center and either the African American and/or Latina/o student support program. There are two possible explanations for this. First, this could have been a fault of how the survey questions were asked. Students were first asked about participation in academic support programs where the African American and Latina/o centers were listed specifically. They were then asked about participation in cultural centers where Black, Latina/o, and Asian American centers were specifically named. It is possible that an order effect (i.e., elicitation of different responses based on the sequence in which the questions were presented) may have caused Asian American students to see the first question and presume that their cultural center fit in that category but was simply left out (Schuman & Presser, 1981). Then, when presented with the second question, where the center was named specifically, they also responded yes. This would suggest that the way in which the questions were asked may have skewed the data and that Asian Americans largely use just the Asian American cultural center.

The idea that Asian American students utilize Latina/o and African American CCSSPs may seem unlikely. Other studies, however, have found that second-generation Asian American students do not limit their involvement to pan-Asian groups, but actively engage with non-Asian groups as well (Kibria, 1999, 2002; Inkelas, 2004; Wong, 2011). The results from this study could parallel findings from these studies, given that the majority of respondents in the Asian American student sample are at least second-generation. One explanation for this could be that the Asian American cultural center at the institution does not provide the same degree of support services for Asian American students that students of color receive from the Latina/o and African American CCSSPs. Therefore, if an Asian American student should have a need of tutoring or other significant academic assistance that may not exist or may be available only on a limited basis in the Asian American CCSSP, they may be referred to the other CCSSPs. If they are not referred to other CCSSPs, students may seek them out on their own. CCSSPs, regardless of their target racial group, appear to play an important role in the experiences of Asian American college students.

Table 20. Post-Hoc Analysis of CCSSP Usage for Age, Academic Class Standing, and Generational Status

	Age				Academic Class Standing				Generational Status			
	18-21		22+		Fr / Soph		Jr / Sr		1[st]Gen		Non 1[st]Gen	
CCSSP Usage	Users	Non	Users	Non	Users	Non	Users	Non	Users	Non	Users	Non
All Students	76%	64%	24%	36%	56%	48%	44%	52%	52%	26%	48%	74%
African American	80%	58%	20%	42%	45%	50%	55%	50%	35%	8%	65%	92%
Asian American	100%	73%	0%	26%	88%	56%	12%	44%	38%	21%	63%	79%
Latina/o	76%	69%	24%	31%	57%	56%	43%	44%	65%	69%	35%	31%

The prevalence of African American students utilizing both CCSSP formats may be explained by the large percentage of second-generation participants. Similar to Asian American students, 65% of African American CCSSP users were second-generation or beyond, which suggests that they had some familiarity with CCSSPs when entering college. More importantly, African American students do not generally limit where they seek to make connections with African American peers. For example, Harper (2006a) found that having peer interactions was the most important factor, outside of God and family, for their racial identity and leadership development. Seeking safe spaces to connect with ethnically- and racially-like peers was a vital coping mechanism in an environment that was viewed as unwelcoming and alienating. The study looked at high-achieving African American students, a population not always thought to seek the assistance of a CCSSP but one that may have a greater need due to the added isolation often associated with being academically successful. In addition to connecting with peers and providing academic support, African American students are known to seek CCSSPs for a number of other reasons including cultural learning, identity exploration, venues for sociopolitical collective action, and to establish a sense of belonging (Patton, 2006, 2010; Williamson, 1999).

Though the situation for Latina/o students was a bit different, they too reported utilizing both types of CCSSPs. Unlike their African American and Asian American peers, the majority of Latina/o students self-identified as first-generation (i.e., 65% CCSSP users, 69% non-users). First-generation Latina/o students were more likely to seek out and use CCSSPs because of a need to be a part of a safe and welcoming

community as a way to combat the marginalizing stigma of being perceived—or actually being—an undocumented person (Yosso & Lopez, 2010). CCSSPs serve as safe spaces of resistance and possibility where students create and participate in a counterspace that exhibits the cultural norms of their home communities (Yosso & Lopez, 2010). If they use one CCSSP format, then they are likely to use both. At this particular institution there is a strong collaborative relationship between the Latina/o cultural center and the student support program. Therefore, if students found their way to one, they were likely to find their way to both. This seems even more likely because *every* incoming Latina/o student is physically taken to the centers as part of their first-year orientation to the institution.

Greater Rates of High-impact Practices Not Translating into Leadership Outcome Gains

CCSSPs provide a platform that integrates high-impact leadership practices into their general day-to-day services. Students can find social and academic support from peers, staff, and faculty as they cope with what they often perceive as hostile and unwelcoming campus environments (MacDonald et al., 2007; Patton, 2010; Stewart, 2011; Young, 1986). More explicitly, CCSSPs provide culturally sensitive safe spaces where students can engage in identity exploration, cultural learning, out-of- classroom relationship-building with peers and university personnel, student organization involvement, and community service and outreach (Patton, 2006, 2010). Therefore it was no surprise to find meaningful differences pointing to CCSSP users in sociocultural conversations, peer and staff mentoring, identity-based student organizations, and multicultural Greek-letter organization involvement. However, higher rates of

participation by CCSSP users in these high-impact leadership practices did not necessarily translate into meaningfully different scores across leadership outcomes when compared to students of color who did not use CCSSPs.

One explanation for this is that students who do not engage in CCSSPs may be learning these leadership skills elsewhere through other practices. The impact of using a CCSSP may be comparable to the impact that other campus-wide programs have on those who do not utilize CCSSPs. CCSSPs may be playing a vital role in providing alternative leadership development opportunities to students of color who may otherwise not be involved if CCSSPs did not exist. Students of color have been found to avoid formal leadership programs, in part due to their disdain for the use of the term "leader" and because of the more traditional leader-centric approaches taken by formal programs (Arminio et al., 2000). Many formal leadership programs mirror broader leadership practices which use color-blind approaches and neglect other important factors such as models of racial identity development or social change, factors which are considered integral for students of color (Day et al., 2009; Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Ospina & Foldy, 2009).

Another reason for the lack of differences in leadership outcome scores may have to do with how CCSSPs were or were not helping students interpret their experiences with high-impact leadership practices. For example, one of the practices in the present study, where the overall sample of CCSSP users surfaced with higher rates of participation, was sociocultural conversations, a practice believed to have a significant influence on leadership development (Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010;

Harper, 2006a; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Liang et al., 2002; Nuñez, 2009; Ospina & Foldy 2009; Ospina & Su, 2009). CCSSPs, however, may fail to help students make the connection between what they are learning when engaging in conversations across differences and leadership, and may instead focus on cultural diversity. Another example may be CCSSPs users' involvement in identity-based student organizations (Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010) and multicultural Greek-letter organizations (Guardia & Evans, 2008). If efforts are not made to help CCSSP users better understand why they are drawn to these organizations, or how they may be experiencing leadership differently in comparison to other groups, leadership development of CCSSP users may not be fully appreciated. Evidence suggests that if links between learning from high-impact practices and leadership are not made explicit, then students may not make the implicit connections (Smart, Ethington, Riggs, & Thompson, 2002).

A third explanation for the lack of differences in leadership outcomes between CCSSP users and non-users may be academic class standing. In most of the studies referenced above, the samples either focused on, or were made up of, predominantly upper academic class standing students (i.e., juniors and seniors; e.g., Dugan & Komives, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). The respondents in this study consisted of slightly more than 50% first-year and sophomore students, so the full impact of involvement in CCSSPs on leadership development may not yet be realized.

Finally, the lack of leadership outcome differences between CCSSP users and non-users may also be a function of racial identity salience. Although not measured here,

students with high racial identity salience often develop in-group capacities which have been found to negatively predict socially responsible leadership development (Dugan et al., 2012). High identity salience could make students overly dependent on their racial groups for interpreting negative experiences with other groups, developing coping mechanisms, or receiving general support. Thus, capacity to work across groups (characteristic of the Social Change Model), the ability to foster social bonds, and social perspective-taking skills may be lower (Dugan et al., 2014).

While the lack of differences in leadership outcome scores between CCSSP users and non-users were unexpected, it is important to reiterate that college student leadership development is not an explicit focus of CCSSPs (Patton, 2012) but rather an implicit benefit resulting from the ideal setting and set of core features. CCSSP programs and services are instead intended to directly affect college access and other college outcomes such as retention and degree attainment (CITE). When considering this coupled with *all* of the results of this study pointing to higher rates of high-impact leadership practices among CCSSP users, the important work being done at CCSSPs appear to be positively affecting students of color in multi-faceted ways.

Faculty and Staff Mentoring Matters for All Students of Color

Most of the findings for this study came from faculty and staff mentoring, thus making these high-impact practices worth further discussion. Faculty and staff mentoring yielded moderate effect sizes for the overall sample of CCSSP users. Once the data were disaggregated by race, faculty mentorship was found with a moderate effect size and staff mentorship with a large effect size for African American CCSSP users. For Asian

American and Latina/o CCSSP users, moderate effect sizes surfaced for faculty mentoring. Staff mentoring was found with a small effect size for Asian American CCSSP users and a moderate effect size for Latina/o CCSSP users. These results demonstrated that students of color who are utilizing CCSSPs engaged in mentoring experiences with faculty and staff at meaningfully higher rates than their peers who did not utilize CCSSPs.

Researchers are of differing opinions on whether faculty mentorship impacts leadership development for students of color. For African American students, Kezar and Moriarty (2000) concluded that faculty interactions outside of the classroom setting did not serve as a predictor for leadership development. Dugan et al. (2012), however, found that faculty interaction outside the classroom was a significant positive predictor for leadership capacity for African American and Asian American students. They also found that faculty mentoring was insignificant for Latina/o students, a finding further supported by Kodama and Dugan (2013) who looked at predictors for leadership efficacy and found no significant influence for any racial group of color.

Unlike interactions with faculty, studies of staff mentorship appeared to be more consistent and support the practice as a positive influence (or predictor) of leadership development. Increased engagement with student affairs staff mentors is expected to foster leadership development for Latina/o students (Dugan et al., 2012), African American students (Kodama & Dugan, 2013), and college students in general (Campbell et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Despite the increased mentoring experiences of CCSSP users, differences in leadership outcome scores were not found for all three racial groups. The reason for this may be the type of mentor and how students are being mentored. Campbell et al. (2012) concluded that the type of mentor (i.e., faculty, staff, peer) makes a difference. Mentors "who are able to assist students in developing along personal and psychosocial lines yield better leadership outcomes…when leadership is defined in contemporary terms using the social change model" (p. 23). This may account for the inconsistent findings for faculty mentoring versus the more positive research results for student affairs mentoring.

Students may be more likely to seek faculty mentors because of their prominent teaching role in the college setting, as faculty focus more on academic and career development. Mentors who are student affairs professionals, on the other hand, are more likely to utilize approaches that are more grounded in student-identity, learning, and leadership-development theories. In doing so, staff mentors can also help students make connections between their experiences and leadership development. The results of this study demonstrate that CCSSPs may already be playing an important role in helping students of color engage with student affairs staff in mentoring relationships.

Meaningful Differences Masked in the Aggregate

The fourth theme identified in the present study highlights the importance of disaggregating data for more meaningful information. When students of color were treated as one group, no meaningful differences between CCSSP users and non-users were found across any leadership outcomes, or across more than half of the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices. Once the data were disaggregated by

race, however, important findings emerged (e.g., meaningfully higher leadership capacity for Asian American CCSSP users and Latina/o CCSSP non-users). This is consistent with scholarly calls to disaggregate data, particularly by racial-group membership (Dugan et al., 2012; Pascarella & Terenzini 2006).

This makes sense when one considers the significant differences that exist (e.g., racist experiences, cultural values, languages, historical immigration patterns, among others) between how Asian American, Latina/o, and African American students experience "being" a person of color in this country (Alvarez, 2002; Evans, et al., 2010; Chen, Lephuoc, Guzman, Rude, & Dodd, 2006; Helms, 1990; Museus & Kiang, 2009; Torres, 1999). This suggests that students have differing experiences, and these experiences get masked when diverse students are embedded in pervasively White samples or are treated as a homogeneous group. Whereas unique findings for a number of leadership outcomes and high-impact practices have been discussed in previous sections, the following focuses on five high-impact practices that did not emerge with any findings in the aggregate, but appeared as unique and meaningful differences once the data were analyzed by racial group.

The first practice is *peer mentoring*. A medium effect size was found for African American CCSSP users, and a large effect size was found for Asian American CCSSP users. CCSSP users for both racial groups appeared to engage in peer mentoring at higher rates than their peers who did not utilize CCSSPs. This is important as peer mentoring has been shown to have a positive influence on leadership development for African American and Asian American students (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Poon, 2013).

For the Asian American CCSSP users in particular, this finding makes sense since the Asian American CCSSP has a well-established peer mentoring program.

The second high-impact practice with unique findings is holding a *leadership position* in a student organization. Findings included a large effect size for African American students and a small effect size for Asian American students. Both of these point to CCSSP users, demonstrating once again the potential positive influence that CCSSPs have on the rate of participation in a high-impact practice that has been associated with predicting leadership efficacy (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013) and capacity (Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Contrary to this, however, Dugan et al. (2012) found positional leadership experiences for African American students to be a significantly negative leadership predictor. Kezar and Moriarty (2000) concurred, but only for African American male students. The student organization leadership position finding in the present study is interesting, considering that research has shown both African American and Asian American students are reluctant to use the term "leader" or to identify themselves or members of their respective racial groups as such (Arminio et al., 2000; Balón, 2005; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Kodama, 2014). In the current study, neither of the two racial groups appeared to be reluctant to identify themselves as leaders, and instead reported higher levels of engagement in the practice. The increased engagement by African American CCSSP users, however, did not translate into any findings for leadership outcomes, which may be worth further examination when considering the findings of Dugan et al., (2012) and Kezar and Moriarty (2000).

Membership in student organizations is the third practice with unique findings. A medium effect size emerged for African American students and a small meaningful effect size emerged for Asian American students. Both results point again to CCSSP users, demonstrating meaningfully higher rates of engagement in student organizations when compared to their peers who were not involved in CCSSPs. Membership or involvement in student organizations has been found to either predict leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) or influence student leadership (Dugan, 2006).

The final two practices with findings after disaggregating the data by race are *community service* and *off-campus leadership position*. For community service, a small effect size measure was found for all three racial groups, and off-campus organization leadership position returned with a small but meaningful effect size for Asian American students. All results pointed to CCSSP users, which was not surprising since CCSSPs originated out of a framework that placed a great deal of importance on connecting to the community and fostering community engagement (Patton, 2010).

Community service has been found to have a positive impact on leadership development for college students (Astin, et al., 2002; Astin et al., 2000; Berger & Milem, 2002; Cress et al., 2001; Dugan, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Thompson, 2006) and for African American and Asian American students specifically (Kodama & Dugan, 2013). Conversely, community service participation was a significant positive predictor for Latina/o and Asian American students, but not for African American students (Dugan et al., 2012). The same study found leadership position in community organizations a unique predictor in the regression model for Asian

American college students (Dugan et al., 2012). While the majority of the studies indicated community service and leadership positions in off-campus organizations as positive predictors of leadership development, the only racial group with leadership outcome findings in this study were Asian American students, demonstrating that students of color do not experience the college environment in the same way.

The findings suggest that leadership development differs by racial groups (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Pope, 2000), and that meaningful differences are often masked in the aggregate (Pascarella, 2006). The results, however, were not always consistent with the findings of the studies cited, which added to the complexity of exploring leadership development for individual racial groups of color. An additional complexity to consider is where students may be in the spectrum of their leadership and racial identity development processes and the potential impact of their college environment. These are factors that if only researched in the aggregate, lose potentially crucial insight.

African American CCSSP users emerged with the greatest number of findings, yet no evidence of leadership outcomes emerged. Latina/o students comprised more than 55% of the CCSSP users in the entire sample, but findings that pointed to meaningful differences between them and their peers who did not use CCSSPs were scarce. Finally, Asian American CCSSP users surfaced as the only racial group with leadership outcome scores that were meaningful and greater than non-users, despite having only one CCSSP type and being compared to their uninvolved peers who comprised almost 90% of the Asian American sample. These results illustrate the need to implement different strategies

for leadership development based on the needs of specific racial groups, which is congruent with previous studies (Dugan et al., 2012; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Pope, 2000); it places CCSSPs in an ideal position to make a significant impact. Given the clear indication that disaggregation matters, the remaining content-based results were interpreted in the disaggregate.

African American Students and Identity-Based Student Organizations

The next theme positioned CCSSPs as a potential major influence in helping African American students engage in identity-based student organizations. A chi-square analysis revealed a difference in the rates of participation between CCSSP users and non-users as evidenced by a *p*-value of less than .001 and further supported by an exceptionally large effect size ($d = 1.6$). African American students who utilize CCSSPs appeared to be involved in identity-based student organizations at rates that were greater than and more statistically meaningful than their peers who were not involved in CCSSPs.

Involvement in identity-based student organizations has long been considered one of the most important influences on and predictors of leadership and racial identity development (Flowers, 2004; Fries-Britt, 2000; Guardia & Evans, 2008; Guiffrida, 2003; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Inkelas; 2004; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001; Sutton & Terrell, 1997). Leaders of identity-based organizations have been found to experience both psychosocial identity and leadership identity as salient (Renn & Ozaki, 2010). More importantly, aside from helping African American students gain critical leadership skills and a healthy sense of racial-self, when

an institution promotes identity-based organizations, students have reported feeling welcomed and supported to the point where they eventually feel comfortable enough to participate in other general campus-wide groups (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Museus, 2008; Sutton & Terrell, 1997). Identity-based organizations are ideal venues for cultural expression, validation, and learning (Arminio et al., 2000); for helping make connections with faculty, staff, and peers (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010); and for providing other critical support for negotiating the college environment (Dugan et al., 2012).

Asian American Students and CCSSP's Potential Impact on Efficacy and Capacity

Asian American students who used CCSSPs emerged as the only racial group in the present study with meaningful differences in leadership outcomes when compared with their peers who did not use CCSSPs. Small but meaningful effect sizes were found for leadership efficacy and capacity. Additionally, meaningful differences were found for eight of the 11 high-impact leadership practices for Asian American CCSSP users.

Previous research has repeatedly indicated that Asian American students are less likely to identify themselves or members of their racial group as leaders (Balón, 2005; Liu & Sedlacek, 1999), yet a small meaningful effect size measure was found in this study for both on- and off-campus leadership positions. No other racial group emerged with a finding for off-campus leadership position. These findings do not appear to agree with previous research, but they seem to indicate strong evidence of the potential impact of CCSSPs. Post-hoc analysis revealed that 100% of Asian American CCSSP users were

21 years of age or younger, and of this group only 38% self-identified as first-generation college students. This suggests that despite being the youngest racial cohort of CCSSP users, seeking assistance and making connections with students and staff may have been encouraged prior to entering college.

While CCSSPs appear to make a difference for Asian American students who utilize their centers, it is important to note that they only represented 11% of the entire Asian American student sample of this study. In other words, 89% of Asian American students were found to be less engaged in high-impact leadership practices and they reported meaningfully lower outcome scores than their peers who were using CCSSPs. This indicates that clearly something is happening in the Asian American CCSSP that is having a positive and direct impact on leadership outcomes. There appears to be much room for Asian American CCSSPs to impact a much larger percentage of their student community.

Latina/o CCSSPs and High-Impact Leadership Practices

This discussion has largely focused on themes involving African American and Asian American students. The exclusion of Latina/o students was due to the surprisingly limited number of results in this study. The overwhelming majority (70%) of the entire Latina/o sample were engaged in CCSSPs, which translates into 57% of the overall sample of CCSSP users. Despite their large numerical presence, gains in leadership outcomes pointed to students who did not use CCSSPs and findings for high-impact leadership practices were limited to only four of the 11. This was a theme worth exploring because of previous research, which positioned the remaining high-impact

practices as having a positive influence on (or as positive predictors of) leadership for Latina/o students (Bordes & Arredondo, 2005; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Laden, 1999; Santos & Reigadas, 2002).

No findings emerged for peer mentoring despite the fact that previous studies identified peer mentoring as a significant positive predictor of socially responsible leadership for Latina/o students (Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010). Although the following studies did not look at leadership exclusively, mentoring has been found to positively influence Latina/o students as early as their first year (Bordes & Arredondo, 2005; Laden, 2000), and having a mentor of the same race was also found to have a positive impact (Santos & Reigadas, 2002). Similarly, on-campus student organization involvement has been cited as a predictor of leadership when Latina/o students serve as general members (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010) and as positional leaders (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kodama & Dugan, 2013).

Other on-campus involvement opportunities with no differences found in this study (but cited as influences on leadership and racial identity development for Latina/o students) include identity-based organizations (Maramba & Velasquez, 2010; Renn & Ozaki, 2010) and multicultural Greek-letter organizations (Guardia & Evans, 2008). Engagement with community organizations has also been linked to leadership development for Latina/o students (Kodama & Dugan, 2013) but emerged with no meaningful differences between CCSSP users and non-users in this study.

The results of this study demonstrate that Latina/o CCSSPs users did not participate in the majority of high-impact leadership practices at rates that were

meaningfully greater than their Latina/o peers who did not use CCSSPs. Additionally, the meaningful differences that were found for sociocultural conversations, staff and faculty mentoring, and community service did not translate into leadership outcomes for Latina/o CCSSP users. One reason for this finding may be that Latina/o CCSSP users could be just as active as their peers who did not use CCSSPs. Both groups may be engaging in high-impact practices at rates that are equal or similar to one another, which may account for the limited number of meaningful differences found in this study. The lack of leadership outcome findings pointing to Latina/o CCSSP users seem to indicate that CCSSP users may be those most in need of assistance while non-users, who reported higher meaningful scores for leadership capacity, resiliency, and social perspective-taking, may not see a reason to utilize the programs and services offered by CCSSPs.

A second reason for this finding may in the way Latina/o students use these centers based on the ethnic- versus racial-compositional interest. The Latina/o community is non-homogenous with a large number of culturally diverse ethnic subgroups (Torres, Howard-Hamilton, & Cooper, 2003). At the institution sampled in this study, it is not uncommon for the composition of CCSSPs to be dominated by a single ethnic subgroup. If this is the case, and CCSSP users are experiencing high racial salience, preferences may be made for in-group (i.e., ethnic group specific) interactions. Students who do not utilize CCSSPs may interpret this as meaning that centers do not cater to them, or they may feel unwelcomed by the dominant group (Castillo et al., 2006; Torres, 2003). This may, in turn, have implications for how high-impact practices are experienced and how leadership outcomes are developed. The lack of findings in most

high-impact practices suggests that Latina/o CCSSPs could assess the effectiveness of their programs or infuse greater amounts of engagement opportunities, particularly related to peer mentoring, general and identity-based student clubs, multicultural Greek-letter organizations, and off-campus organizations.

Implications

This research revealed that race-specific CCSSPs do not have an impact on leadership outcomes above and beyond what was reported by CCSSP non-users. However, differences pointing to CCSSP users did emerge with the participation rates of high-impact leadership practices. More importantly, the study revealed that disaggregating the data by race yielded a number of unique and important findings for each racial group.

Implications for Practice

The research revealed a significant overlap between the use of race-specific cultural centers and student support programs. For African American students, finding safe spaces to connect with like peers is a long-standing practice that can be traced to the 1960s (Patton, 2010; Young, 1986). This study demonstrated that the practice is still part of their college experience today. Besides finding sanctuaries from their perceived negative environments, CCSSPs as safe spaces also serve to help African American students express, validate, and further develop their racial identities while simultaneously enhancing leadership skills. If African American students do not limit their involvement to only one type of CCSSP, and they are engaging in high-impact leadership practices at rates that are greater than their peers who are not using CCSSPs, this finding should have

important implications for higher education practice. Specifically, colleges and universities should fully support, enhance, or create African American CCSSPs if they are committed to developing leadership of African American students. It is important that students see CCSSPs as a fully integrated and vital function of the university system, rather than a secondary practice that is dependent on the current political temperament for their very existence. Fully integrating CCSSPs not only help students' perceptions of their college environments, but can increase their effectiveness by making it easier and more acceptable for them to engage in cross-cultural interactions.

For Asian American students, the high degree of correlation between the two types of CCSSPs means they are also engaging in non-Asian centers. Cross-cultural interactions are likely fostering more complex sociocultural conversations which may account for Asian American students being the only racial group with leadership outcome gains in the present study. Only 11% of the Asian American participants in this study reported using CCSSPs, which means that the overwhelming majority (89%) never used a center. A university offering only one Asian American CCSSP, while offering other racial groups two or more fully staffed centers, may be sending a message to Asian American students that they do not need as much assistance, which seems to perpetuate the "model minority" stereotype. Asian American students may feel like they do not matter, which may further marginalize them. Given what is known about the devastating effects of stereotype threats on a continually diversifying racial group, coupled with how high-impact leadership practices can serve as effective countermeasures, it is important that colleges and universities consider similar resources such as CCSSPs for Asian

American students. In addition to making sure there are adequate resources through which Asian American students can engage in high-impact leadership practices, CCSSPs should focus on educating students, as well as the larger campus community, on the myths around stereotypes and other racially-influenced barriers.

Latina/o students also reported a high degree of correlation between the use of both types of CCSSPs, which was associated with generational status and their need to find safe spaces for community building. Providing safe spaces for Latina/o students is perhaps even more relevant today than it was when CCSSPs were first created more than 40 years ago. The immigration backlash seen in many sectors of society is often against the Latina/o community, irrespective of an individual or ethnic group's immigration status. This, coupled with the increased attention on undocumented Latina/o students on campuses (Gonzales, 2011), should have important implications on CCSSP leadership practices. Undocumented students attend colleges despite the lack of government financial assistance, the uncertainty of employment post-graduation, and the possibility that at any moment, they may be forced to leave the country. Transitioning from the more legally protected environment of the K-12 system to higher education where legal status is a basis for participation is a "collision among contexts... [that] has profound implications for identity formation" and leadership development (Gonzales, 2011, p. 602). Formal leadership programs are ill equipped to address these needs thus making CCSSPs the ideal and often only resource on campus.

Well-intended efforts, however, by CCSSP programs and services that cater to more frequent users (e.g., first-generation, undocumented) may, in turn, serve to further

isolate, and perhaps disadvantage, other Latina/o groups (e.g., second generation and beyond, Latina/o students with legal status). Latina/o CCSSPs should make a concerted effort to staff their centers with professionals who reflect the ethnic diversity within their Latina/o community. Furthermore, programming and services should be regularly assessed, not just for their effectiveness and pedagogy, but to ensure that content, language, presentation, and special efforts (e.g., community outreach or services, political activism, marketing materials) take into account the varying degree of racial and leadership development needs of the broader Latina/o student community.

The second theme that emerged in the findings focused on why greater rates of participation in the high-impact leadership practices did not necessarily translate into leadership outcome gains for the overall sample. The majority of research supporting these high-impact practices as predictors of, or having an influence on, leadership focused more on upper level students or students in positional leadership roles. The sample drawn for the present study included an almost equal distribution of student academic class standings, which may have influenced the lack of leadership outcome gains. CCSSPs are therefore advised to be mindful of students' varying stages of leadership and identity development. Some students may be moving through earlier stages, and this may require more attention to in-group activities. Students with more complex understandings may find working collaboratively with others within their racial group or across racial groups to be more beneficial. Applying a one-size-fits-all approach is likely to place some students at a disadvantage and may even be harmful to their development (Dugan et al., 2012).

Mentoring experiences with faculty and student affairs staff emerged with meaningful differences pointing to CCSSP users for all racial groups, which in turn justified this finding as the third theme. Study results indicate that CCSSP users are more actively seeking out and engaging in these types of interactions. Results from previous research are mixed for faculty mentoring, but appear more consistent in support of mentoring relationships with student affairs staff. One possible reason for the disparity between the two types of relationships is the likelihood that student affairs staff may focus more on student identity and leadership development, as opposed to a relationship that is more explicitly about academic or career enhancement.

CCSSPs should make mentoring students a priority, not simply because students appear eager to make connections and to seek such guidance, but because of the potential benefits to their identity and leadership development. CCSSPs should add, as part of the mentor training, a component that covers aspects of student and leadership development theory and practice for mentors, and especially faculty mentors who may have little background in student affairs. In cases where this is not possible, co-mentoring relationships (that include at least one student affairs professional) could be a viable alternative.

The fourth theme based on the findings of this study was the discovery of meaningful differences once the data were disaggregated by race. The results demonstrated many differences between how each racial group engages in the high-impact leadership practices and their potential impact on leadership outcomes. While CCSSPs appear to be impacting the rates of participation in these practices, for African

American and Latina/o students the engagement did not yield gains in leadership outcomes that were above and beyond those made by students who did not use a CCSSP. This did not hold true for Asian American students.

It should be the responsibility of CCSSP administrators and student affairs professionals to have an understanding of the unique histories, cultural values, and perspectives of students of color, which can influence how students experience their campus environments. These differences should be taken into account when assessing the campus climate and how services, programs, and activities are designed or what is offered. CCSSPs in particular should assess their target population for potential differences between sub-ethnic groups that may be tied to the complex implications of social and racial identity development on leadership (Day et al., 2009; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Pope, 2000; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Only through regular program assessment, continual review of current literature, and recurring interactions with the populations being served can CCSSP administrators and student affairs staff be best prepared to incorporate important and unique cultural understandings into their interactions with, and interventions for, students of color (Pope, 2000).

One of the unique findings, after disaggregating the data by race, and the fifth theme for this discussion, was a meaningful difference in the rates of participation of African American students in identity-based student organizations. The greater rates of participation pointed toward CCSSP users. Identity-based student organizations have been credited as ideal venues for racial and leadership development (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). For African American students who may not be ready to

interact with the larger campus community, identity-based organizations are the ideal

starting points where they can safely express, explore, and even validate their racial

identity while at the same time work on developing critical leadership skills that will

enable them to branch out for more cross-cultural experiences.

African American CCSSPs should recognize the potential benefits of this practice

by continuing to make support and development of identity-based student organizations a

priority. Some examples of this support may be in the form of CCSSP staff as formal

group advisors; co-sponsoring programs and activities; including members of the

organization on CCSSP staff search committees or governing boards; offering spaces to

hold meetings or to house organizational historical records; and most importantly,

beginning the process of helping them connect with other groups on campus to help them

link their experiences to leadership.

Another unique finding after disaggregating the data by race, and the sixth theme

for the findings of this study, was that Asian American CCSSP users emerged as the only

racial group with meaningful gains in leadership outcomes. Additionally, they emerged

with higher rates of participation in eight of the 11 high-impact leadership practices.

Further analysis revealed that CCSSP users were all under 21 years of age and that they

only represented 11% of the overall study sample.

The fact that most Asian American students appeared to avoid or were unable to

use their CCSSP, coupled with the lack of any findings pointing toward non-users,

indicates that they stand to benefit from utilizing a CCSSP. Furthermore, previous studies

have discredited common perceptions linked to the "model minority" stereotype, finding

instead that many of the growing Asian sub-racial groups appear to be more in line with the academic, personal, and leadership development needs of other groups of color (Inkelas, 2004; Maramba & Velasquez, 2012; Museus, 2008; Museus & Kiang, 2009). Asian American CCSSPs should find ways to encourage more of their target population to take advantage of the services and to become involved in the centers. To the extent that space, staffing, and funding permits, Asian American CCSSPs can be better integrated into the broader community through collaborations with academic colleges, advising, tutoring centers, and other CCSSPs. One example might be a staff exchange program where CCSSPs and other units offer space for temporary office hours in each other's areas. Students who have never utilized a CCSSP may be exposed to one by visiting their college academic advisor in a CCSSP. This, in turn, would give CCSSP users greater exposure to the broader campus community. Finally, like Latina/o CCSSPs, Asian American centers should take a closer look at the sub-ethnic make-up of their users and the designs of their programs to avoid the perception of catering or favoring to a particular sub-ethnic group.

The final theme discussed in the interpretation of results was the surprisingly limited number of findings for Latina/o CCSSP users. Unlike Asian American students, a large number of Latina/o students reported using CCSSPs, yet leadership outcome findings pointed to students who were not using CCSSPs. Additionally, most of the high-impact leadership practices emerged with no meaningful differences in the rates of participation between CCSSP users and those who did not utilize CCSSPs. These results demonstrate that both groups (Latina/o CCSSP users and non-users) were either equally

engaged or equally disengaged in high-impact leadership practices, but Latina/o students who did not use CCSSPs reported higher meaningful scores for leadership capacity, resiliency and social perspective-taking. Latina/o CCSSPs may benefit from a comprehensive assessment of current programs for level of use and impact on leadership development of the students being served. The assessment should seek information on the ethnic subgroup make-up and the level of identity salience of the students seeking their services. Researchers suggest that having an understanding of the varying levels of racial salience of students could "in turn alter predictors for leadership development and allow professionals to better target educational interventions" (Dugan et al., 2012, p. 11). To the extent space and resources allow, infusing greater attention to high-impact practices may be necessary, particularly related to peer mentoring, general and identity-based student clubs, multicultural Greek-letter student organizations, and off-campus organizations.

Implications for Future Research

This study found that when data received from an umbrella group of students of color was disaggregated, meaningful differences emerged. The same may be the case across ethnic groups, suggesting the importance of disaggregating even further. This is especially relevant to Asian American and Latina/o students, due to the large number of ethnic subgroups with even more diverse immigration histories, cultures, and sociopolitical backgrounds (Alvarez, 2002; Chen et al., 2006; Evans et al., 2010; Helms, 1990; Museus & Kiang, 2009; Torres, 1999).

Second is the importance of continuing to look at the intersection between racial identity and leadership. Largely considered social constructions that directly influence

each other (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan et al., 2012; Komives et al., 2005; Renn &
Ozaki, 2010), looking at racial identity and leadership development can help explain how
social-change leadership is practiced (Ospina & Su, 2009). The present study did not look
at race beyond a categorical value, but previous studies have provided a more complex
understanding of its influence on leadership (Dugan et al., 2012; Kodama & Dugan,
2013).

A third implication for future research is the consideration between leadership
development and student academic class standing. The present study did not isolate first-
year students from seniors. A closer look by student academic class standing may reveal
an interesting correlation with racial identity and leadership development (e.g., Dugan &
Komives, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

Asian American CCSSP users appeared to benefit the most from their
involvement in the centers. The majority were under the age of 21 and were second-
generation college students. Future research should look closer at the relationship
between age and generational status for Asian American students. While it is widely
known that Asian American students continue to become much more ethnically diverse
(Alvarez, 2002; Chen et al., 2006; Museus & Kiang, 2009), it would be interesting to see
if age and generational status have an impact on their leadership development.

Mentoring experiences with faculty and student affairs professionals emerged as
potential influences on leadership for all three racial groups. Previous studies have
reported differing results on their impact. Future researchers should examine the impact
of same-race mentors and mentoring practices that focus more on students' personal and

leadership development, as opposed to more academic or career-based guidance, as a possible connection or explanation to previously inconsistent results (Campbell et al., 2012).

The final implication for research based on the study's findings is a recommendation that the racial climate of the institution be considered when looking at leadership for students of color. The level of perceived racism, discrimination, or even general acceptance may shed some light on students' self-perception, leadership development, or racial identity salience (Dugan et al., 2012) which, in turn, may help better explain the context in which students might choose to utilize or not utilize a CCSSP.

Limitations

This study has the potential to serve as a resource for future research, which will require that the findings be interpreted in the context of some limitations. The first limitation is that this study was conducted at a single and exceptionally unique public institution situated in a large urban setting. The university hosts one of the most distinctly diverse student populations in the country as evidenced by its MSI, AANAPISI, and HSI federal status. Studies conducted at a single institution are common (Arminio et. al., 2000; Inkelas, 2004; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). Moreover, the MSL instrument and data-collection process that was used for this study has been demonstrated to be valid and reliable. However, repeating the study across multiple and diverse campuses could offer further validation of the results.

Second, this study looked at the correlational, rather than causal, relationships between variables. The results demonstrated the magnitude of the effect, but they did not necessarily indicate the predictive relationships between variables. This is important because while it is listed as a limitation, it is also an appropriate approach for a study with little prior literature on which to draw (Coe, 2002). Determining where CCSSPs may be most affecting students provides useful information to both student affairs educators and future researchers.

A third potential limitation is the use of a secondary data set for analyses. Although two questions were added to the local 2012 MSL to make this study possible, variable selection was largely limited to those available in the MSL. Thus, a full range of collegiate experiences associated with high-impact practices (Kuh et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) was not possible.

The next potential limitation is linked to the study design. Contemporary researchers posit that leadership and racial identity development are processes which may be viewed as better suited for a longitudinal study (Evans et al., 2010; Komives et al., 2009; Northouse, 2010; Ospina & Foldy, 2009; Ospina & Su, 2009; Rost, 1991). The MSL uses a cross-sectional design, which is static in nature. However, these concerns are addressed by the use of retrospective questions as part of the MSL conceptual model, which captures differences in time. This process of collecting data has been shown to be more reliable than longitudinal approaches because of concerns with response-shift bias when using pre- and post-tests (Rohs, 1999).

Another potential limitation was the wording and order in which the two custom questions were presented in the local MSL survey. Students were asked for their level of participation in student support programs and cultural centers separately. Asian American CCSSP users answered yes to both questions despite only having an Asian American cultural center and no student support program. It is possible that Asian American students may have presumed that their center met the criteria for both questions, thus prompting them to answer yes to both. Order affect, or the way in which the questions were asked (Schuman & Presser, 1981), may have skewed the data for Asian American students.

Finally, the sample for this study contained students from across all four years of academic class standing. It did not consider just looking at upper-class students (i.e., juniors & senior). As such, some students may not be avoiding CCSSPs, but instead may have not yet discovered the centers, and leadership development may not yet be realized for students in their first or second year of college (e.g., Dugan & Komives, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

Conclusion

This study provides a foundation for future research to continue looking at the impact that independent, race-specific cultural centers and student support programs (i.e., CCSSPs) have on the students who utilize them. The research provided some of the first empirical findings looking at the potential impact of these centers on leadership development and rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices of students of

color. The most important finding highlights the importance of disaggregating data by race to unmask important differences.

CCSSPs appeared to generate greater rates of high-impact practices for African American students; practices that include sociocultural conversations, faculty, staff and peer mentoring, leadership position and general membership in student organizations, community service, and involvement in identity-based student organizations. The greater rates of participation did not result in leadership outcome gains, but evidence appeared to indicate that their impact may not yet be measurable. Asian American students appeared to benefit the most from their involvement in CCSSPs. Evidence surfaced with meaningful differences pointing to CCSSP users for the majority of leadership practices, and gains emerged in efficacy and capacity. Meaningful differences between Latina/o CCSSP users and non-users in the rates of participation in high-impact leadership practices were limited, and results for leadership outcomes only pointed to Latina/o students who were not involved in CCSSPs.

The results of this study help build the body of knowledge about leadership development for students of color. The unique findings by race will help student affairs professionals better design their leadership interventions. University administrators will benefit from these findings by having a better understanding of the important role CCSSPs can play in providing social/cultural support, as well as understanding the vital high-impact practices that have been linked to heightened racial identity and leadership development. This is especially important when considering the projected increase in populations of students of color in this country and in higher education.

APPENDIX A

SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP SCALE

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following items:
For the statements that refer to a group, think of the most effective, functional group of which you have recently been a part. This might be a formal organization or an informal study group. For consistency, use the same group in all your responses.

Number	Item	Response	M	SD
SRLS01	I am open to others' ideas	1 (Strongly Disagree)		
SRLS03	I value differences in others	2 (Disagree)		
SRLS04	I am able to articulate my priorities	3 (Neutral)		
SRLS05	Hearing differences in opinions enriches my thinking	4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly Agree)		
SRLS09	I am usually self confident			
SRLS10	I am seen as someone who works well with others			
SRLS13	My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs			
SRLS14	I am committed to a collective purpose in those groups to which I belong			
SRLS16	I respect opinions other than my own			
SRLS19	I contribute to the goals of the group			
SRLS22	I know myself pretty well			
SRLS23	I am willing to devote the time and energy to things that are important to me			
SRLS24	I stick with others through difficult times			
SRLS27	It is important to me to act on my beliefs			
SRLS28	I am focused on my responsibilities			
SRLS29	I can make a difference when I work with others on a task			
SRLS30	I actively listen to what others have to say			
SRLS32	My actions are consistent with my values			
SRLS33	I believe I have responsibilities to my community			
SRLS34	I could describe my personality			
SRLS40	I work with others to make my communities better places			

Number	Item	Response	*M*	*SD*
SRLS41	I can describe how I am similar to other people			
SRLS42	I enjoy working with others toward common goals			
SRLS47	I participate in activities that contribute to the common good			
SRLS48	Others would describe me as a cooperative group member			
SRLS51	I can be counted on to do my part			
SRLS52	Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me	1 (Strongly Disagree) 2 (Disagree) 3 (Neutral) 4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly Agree)		
SRLS53	I follow through on my promises			
SRLS54	I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to			
SRLS58	I know the purpose of the groups to which I belong			
SRLS59	I am comfortable expressing myself			
SRLS60	My contributions are recognized by others in the groups I belong to			
SRLS61	I work well when I know the collective values of a group			
SRLS62	I share my ideas with others			
SRLS63	My behaviors reflect my beliefs			
SRLS66	I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community			
SRLS67	I support what the group is trying to accomplish			
SRLS69	It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities			
SRLS71	I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community			

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP EFFICACY SCALE

How confident are you that you can be successful at the following? *(Select one response for each)*

Number	Item	Response	*M*	*SD*
OUT2a	Leading others			
OUT2b	Organizing a group's tasks to accomplish a goal	1 (Not at All Confident) 2 (Somewhat Confident) 3 (Confident) 4 (Very Confident)		
OUT2c	Taking initiative to improve something			
OUT2d	Working with a team on a group project			

APPENDIX C

CONNOR-DAVIDSON RESILIENCE SCALE

Indicate how much you agree with the following statements as they apply to you over the last month. If a particular situation has not occurrence recently, answer according to how you think you would have felt.

Number	Item	Response	M	SD
RES1	I am able to adapt when changes occur	1 (Not at All True)		
RES2	I can deal with whatever comes my way	2 (Rarely True) 3 (Sometimes True) 4 (Often True)		
RES3	I try to see the humorous side of things when I am faced with problems	5 (True Nearly All the Time)		
RES4	Having to cope with stress can make me stronger			
RES5	I tend to bounce back after illness, injury, or other hardships			
RES6	I believe I can achieve my goals, even if there are obstacles.			
RES7	Under pressure, I stay focused and think clearly			
RES8	I am not easily discouraged by failure			
RES9	I think of myself as a strong person when dealing with life's challenges and difficulties			
RES10	I am able to handle unpleasant or painful feelings like sadness, fear, and anger			

APPENDIX D

SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE TAKING SCALE

The following statements inquire about your thoughts and feelings in a variety of situations. For each item, be as honest as possible in indicating how well it describes you.

Number	Item	Response	M	SD
SPT1	I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.	1 (Does Not Describe Me Well) 2 3		
SPT2	I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.	4 5 (Describes Me Very Well)		
SPT3	I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.			
SPT4	When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in their shoes" for a while.			
SPT5	Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.			

APPENDIX E

DEGREE OF INVOLVEMENT IN STUDENT AND OFF-CAMPUS

ORGANIZATIONS

Since starting college, how often have you:

Number	Item	Response	_M_	_SD_
ENV6a	**Been an involved member in college organizations?**	1 (Never) 2 (Once) 3 (Sometimes) 4 (Many Times) 5 (Much of the Time)		
ENV6b	**Held a leadership position in a college organization(s)?** *(ex. officer in a club or organization, captain of athletic team, first chair in musical group, section editor of newspaper, chairperson of committee)*?			
ENV6c	**Been an involved member in an off-campus community or work-based organization(s)** *(ex. Parent-Teacher Association, church group, union)*?			
ENV6d	**Held a leadership position in** an **off-campus community or work-based organization(s)?** *(ex. officer in a club or organization, officer in a professional association, chairperson of committee)*?			

APPENDIX F

FREQUENCY OF COMMUNITY SERVICE

In an average month, approximately how many hours do you engage in community service? *(Select one for each statement.)*

Number	Item	Response	M	SD
ENV3a	As part of a class	1 (None)		
		2 (1-5)		
ENV3b	As part of a work study experience	3 (6-10)		
		4 (11-15)		
ENV3c	With a campus student organization	5 (16-20)		
ENV3d	As part of a community organization unaffiliated with your school	6 (21-25)		
		7 (26-30)		
		8 (31 or more)		
ENV3e	On your own			

APPENDIX G

MENTORING

Since you started at your current college/university, how often have the following types of mentors **assisted you in your growth or development?**

Number	Item	Response	*M*	*SD*
ENV8b1	Faculty/Instructor			
ENV8b2	Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff *(ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)*	1 (Never) 2 (Once) 3 (Sometimes) 4 (Often)		
ENV8b3	Employer			
ENV8b4	Community member *(not your employer)*			
ENV8b5	Parent/Guardian			
ENV8b6	Other Student			

APPENDIX H

SOCIOCULTURAL CONVERSATIONS

During interactions with other students outside of class, how often have you done each of the following in an average school year? *(Select one for each)*

Number	Item	Response	*M*	*SD*
ENV9a	Talked about different lifestyles/ customs			
ENV9b	Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own	1 (Never) 2 (Sometimes) 3 (Often) 4 (Very Often)		
ENV9c	Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice			
ENV9d	Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were very different from your own			
ENV9e	Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity			
ENV9f	Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own			

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